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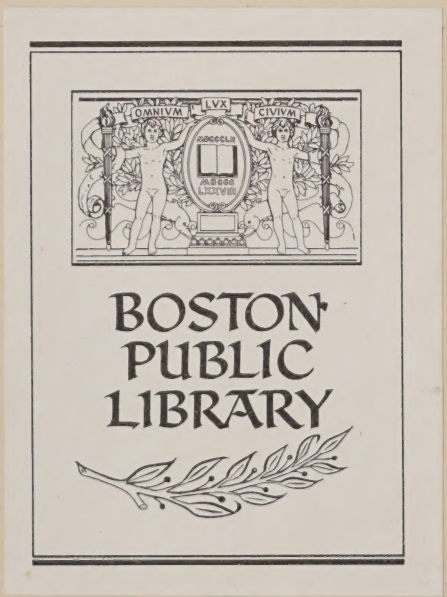

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The Week.

THE country was startled on Saturday by the news that the President had been shot just as he was about leaving Washington for New York, and was dangerously, if not mortally, wounded. As he was entering the Baltimore and Ohio Station to take the early morning train for New York he was shot twice by a man who had been lying in wait for him there with a revolver. The first ball struck the President in the shoulder, but seems merely to have inflicted a flesh-wound; the second struck him in the back near the hip, and is lodged in the body—the physicians in attendance have found it impossible to ascertain exactly where. It was at first believed that it had passed into the liver, but of this there is now, at this writing, considerable doubt. At first, too, the general impression seemed to be that recovery was impossible; but the mere continuance of life soon began to give grounds for hope, and notwithstanding what seemed to be a dangerous relapse on Sunday evening the official bulletins as we go to press give decidedly encouraging accounts of the President's condition. The would-be assassin, Guiteau, was at once overpowered and carried off to jail, not, however, before he succeeded in crying out in a melodramatic and evidently premeditated way something to the effect that he had done it as a "Stalwart," and that "Arthur was President now." He had also written a letter to General Sherman, which was found in the street shortly after his arrest, and in which he referred to the death of the President as "a political necessity," described himself as "a lawyer, theologian, and politician," and a "Stalwart of the Stalwarts," and requested General Sherman to send troops to the jail, apparently anticipating mob-violence.

All the details of the crime show a cool deliberation which, in an ordinary case and with any adequate motive, would remove all doubts on the subject of the prisoner's sanity; but there are features in it which look the other way. Guiteau has always led a wild, irregular life, and has conducted himself on various occasions in such a manner as to produce the impression on the minds of people with whom he came into contact that he was irresponsible. Since his arrest he has talked like a lunatic, and shown a levity which is not at all common among sane persons who commit murder from political fanaticism. His only cause for personal hostility to the President (which, by the way, he entirely disclaims) is that he had failed to get an office from him. Stalwartism is of itself with many persons a sort of mental disease, which prevents them from seeing anything in the light in which it appears to the rest of mankind, and it has excused before now a good many serious violations of the moral law. Whether of itself it ought to furnish a legal ground for acquittal of homicide is another and a distinct question, which the courts would probably decide in the negative. The punishment for an assault with intent to kill in the District of Columbia is only a short term of imprisonment, which certainly seems an entirely inadequate penalty for such a case as this, and the suggestion has been made that the Constitution ought to be altered so as to increase the penalty for any attempt on the life of the President.

The President's fate is so solemn a theme, and concerns so many both in its lessons and its results, that there is no point in it which will bear being passed over lightly. This the Vice-President has already begun to find to his cost, but we hope also to his profit. There was probably not a voter able to read in this country, outside the small circle of Mr. Conkling's personal following, who did not find the grief and dismay with which he heard on Saturday morning that the President had been killed greatly intensified by the reflection that Mr. Chester A. Arthur was his legal successor. There is, we presume, no doubt in any one's mind that had it been possible to vote on Mr. Arthur directly and separately from the President, he would not have carried a single State. His nomination was felt to be most unfortunate, and was acquiesced in in the belief that the office had no influence, and that the probability of his succeeding to the Presidency was too remote to be worth considering, in view of General Garfield's age and bodily vigor. It was hoped, too, by many that, although Mr. Arthur's political activity and tastes had been of a very objectionable kind, his elevation would have the sobering and educating effect which has been so often, even in ordinary men, produced by the sudden imposition of a new kind of responsibility. There was a very rude shock given to this expectation by the speech at the Dorsey dinner, in which Mr. Arthur treated that person's operations in Indiana, the corruption of which he virtually confessed, as an excellent joke. The way in which the Republican press received this escapade, coupled with the revelations subsequently made about Dorsey, ought to have stung a man of ordinary susceptibility into watchfulness and prudence at least. But the Conkling struggle at Albany had no sooner begun than the Vice-President hurried to play a prominent but subordinate part in it, in apparent indifference to the indignant protests of all that was best in the community. The worst has since happened. The awful tragedy at Washington found him still busy with the details of a contest in which charges of bribery on one side had been met by charges of adultery on the other, and in which suspected perjury was foiled by peeping through bedroom keyholes. It is out of this mess of filth that Mr. Arthur will go to the Presidential chair in case of the President's death.

In a matter in which there is so much to deplore and dread, it is well to look for things which are compensatory or consolatory. Foremost among these is the fact that the attack on the President did not occur until the public mind had been thoroughly enlightened as to the character and aims of his Conklingite opponents. Conkling and Platt were in no way better men before their resignation than they are now, but they are now known and understood by hundreds of thousands whom they had previously imposed upon. Conkling can hardly be so bold or rapacious now as he would have been before his Albany trials. A second source of consolation is the way in which the tragedy has brought home to the public the need of some change in the mode of appointment and in the tenure-of-office in the civil service. Thousands who did not see it before now see that it will not do to lead great hordes of shiftless, half-cracked ne'er-do-weels to look to the Government for a living when their friends get tired of supporting them; that it will not do to expose a President, to whom all have access, first to their solicitations and then to their resentment; and, finally, that it will not do to leave it in the power of disappointed politicians to denounce the President in the vilest billingsgate, and hold him up to popular execration, because he does not satisfy them with collectorships, gaugerships, and consulates. Guiteau's shot did much for civil-service reform. Nothing that the Conklingite faction can accomplish, even if they come into power during the next four years, will do away with the impression it has made.

Mr. Conkling and Guiteau seem to be the only persons who have announced publicly that they take a cheerful view of the situation. Everybody else, as far as our knowledge goes, who has spoken about it thinks it looks gloomy. Mr. Conkling, however, in a very remarkable interview with a *Herald* reporter, says: "There is no occasion for public apprehension or excitement"; and "the Constitution points out just what should be done in just such an emergency. The Vice-President on the death of the President instantly succeeds, and the Government goes on as if no change had occurred." Unfortunately, this view is not supported by experience. The Government has not gone on under any of the Vice-Presidents just as if no change had occurred. One of the reasons why people are gloomy just now is that they think if Vice-President Arthur succeeds to the Presidency things will change very much, and that a very obnoxious person named Conkling will "run" the Government as he has long run the "Machine." Nor are they reassured by his announcement that now is the time for "preaching peace and good-will," any more

than they were reassured when, on Robertson's nomination, he called for civil-service reform. His horror of gambling, and desire to go home, when he thinks he has won all the money on the table, are very diverting, but they impose on no one.

The expressions of sympathy over the attempt on the President in Europe, from men of all shades of opinion and from all kinds of governments, have poured in and continue to pour in in rich abundance. It is well known that there is here no body of stifled discontent, and no subject districts and provinces which do not govern themselves. There has been a tendency on the part of some foreign newspapers to ascribe the attempt to disappointed political opponents, or, in other words, to assume that Conkling and Platt had something to do with it; but, on the whole, the affair has been pretty well understood from the beginning, with some ludicrous mistakes in matters of fact and of law. One of the French papers considers Mr. Arthur a highly respectable Democrat, while an Italian paper, the *Opinione*, is strongly opposed to the holding of another election in the case of the President's death, as it fears the consequences in the present excited state of the public mind. The affair had little or no effect on American securities in England. Twenty years ago it would have sent them tumbling.

The proceedings at Albany have been varied by the withdrawal of Platt from the Senatorial contest. He gives no reasons, but his course is naturally ascribed to the discovery of his connection with a scandal of a private but disgraceful character by a self-constituted Half-Breed committee of investigation in the matter. His Senatorial career, thus definitively closed, will probably, taking it all around, prove an unsatisfactory subject for retrospective meditation. His vigilant foes to whom his retirement at this juncture is due, have still a short time to remain in public life, but will doubtless find it difficult to procure renominations in doubtful districts with a preponderance of decent voters in their constituencies. Part of Platt's following took up Crowley, but no substantial change resulted in the balloting, the end of which appears as problematical as ever. Thursday last Barber, Phelps, and Edwards, the principal professional lobbyists of Albany, were indicted for bribery, arrested, and released on bail after pleading not guilty, with the privilege of modifying the plea in future if they chose.

The principal financial event of the week was the practical closing of the refunding operations of the U. S. Treasury which began in March. On the first of July about $607,000,000 of bonds bearing 5 and 6 per cent. interest respectively had been extended at the pleasure of the Government at the rate of 3½ per cent. per annum, and the remaining $58,000,000 had either been paid or provision made for paying them as presented in the next few months. This successful reduction in the rate of interest on so large a part of the public debt, and the heavy disbursements of the Treasury, present and prospective, imparted a strong tone to the speculative markets, and all became buoyant, when suddenly on Saturday morning news came that the President had been assassinated; this caused at once a small panic. The foreign markets, however, were comparatively little affected, and on Tuesday the markets here regained a quiet and steady tone. The event had no influence on the foreign exchanges, and had little on the money market. All the Exchanges, except the Stock Exchange, were closed on Saturday, so as to make the July holidays extend from the 2d to the 5th instant; therefore the trade exchanges were not influenced by the shocking event. The price of silver bullion in London advanced during the week to 52½*d.* per ounce; and the bullion value here of the 412½-grain silver dollar to 87⅝ cents.

Collector Smith, of Bangor, whose performance of his duties has been unexceptionable, and against whom nothing is or was alleged, except that he was not the political "worker" he ought to have been, has been suspended, and ex-Governor Davis appointed in his place. The New England Republican press have condemned this procedure with singular unanimity, and the Maine journals were filled with complaint and protest on the very morning of the day which saw the President attacked by a "Stalwart" fanatic. There must, therefore, in that quarter a saner judgment prevail than elsewhere as to the remoter causes of the attempted assassination, and as to the moral of it for the victim as well as for the country at large. When we compare the cases of Collector Merritt and Collector Smith, we perceive that the President has been guilty of the same injustice while complying with one Senator's wishes and disregarding another's, and has invited the personal resentment of both the officers removed. We must not, therefore, lay all the blame of Guiteau's act upon the doctrine of the Senatorial prerogative, or forget that while the President's attitude towards Mr. Conkling was right, the occasion for coming in conflict with him was wholly wrong. We are glad to observe that the Eastern press appreciate the bearing of Collector Smith's removal on local politics in Maine. It means a perpetuation of the insolent Machine rule which paved the way for the rise of the Greenback party in that State, and drove hundreds of honest Republicans, from sheer disgust, into the ranks of the opposition.

President Porter read at the alumni meeting of Yale College on Tuesday last a very interesting report of the progress of the university during the last fifteen years. There has been a large increase in the corps of instructors in every department. A "university fund" for general use, which had no existence fifteen years ago, has been accumulated, and now amounts to over $400,000, while $444,000 has been added to the resources of the Academical Department. Donations and bequests for special purposes within the same period amount to nearly $2,000,000. In the college buildings the growth has been equally remarkable. Several dormitories and two chapels have been erected, wholly, or in large part, with funds furnished by donations. The library has been nearly doubled in accommodation and number of volumes. President Porter's exhibit, in truth, must have been highly satisfactory to the graduates and friends of the college. It had, however, one fault, and in our eyes a considerable one. Instead of being the report of fifteen years, it ought to be the fifteenth annual report. In other words, the governing body of the university ought to make just such a report as this, only more detailed, to its graduates and to the public every year. Harvard has made such a report now for some years, and the effect is excellent both on those who make it and on the public which reads it; but Harvard is, we believe, the only large college which does this. Yale has refrained from doing it until now. Our own Columbia treats its affairs as if they were the affairs of a private business partnership—that is, keeps the details of its management more secret than the law allows any banking corporation to keep theirs.

This is all wrong. A university is not a private trust in any sense of the term. It is a public trust in the largest and most solemn sense of the term. There is no class of trusts which the American people is more interested in seeing faithfully executed than college trusts. No man, or body of men, should bring to the execution of such trusts any of the traditions or methods of commercial firms or corporations, except strict probity and regularity in the management of the funds. For these things all our leading colleges are remarkable. Their management of their estates has been admirable. But it has to be borne in mind that their business is not, like that of commercial corporations, to grow rich; it is their business to remain always poor. They are bound, in fact, to grow rich in order to be poor. They are bound always to live up to the last limits of their income, and they are bound to give the world reasonable assurance that they are doing this. No board of college trustees has any right to ask the public to believe that they are doing all they can do for the higher education with the funds at their disposal, without giving the proof of it every year in black and white. There is still another consideration of importance. American colleges, unlike those of continental Europe, owe nearly all they have in the way of endowment to the munificence of individuals. They must rely on them, too, in the main for their future expansion. The gifts of the state in this country to universities are almost fatal gifts. But nothing does more to chill this munificence than secrecy. Moneyed men have to have their liberality and memory stimulated, and their interest excited and supplied with suggestions, by frequent re-

ports, such as they can understand, of what the colleges are doing and would like to do if they had the means. Harvard finds her account in such reports. Yale will find it if she adopts the Harvard practice. Columbia is suffering, and must always suffer, from her mistaken privacy. There is about as much known, and as much interest felt, about her by the ordinary New-Yorker as about Trinity Church or the Sailors' Snug Harbor.

Mr. Corcoran writes to us complaining that we have done him injustice in overlooking the fact that his plan of electing the President provides for the election of the three Senators from whom the President would be chosen by lot by a majority of the House of Representatives, and that therefore the election could not, as we suggested it might, result in the election of a Senator whom the majority of the voters would distrust. We undoubtedly did overlook the vote of the House of Representatives as a feature in his plan. But has he duly considered what its effect on the House of Representatives would be, and whether it would do any legislative business in the Presidential year, and whether the members of the Congress that was to elect would be chosen with reference to anything but the Presidential vote, and whether there would be any means of preventing the election of the three Senators by combinations which would give each "section" a chance, and of preventing interminable "deadlocks"?

The conviction of the nine persons, including Midhat Pasha, accused of murdering the late Sultan Abdul Aziz, who figured prominently in London during the Beaconsfield Ministry as the great Turkish reformer, is a curious termination to what may be considered the last attempt to regenerate Turkey. Abdul Aziz was undoubtedly insane, though not very insane for a sultan. All the sultans, like all the Asiatic despots, seem insane to the Western world in our day, owing to their habit of gratifying every whim the moment it seizes them, and recognizing no artificial bounds to the power of their will. When he was in England he greatly amused the public by having the railroad train in which he was travelling stopped that he might take a nap—a proceeding which, however, did not seem in the least singular to his suite. He had the great advantage over his predecessor, Abdul Medjid, of being physically strong, which sultans now seldom are, owing to the early sapping of their constitutions by excesses of all sorts, and people somehow imagined that a sultan who could sit erect on a horse and bend a poker was just the man for the crisis through which Turkey was passing. These pleasant dreams were dissipated, however, when he got hold of the proceeds of the loans made in France and England. He spent most of the money in palace-building, and the balance in ironclads and improved rifles, but nothing in any public improvement, not even the reorganization of the public service, and refused to be interfered with. He would probably have been allowed to finish his mad career without interference if the insurrection had not broken out in Herzegovina, and Austria had not started a demand for internal reforms in the Andrássy Memorandum, which Russia and Germany backed up in the Berlin Memorandum, and if the remonstrances of the Turkish bondholders had not begun to sound angry.

Some half-dozen pashas, of whom Midhat was one, then determined, either because they really were alarmed about the Empire or because they wanted to put on the throne a man whom they could manage, to depose him and put his nephew in his place. They did this very neatly and effectively by seizing him in the night, locking him up in another palace, and proclaiming the nephew. Such revolutions have often occurred in Turkey; but this revolution was unprecedented in the fact that the life of the deposed monarch was spared. We believe that there had been previously no exception to the rule that an overthrown sultan must either be killed or have his eyes put out. The conspirators in this instance were either too civilized or wished too much to appear civilized to adhere to the ancient usage, and they contented themselves with keeping their old master in a kind of splendid imprisonment. The deposed uncle was found dead one morning in the palace in which he was confined, with extensive slits in his veins made by a pair of scissors. When the news first got abroad it was naturally concluded that he had been murdered, after the manner of his nation in like cases, but this theory was most unexpectedly set aside by the report of seventeen doctors, mostly European and of high standing, who made an autopsy immediately after his death and pronounced it suicide, with abundance of illustrative proof. His mother, too, the Sultana Validè, who lived in the next suite of apartments, and was tenderly attached to him and really feared for his life, confirmed their report, and as nobody denied his insanity, it was generally accepted as final. Within a few months, however, confessions, whether voluntary or extorted, have been made by a wrestler and a pair of sergeants of having murdered Abdul Aziz on the instigation of some pashas, the chief of whom, Avni, was himself murdered two years ago by a Circassian, and the Sultan has eagerly adopted the theory and prosecuted the accused to conviction. The sentence of death has been passed, but it is not likely that it will be carried out.

On Friday the Irish Land Bill had passed what was considered the most critical point in its progress, the discussion of the Seventh Clause. The Seventh Clause attempts to furnish the court with guidance in fixing "a fair rent," and as it stood it was believed, and with good reason, that the court would be bound to base the amount of the rent on the yearly value of the farm, minus the tenant right—that is, minus the amount the tenant would be entitled to receive by way of compensation in case he were arbitrarily ejected. This would, of course, be equivalent to a great reduction in the value of the landlord's property. The tenant's interest, which now has no value unless he leaves his farm, would then become a permanent share in the value of the farm itself. This has excited a great deal of acrimony, and was a consequence of the Clause which the Ministry had not contemplated. The Clause has now been amended, and the definition of a fair rent is to be left to the court under a general direction to take into account the interest of both landlord and tenant. In this shape it has passed by 289 to 157.

The "délicatesse" between France and Italy continues to grow, and is aggravated every day by incidents which would at other times be insignificant. The Italians have become possessed with the idea that the French wish to get back some of their lost military prestige, and think that a quarrel with Italy would enable them to do so with safety. The French, apparently, take no pains to disabuse the Italians that they contemn them as a military power, while the Italians seem satisfied that the French are mistaken about their prowess, and that with their formidable iron-clads and their army of 450,000 men they could at least hold their own. The Italian populace in the large cities is greatly excited, and the high-handed treatment of Italian interests in Tunis by the French officials, coupled with the riotous attacks on Italian workmen in Marseilles, increases the excitement. In fact, a state of feeling has grown up in both countries not unlike that which in France and Germany preceded the war of 1870—that is, a state of feeling which makes war probable on some very trifling provocation, though there now exists no provocation which either side would say came anywhere near furnishing a justification for war.

The Pope has issued an Encyclical, apparently suggested by Guiteau's crime, coming close on others like it, in which he points out that the precepts of the Church, if heeded, would prevent all such excesses. This is very true. If precepts kept the world in order it would never have been stained by any disorder. But the difficulty with which all religious systems of morality have had to contend from the beginning is the difficulty of getting men to obey. This is what the Pope and all other moralists should now work at.

The returns from the Bulgarian elections show that of 342 members elected 198 are for the Prince and 144 for the opposition. The telegram states that as the Prince wants a two-thirds vote he is going to order some supplemental elections. This is all very blind; why he wants a two-thirds vote it is hard to say, except to give more weight to any action of the Assembly in his favor. As the whole proceeding is revolutionary there is no rule applicable to the matter. Nor do we know what is meant by supplementary elections, unless he is ordering elections to be held in any place in which he thinks he is likely to get a majority. The minority is remarkably large, considering the administrative pressure which has been brought to bear for the Government.

PRESIDENT GARFIELD.

THE effect on the public mind of the attack on President Garfield differs in kind from that produced by the attack on President Lincoln in that the shot fired at Lincoln was regarded as the last shot of the civil war. The land was still covered with camps and smoking ruins and newly-made graves. Men's pulses were still throbbing with the hates and fears and hopes and sorrows of the struggle through which the country had just passed. Even the most sanguine of the victors was still not sure that peace had really come. So that though there was something wonderfully pathetic in Lincoln's career, in its close as well as in its progress, his death was not received in pure sorrow. There was rage as well as grief in the mourning round his grave, and none who mourned him could forget for a moment in 1865 that a very large proportion of the population of the South regarded him as the author of immense national calamities, and as the champion and representative of an unjust cause.

The sympathy and sorrow which the attack on President Garfield has aroused have, however, no taste of bitterness or discord. He has fallen under the assassin's bullet in a time of profound peace, of general prosperity, and of unequalled hopefulness. His title was disputed by no man, and to no citizen in any part of the Union did he represent anything but order and legality, and social and political harmony. He was, in fact, on last Saturday morning the chief officer of the happiest and most cheerful nation on the globe—the nation which looks into the future with least fear or misgiving; which to all outward appearance has least to dread either from foreign aggression or domestic treason. In this he is happier than Lincoln, though much less happy in the record of accomplished work. When Lincoln died he had successfully borne the burden of the most conspicuous, the most responsible, and in many ways the most trying, office ever filled by man, at least in modern times. For it must be remembered that failure and shortcoming are easily forgiven to him who attempts great things with scanty resources. If Washington had failed, the world would have simply wondered that with such troops and such a treasury he should ever have expected to succeed. But Lincoln was the master of one of the largest armies and some of the best rank and file the world has seen since Cromwell drove the King off the field at Naseby, and he was able to spend in four years the sum which other nations have used to meet the cost of two centuries of war, and he had at his back an enthusiasm whose depths were never fathomed. To wield such weapons was to undertake an immense accountability. To wield them so that when all was over the civilized world cried, "Well done!" was to achieve a wonderful fame.

No such opportunity came in General Garfield's way; none such will come in any man's way, probably, for centuries to come. But in the slow and steady fight with adverse circumstances through which he rose to prominence there was the same picturesque and pathetic interest which has made Lincoln's life one of the most popular of modern tales. He started in just as humble a position, with prospects in no way better, and he got out of life everything except wealth that life in this country gives to steady toil and endeavor. He made himself, too, far more accomplished and better equipped, as far as intellectual cultivation goes, than Lincoln ever was. The duties of the Presidency had nothing to teach him. He had achieved at forty-eight a long and wide experience of civil affairs, and had served with distinction in the field. He was emphatically a self-made man, and yet he had kept himself completely free from the greatest defect of the self-made man, the notion that his own personal experience is more valuable than that of the rest of the human race, and that what he does not know is not worth knowing. The rise of a self-made man in American life, too, is not a hardening process, as it is in many other countries. He encounters very little of the embittering indifference to patient merit, of the insolence of office, and of the hindering malice and envy, through which the ambitious youth, who seeks eminence from humble beginnings, has to fight his way in the Old World. On the contrary, at nearly every mile of the road he finds a helping hand and an encouraging word. This sweetens rather than sours the temper, and if it have any injurious effect at all it lies in making an easy temper too easy, and in increasing the difficulty which probably every high officer finds the greatest difficulty in the successful discharge of executive duties in a democratic country—the difficulty of saying No. General Garfield's fault as an executive officer, and most of his troubles, have arisen out of this shrinking from refusal. But it is the fault of a man to whom the world has been kind and helpful, to whom friends came easily, whom every one likes, and who sees life on that large scale without which, as has been well said, it is not possible to be either hopeful or happy.

THE VICE-PRESIDENT.

NEXT to the deep sympathy which moves all hearts for President Garfield, making his wounds a personal grief to millions of people, lies the dread of evil to result from a change of administration forced upon the country without warning and without cause. General Garfield was elected, as other Presidents have been, upon due consideration and after full discussion. In choosing him, as in choosing his predecessors, we had made our own bed for a fixed time, and whether it should prove a comfortable one or not we were bound to lie in it and make the best of it. He entered office with the solid backing implied by the deliberate consent of a free people. Democrats were bound to take this view equally with Republicans. They had used every means in their power to prevent his election, and when he was elected beyond dispute the sense of loyalty in politics which distinguishes the Anglo-Saxon family, and which has only once been departed from in our history, committed them to the support of the President, as to all lawful and non-partisan acts, as firmly as his own friends.

All those guaranties of smoothly-working government founded upon popular assent and good understanding are wanting when the office devolves upon the Vice-President. The sense of duty which the people owe to their institutions is always strong enough to secure to the Vice-President in these circumstances respectful consideration; but as to the quality of support which he can command there is the same difference between the elected President and the *locum tenens* as between chemical adhesion and mechanical adhesion. This inherent difference is greatly aggravated by the slipshod method in which the Vice-President is commonly chosen by party conventions. The person chosen for this office ought always to be selected with a view to his possible accession to the Presidency. He ought to be a well-known man, and one among the list of those whom the people would not unwillingly choose to fill vacancies in that office if vacancies were filled by election. Experience, if nothing else, should have taught this. John Tyler, Millard Fillmore, and Andrew Johnson ought to have stood for ample warning to all conventions subsequent to their time. Each of these accidental Presidents wrought as much mischief as was possible within the space of four years to his own party. Though not inferior, perhaps, intellectually or otherwise, to Polk, Pierce, and Buchanan, they had none of the reserve power which an election by the people bestows. Consequently, their first misstep sent them to destruction, and in the cases of two of them shipwrecked their party also. But these solemn warnings have taught nothing to the nominating conventions. With the exceptions of Colfax and Wilson, all our later Vice-Presidents have been chosen by the rules of blind-man's-buff.

When a contest has taken place over the nomination of a President the usual course of a convention is, first, to cast a glance around the horizon to see how far distant from the President's habitation the Vice-President's ought to be; second, to use the Vice-Presidency as a poultice for the bruises of the defeated faction; and, third, to adjourn and get out of town as soon as possible. In the campaign of last year both parties selected their candidates for the Vice-Presidency in this wise. Little was known of them outside of their own States, and that little was not altogether favorable. Mr. Arthur's nomination was highly provoking to a large section of his party, and the best that could be said of him in connection with it was that he had not sought the place, but that by the rules of blind-man's-buff he had obtained it. Since last Saturday he has been very near the Presidency, and may yet accede to it. That he has no desire to obtain it as the result of the President's assassination, we fully believe. No circumstances could exist rendering it less desirable, and these are partly of his own making. All former Vice-Presidents have been able to assume the office with dignity, but to him this is impossible, for at the time when the calamity occurred he was openly engaged

in attempts to harass if not to break down Gen. Garfield's Administration. Not only so, but he had laid aside the rules of decorum which appertain to the second office in the Government, and had made himself the henchman of an ex-Senator in a local squabble whose only significance was that the success of his faction implied a rebuke to President Garfield. The ex-Senator resigned in order to get new weapons for an unseemly contest with the President; and the Vice-President obeyed his summons to the field with the docility of an old retainer. Burrowing here and there in company with John F. Smyth and others whom he has in part created and who have in part created him, the shot of Guiteau threw on him and his comrades and the work they were doing a sudden and blinding glare of light. We can well conceive that he may pray to be spared the necessity of stepping from such an enterprise into a dead President's shoes. The embarrassments inevitable to his situation, because growing out of his own acts, will be further heightened by unjust suspicions and cruel accusations. Against these it will be the duty and should be the pleasure of all right-minded persons to defend him.

Happily, there is nothing to fear as to the material prosperity of the country. Mr. Arthur's views and commitments on the subject of public finance are not different from General Garfield's. Nor is there any marked difference between them as regards the Southern question. This question is no longer a leading one. It apparently expired with Mr. Conkling's last speech at the Academy of Music impeaching the census returns of South Carolina. We infer that it expired then because Mr. Conkling himself failed to take it up again when challenged to the encounter by Senator Butler during the extra session. Mr. Blaine is as good a Stalwart as Mr. Conkling or Mr. Arthur, so far as that title signifies any particular views and feelings towards the South. In these times of swift changes, the designation of a Stalwart means one who believes that Senators should control the offices in their respective States. Next year it may mean that the Vice-President should control the New York Custom-house; or it may mean anything or nothing. Since Guiteau has adopted it it will perhaps be abandoned to the exclusive use of assassins. This is probably the best disposition to make of it, seeing that it has now lost its meaning, if it ever had any.

There being no discernible difference between the President and the Vice-President as to public policy, why should there be such great and manifest anxiety respecting the possible change of administration? It is believed —and here we do not wish to express any belief of our own—that Mr. Arthur as President could not leave behind him the faction fight in which he was so lately engaged; that he would use his newly-acquired power to beat down the enemies of Conkling in New York and elsewhere; that he would bring the Albany fracas upon the broader theatre of national politics, and set up the "Machine" at Washington with all the engineers, big and little, who were thrown overboard at Chicago last summer. The attempt, if it should be made, would be resisted by the better elements of the Republican party, reinforced by hot passions excited and kept alive by memories of the murdered President. Such a contest would be the Andrew Johnson mêlée repeated, and its probable outcome would be a Democratic victory in 1884. From all this, and from the possibility of it, the country prays to be delivered.

Hoping, as we ardently do, that General Garfield's life may be saved, we deem it wise to take into account what may happen in the event of his death. This is what the Chicago Convention ought to have fully considered last year, but did not. If Mr. Arthur is summoned to the Presidency by the act of a murderer, sane or insane, it is to be hoped that he will look upon his new responsibilities from the loftiest standpoint. His administration will be, to all intents and purposes, an interregnum, or a Presidency *pro tem.* It will be possible for him to make it dignified and useful, but he can make it so only by leaving most of his political training behind him.

THE LAND REVOLUTION IN ENGLAND.

THE English land question, which is really a much larger one and probably less easy of solution than the Irish land question, made its appearance in the House of Commons ten days ago in a speech of which the report has just reached us. The strong opposition of the English Tories to the Irish Land Bill is due in the main not to any particular concern about the Irish landlords, or any particular interest in Irish affairs generally, but to the fear that the legislation for Ireland is but the forerunner of legislation of a similar character for England. There has been a great deal of writing and out-door speaking about the need of a change in the English land laws ever since the bad harvests set in and were aggravated by American competition—that is to say, since 1875. But it is only within the last fortnight that any official utterance on the subject has appeared. Mr. Gladstone, after complimenting Mr. Fowler, who brought the subject up in the House of Commons, on his speech, which related mainly to the power of entailing estates by marriage "settlements," said:

"I believed a still wider field was opened to us by the resolution of the honorable member than he entered upon. Upon the question of life estates hang a number of other great questions of vital interest to the landed proprietors and to the public of this country—such, for instance, as the great questions of the transfer of land and of the whole system by which a man who possesses land may borrow upon that land as others may borrow upon their property—which questions, when they come to be dealt with by Parliament, may lead to fundamental alterations in our law of landed property. I shall presently deal with a question that lies at the root and threshold of this subject; but do not let it be supposed for a moment that this is a question involving hostility to the landed proprietor. Whatever system will give the greatest freedom to the descent of land, to the transfer of land, to the holding of land, to the raising of money upon land, is the system which will be by far the best for the interests of the owner of land as well as for those of the public generally. I do not deny that there are difficulties attending the subject; but as regards the domestic and social aspect of the question I confess that I have a very strong opinion that nothing can be more mischievous than the present system of settlement and of entail of this country, and I believe that nothing would tend more to the moral strength of the aristocracy than a great and fundamental change effected in that system. I must say I think that when Parliament comes to deal with this subject the question should be dealt with broadly."

The interest in the subject, and the readiness even of Tories to contemplate the possibility of its being dealt with in some manner in the near future, is of course largely due to the great fall in rents and in the value of land caused by the bad harvests and American competition. The harvests will doubtless improve, but Mr. Gladstone warned his hearers, in the speech from which we have quoted above, against the notion that there was anything temporary or transitory in American competition. This, he believes, will last, and, in fact, must be taken as a permanent factor in all calculations as to the future of English agriculture. Consequently it is safe to predict that the English landowner need never again look for the prosperity he enjoyed during the twenty years ending in 1875, when the investments in land, at constantly rising prices, were enormous. But the effect of the fall in the value of agricultural produce which is likely to be most powerful and far-reaching, is the light it has let in on the financial situation of the great body of the English landed gentry under the system of entailing by marriage settlements, which was introduced in the seventeenth century, and is now deeply rooted in their manners and customs.

It is curious how little has been hitherto known among economists and statisticians on this point. A great deal is known about the credit of the commercial class, because commercial men are constantly obliged to submit their pecuniary condition to tests of various kinds and to make explanations about it, and are every day engaging in transactions which outsiders are able to watch and calculate the result of. In this country, too, landowners, though they might conceal their gains, could not possibly conceal any liabilities which affected their land, because every instrument creating a lien on the land has to be registered and is open to the inspection of the public. But in England there is no compulsory registration of deeds or mortgages except in the counties of York and Middlesex. In every other part of the kingdom instruments conveying land or charging it with a lien are practically secret. Any one purchasing a piece of land has to rely for his protection against prior conveyances on the good faith of the vendor and the diligence and perspicacity of his own lawyer. Hitherto all attempts to remedy this state of things have proved ineffectual, owing to the difficulty of making a beginning. Registration of deeds, in order to be of much use, has to start from a clear title, and in order to give the owner of an estate a certificate of clear title his title-deeds would have to be rigidly scrutinized and

made public. To every such process as this, however, English landowners have an invincible repugnance. Few of them feel quite sure that there is not a flaw in their title somewhere, and that if their papers were overhauled it would not be discovered, and they have, therefore, opposed anything like compulsory registration with the utmost determination, and in a matter of this sort they are all-powerful with the House of Commons as well as with the House of Lords. In fact, the rest of the nation has comparatively little interest in questions of conveyancing, there are so few holders of land in fee. The fall in rents, which is estimated at thirty-three per centum on the average, has, however, brought to light a state of things which probably few except the class of lawyers known in England as "family solicitors" suspected or thought much about, and it is to most of the world a veritable revelation.

No position in the world, seen from the outside, seems on the whole brighter, happier, and more assured than that of the owner of a good landed estate in England. It now appears that this is not so, that it has not been so for a long time, that it has been becoming less and less so for many years, and that the crisis in landed property which has been precipitated by the bad harvests and American competition was pretty sure to come before long in the ordinary course of events. The reason of this is plain enough. The country gentleman's scale of living, as regards number of servants, hospitality, game-preserving, number of horses, hunting, carriages, the size and finish of the manor-house, the park, the conservatories and gardens, is fixed as a general rule by the person who has first come into possession of the property without encumbrance, whether it be ten or one hundred years ago, and it is an unwritten law of English country life that the squire must live on the scale which the known amount of his rental seems to permit. But the first unencumbered possessor's son no sooner comes of age than he joins his father in a deed of "settlement," which saddles the rental with a variety of permanent or nearly permanent charges. He agrees to charge the estate with an income for his father's widow and with provisions for his younger brothers and sisters. He then marries and has children of his own, and his widow and younger children have to be provided for in like manner by a resettlement which he makes with *his* eldest son when he comes of age. So that Mr. Broderick, in his book on 'English Land and English Landlords,' points out that it is quite possible, and probably in practice frequently occurs, that the owner of an estate may, under his deed of settlement, find himself compelled to maintain out of his income two widows and two generations of children, to say nothing of other debts, and may have to live on £5,000 a year in a style which calls for £10,000. For it must be remembered that none of these charges and liabilities become known positively to the public. The deeds of settlement are not put on record. They are locked up in a solicitor's safe and kept carefully private. So is the mortgage, on which he may have to raise a heavy loan. To his neighbor and tenants, who see him at quarter-sessions and at the cover-side, and to his friends in the London clubs and drawing-rooms, he enjoys an income of £10,000 a year; and he makes a gallant struggle to play the part they assign him with exactly half that amount.

It is easy to see how liabilities of this sort must accumulate from generation to generation, except where removed now and then by marriage with an heiress, or by the growth of a town in the neighborhood, or by the discovery of a coal or iron mine. In fact, the system of landed property in England has been for some time rapidly breaking down under the burden placed on it by the custom of entail through family settlements, and converting those most charming of human abodes, English country-houses, all over the country into mansions of despair. But the process was going on almost secretly. The outward signs of it were visible only to persons conversant with the management of estates and to family lawyers. It was only when the fall in prices swept away a large portion if not the whole of the landlords' disposable income—the charges imposed by deeds and mortgages remaining fixed—that the country woke up to the fact that the most prominent feature in the English social fabric was threatened with destruction. Families who were supposed to be rolling in wealth are now being compelled by the thousand to confess their penury and to look for situations for their sons, in many cases to emigrate bag and baggage, to lay aside all style or pretence of style in hall or field, and seek economical obscurity at foreign watering-places or provincial towns. The change is a curious one, and worth watching carefully, for it will undoubtedly prove one of the great landmarks of English history.

THE UNIVERSITY RACE.

NEW LONDON, CONN., July 1, 1881.

IF Harvard and Yale could always row as close and exciting a race as that pulled to-day there would be no such lack of general interest in their annual contest as has been shown for the last few years. Ever since the two universities began to row in eights, the races, with the single exception, perhaps, of that rowed in 1877, when Harvard won by seven seconds only, have been absurdly one-sided, the winner invariably taking the lead at the very start and keeping it with such ease that it came to be reckoned in eighths of a mile and minutes, instead of lengths and seconds. In spite of the fact that New London affords better accommodation for spectators than any other course in the world, few outside of those personally interested in the respective crews, as students or alumni, have cared to spend a day in coming to look upon what in each successive year has been regarded as a foregone conclusion one way or the other. But for the fine form which Harvard showed in its race with Columbia last Monday, and which seemed to give promise of a closer contest with Yale than any one had supposed it would be able to make, against the same crew that had defeated it so easily the year before, I doubt if there would have been enough spectators to fill the "observation train," or moving grand stand. As it was, for the reason already given, the grand stand opposite the winning line was full of empty benches, only a part of it being occupied by a meagre throng of three or four hundred people. Those, however, who took the trouble to attend the race of 1881 were well repaid for their pains. Never but once before in an American college race has the winner been so quickly followed over the "finish" line by the second crew, whilst out of twenty-five races between Oxford and Cambridge only three have been lost and won by so short a distance, a bare length and a half, as that which separated Yale's rudder and Harvard's bow to-day.

The start had been set for four o'clock, an unfortunate hour at New London, for, although in other respects the course is well-nigh perfect, it has this serious drawback, that it is exposed to a southwest breeze which almost invariably springs up in the afternoon, and, as the race is pulled with the tide, the wind, blowing up stream from the quarter named, is apt to "freshen" the water until it becomes too rough for racing craft, and then follows the postponement which has come to be regarded as almost as inevitable a part of a college boat-race as the crews themselves. Such was the case to-day. The breeze veered half way around the compass during the early hours of the afternoon, and but for a lucky thunder-shower, which laid the water, we should undoubtedly have had to wait over another day. In fact, the referee, Mr. Alexander Agassiz, of Harvard, signalled a postponement to six o'clock; but at 5:40, taking advantage of a turn in the wind, and before the breeze had time to raise a sea, he wisely called the crews out and sent them off by six. For once in the history of college regattas the crews got out their boats and paddled to their stations without delay. For this promptness the spectators are indebted to Mr. Agassiz, who emphasized his first signal to "get ready" by a series of loud and impatient whistles from his steam yacht. A glance at the Yale eight as they lay waiting for the word showed that the reports of the "giants" had not been exaggerated. They were, if anything, a bigger and sturdier-looking set of men than Harvard's famous crew of 1878, and, as the slighter and much younger-looking eight from Cambridge drew up alongside, the Harvard men aboard the press-boat shook their heads gloomily, and privately admitted to one another their fears of a defeat of four or five lengths at least.

The race, despite its closeness, was won in the first quarter-mile, for the lead which Yale took in that distance was the amount by which she showed in front at the finish. Both crews got off before the word, but so evenly that Mr. Agassiz did not recall them. Yale's forty-two strokes gave her a decided advantage in the first minute, and before the Harvard men could recover themselves their rivals had opened clear water between the boats. For the first two hundred yards it looked as though Yale would win as they chose, and the prospect of a repetition of the dreary "processions" of past years was alarming. But to the surprise of all, and the delight certainly of half the crowd, the Harvard men, pulling a beautifully even stroke, drew up rapidly after the first half-mile, and at the mile, which was reached by Yale in five minutes and twenty seconds, were only five seconds behind. At the end of another half-mile they had closed up the gap of clear water and their bow began to creep up on Yale's stern. From here on for another mile followed the closest and most exciting race I have ever seen. Curtis set the Harvard boat a beautiful

stroke. Indeed, he pulled from start to finish with a dash, strength, and judgment most remarkable, considering that he is by fourteen pounds the lightest man in either crew. Folsom, the Yale stroke, drove the pace up to forty and forty-one strokes per minute, and a slight unsteadiness in the crew, combined with the want of uniformity in the swing of their bodies, made it seem as though the Yale men were "going to pieces." But a glance along the line of the oar-blades showed that they took the water with perfect precision, and Harvard, although she continued to gain inch by inch until Yale's lead was reduced to half a dozen feet, never reached the front. For nearly a mile the two boats were lapping, Yale passing the two-mile buoy four seconds ahead in ten minutes and fifty seconds. After this the severe struggle which the Harvard men had made to regain what they had lost in the first quarter-mile began to tell, and Yale, drawing slightly away, completed the third mile in sixteen minutes and forty seconds, with a lead of five seconds. After this the relative positions of the crews changed but little. The last half-mile was rowed down a lane of yachts, steamboats, and smaller craft, and amidst the boom and bang of guns, rockets, and crackers. Both crews "spurted" finely at the close, Harvard showing better form than I ever saw in a beaten crew at the finish—if anything, gaining a trifle as they neared the line over which Yale shot a winner by a length and a half, or six seconds, in twenty-two minutes thirteen seconds, Harvard following in twenty-two nineteen seconds.

Throughout the race Yale rowed a faster stroke, varying from one to three strokes a minute more than Harvard. There was a radical difference in their "styles" of rowing. The former put all their strength into the use of the "slide," which they had lengthened out to twenty inches. It was not a taking stroke to look at. What little swing there was to their bodies was not uniform; they carried their heads as they liked; and, worst of all, they apparently "bucketed"—*i.e.*, they seemed to come forward to meet their oars without rowing the stroke out. But they caught the water in perfect unison and tore their odd-looking "leg-of-mutton" oars through it with a vicious kick upon the stretcher. Therein lay the secret of their success. They used their great strength in perfect time. In this their extra year of pulling together gave them a great advantage over their opponents. They cared little, apparently, about keeping a straight back, "rowing the stroke out" by pulling the oar clean through to the body, or holding the head well up—cardinal points usually insisted upon in the coaching of college teams. But the work of the legs and loins was done with tremendous vigor and as of one man. It was plain to see what this rowing meant—an attempt to introduce Hanlan's style in an eight-oared boat. This statement is borne out by the fact that the professional sculler, Davis, whose oars and rowlocks Hanlan introduced in England with such telling effect, is said to have looked after the rigging of the Yale boat, and to some extent their rowing. Harvard, on the other hand, pulled the traditional Bancroft stroke, and pulled it well. They did not slide so far as their rivals, a point which they will do well to notice before next year, but they helped out the work of their legs by a strong heave with their backs, which they swung to and fro in beautiful unity, "catching" the water in admirable time. One fault, which was apparent throughout the race, marred their speed. They carried this "swing" too far back, so that at the end of each stroke as they went forward on the recover the nose of their boat dipped and sometimes buried itself, whilst the Yale boat, under a crew averaging three pounds more to the man, rode clear and high above the water.

The race was in every way a fine one, splendidly fought and gallantly won. That a crew, only one of whose men had ever pulled in a university race before this year, should push so closely its rival, all of whom sat in the same positions in which they rowed the easy winners by a dozen lengths of the race of a year ago, is almost as great a triumph for the losers as their victory is for the winners. Finally, it should be said that the accommodations upon the press-boat, the details of which were admirably managed by Mr. Lyman H. Bagg, of Yale '69, and the arrangements by the local committees for keeping the course clear and providing visitors with necessary information, contributed in no small degree to make the day the most successful in the annals of college races.

G. W. G.

THE NEW GERMAN ELECTIONS.

BERLIN, June 20, 1881.

ON June 16 the fourth Reichstag held its last session and closed the legislative period of the last three years. None of the parties concerned is satisfied with the result of its labors. The deputies return home rather humiliated and even despondent, as by Bismarck's constant assaults upon the parliamentary principle and the unbecoming conduct of some of its members the Reichstag has lost much of its authority in the eyes of the people. The Government feels somewhat angry because the Conservative members refrained from wading through thick and thin with the Chancellor, and did not carry out his new tax-laws and socialistic experiments. The people at large, however, are quite easy at being delivered from a representative body which, if not sent home, would have made an even greater intellectual sacrifice than it had already made.

Bismarck, in fact, had succeeded so well in dissolving and entangling old party ties and in baffling the attempts at new party formations that he was not able to obtain a perfectly reliable majority for his pet schemes. In spite of all the favors bestowed upon the Ultramontanes, and of all allurements extended to the Conservatives, who were resuscitated solely by the fiat of the almighty man, his new friends have only shown a united front when they were allowed or ordered to attack some Liberal leader, or to do away with the remnants of some Liberal law. The interests of Bismarck's strongest followers—viz., the agrarians and ironmongers—naturally agreed as long as they felt sure of obtaining a new monopoly and of making a handsome profit out of the new taxes laid on the people; but they separated when they had to face the solution of a practical question lying beyond their personal interest. This time the agrarians defeated the ironmongers by saddling them with the compulsory insurance of the workingmen, while they exempted their rural help from such insurance and the landowners, of course, from the compulsory payment of the premium. Although this fact is of no consequence, as the bill will never become a law, it shows the brotherly love which prevails in the happy family of our protectionists, and does not augur well for their alliance in the future.

For the above reasons it is admitted on all sides that the last session was a session of failures, only a few very insignificant laws having been passed. Thus, the project of biennial sessions and quadrennial elections, and all plans of taxation with the exception of a higher duty on flour and wool, were defeated; the military tax on those unable to serve in the army found a single supporter in the son of the Chancellor; of all the bills directed against the merchants' exchange, such as stamps on receipts and checks, only one passed; the German (not Prussian) council of experts (*Volkswirthschaftsrath* or *conseil supérieur du commerce*) was disdainfully rejected; the bill against drunkenness, together with that touching trade regulations (*Gewerbeordnung*) and that on breweries (beer), were thrown into the waste-paper basket; and last, not least, the leading measure of the session, that bold and reckless socialistic experiment, the compulsory insurance of workingmen by the Government, was so materially changed that Bismarck refused to endorse it.

He will, of course, not quietly submit to his defeat, but, accusing the obstinate Reichstag of dogged resistance to his benevolent plans, will throw all the weight of his position and influence into the scales at the approaching elections. When they are to take place is not yet fixed—they will probably be held in the month of September; but there will certainly be a bitter strife between the exasperated Chancellor, with his rich resources and unlimited means, his numberless official and officious assistants, and with his cries for helping the poor man, on one side, and the progressive liberal element of the country, which forms about one-half of the whole population and is divided against itself, on the other. In surveying the field of action the question arises, what the chances for the several opposing parties will be.

The Reichstag altogether numbers 397 members. During the late session its Ultramontane-Conservative majority consisted of about 220 members. The Ultramontanes are at present the most powerful party, having been elevated by the Chancellor's domestic policy to the proud position of a parliamentary arbiter, whose every demands are almost sure to be granted. The appointment of Herr von Gossler, the last President of the Reichstag and a very insignificant but orthodox gentleman, as Minister of Public Instruction and Worship, shows how the Government is steering towards Rome. The Ultramontanes already now triumphantly hail Herr von Gossler as their redeemer from state authority and suppression. They will of course, for a valuable consideration, support Bismarck in his reactionary policy. With the appointment of the new minister they have, in fact, won the battle, and the late conquests of the Government will be surrendered to the Roman clergy. We are more than half way to Canossa. Although the Centre has lately shown some signs of intestine war, and a tendency to form at least a liberal wing against its still dominant aristocratic elements, all mutiny will be suppressed when the advantage of the Church is at stake. Flattering themselves with the hope of victory, they will, therefore, at the present moment keep together more than ever. The ultra-Conservatives, for the greater part belonging to the landed aristocracy, are the natural allies of the Ultramontanes, and most cheerfully side with them as well as with any government which tries to blend secular and spiritual interests. The free Conservatives are to a man protectionists and enthusiastic admirers of Bismarck's person and policy, but even they have shown signs of meek disobedience, which does not

prevent them, whenever ordered, from giving up their coyness and falling into line again. As to their numerical strength, the two Conservative wings together have 120, the Centre about 100 members.

To these 220 votes are opposed three groups of Liberals—viz., about 80 National-Liberals, 40 Progressists, and 20 Secessionists, or 140 in all, to whom in the majority of cases must be added 15 Poles, 9 Social-Democrats, and a small independent Liberal fraction. Thus, if the Liberals of all shades conquer 20 to 25 new seats at the approaching elections, they will obtain a majority in the next Reichstag. Can that be done? I think it may be; but I do not say it will. What, then, are the *pros* and *cons*? Let me first state that the Chancellor has lost enormously in popularity. The new era of wealth and abundance which for the last three years he has been promising the people, if they would follow him in his protective policy, has not set in. The taxes have been increased and raised, but the material condition of the masses has not changed for the better. The workingmen understand that the Government's socialistic schemes aim at taking the wind out of the sails of the Social-Democrats, and are waiting for their turn; the farmers and peasants begin to realize the fact that a comparatively small number of noblemen and large real-estate holders are benefited by the duties on the necessaries of life, and every citizen has daily experience that he himself, and not the foreign exporter, must pay the duties laid on his indispensable wants. By treating as his adversary every independent man who dares to think for himself, and to act accordingly, Bismarck has lost the support of unselfish and public-spirited Liberals, and won only a small number of doubtful and egoistic friends, with an eye to a handsome profit from their adherence to his wild schemes. The manufacturing and industrial classes are kept in perpetual suspense and fear. They are threatened with the tobacco monopoly, with new taxes and amendments of the tariff. Although they do not yet appreciate it, they begin to feel that their conservatism has to deal with, or rather to submit to, a strong revolutionary power, which resorts to every stratagem and violent measure (see Hamburg) in order to gain its ends.

Thus, there is really a Liberal, or at least an anti-governmental, breeze passing over the whole country. Will Liberals avail themselves of it, and will they be able to swell it to a storm which will bring in a new order of things? For this purpose the petty jealousies and personal animosities which too long have prevailed among the Liberals ought to be buried. The Secessionists have thus far tried in vain to rally them under the same flag, but to-day it looks as if they understood the signs of the times, and as if, although marching separately, they would this time fight together against the common enemy. This hope is strengthened by the position into which the National-Liberals have been driven. Up to the last session they were the most willing and obedient followers of Bismarck. If he really had wanted that compact majority the absence of which he has always complained of, he would have respected their patriotic sentiments and given them a small share of his favor, instead of wantonly offending them and insisting upon their absolute submission. Thus it happened that even so moderate and far-seeing a gentleman as Herr von Bennigsen, the leader of the National-Liberals, gave public notice of the dissolution of the partnership hitherto existing between his party and Bismarck, and that he cannot help working against him. If united, the Liberals will carry the next elections. But, whether these prove a victory or a defeat for the Chancellor, his efforts at personal government and imperialism in its worst form are doomed. Awkward as the German people still may be in the management of its political affairs, it is mature enough not to suffer a dictator, and to thwart his schemes and cravings. We stand at a turning-point of our political development, and just as in your Presidential election in 1856 the slaveholders' last victory was the forerunner of their ultimate defeat in 1860, our next political campaign will be the dawn of a better and clearer day. ??

Correspondence.

"THE CAMPBELLITE CHURCH."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am emboldened by your evident intention to treat everybody fairly to call your attention to a matter which has twice appeared in your very worthy paper. In speaking of the body of people with whom the President of the United States is religiously identified you have called it "the Campbellite Church." I sincerely hope that you were not aware of the fact that that people unanimously and universally object to being so designated. Webster says, in speaking of the matter: "They themselves repudiate the term as a nickname, acknowledging no human leadership, and wishing to be known simply as Disciples of Christ, or Christians." This statement is exactly true. Moreover, this is true: The people calling themselves Disciples of Christ, or Christians, have never been known to apply any name to any body of people which they knew to be objectionable, not to say odious.

Now, if there be any good reason why they cannot, as a people, be treated as they desire to be, and as they with religious exactness treat all others, please let the public know what it is. In all kindness I remain

Yours very truly,

James Vernon, jr.

Chagrin Falls, Ohio, June 29, 1881.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co. will publish immediately the 'Letters of Mme. de Rémusat,' in the translation of Mrs. Cashel Hoey and Mr. John Lillie. They also announce a series of "English Classics," in small volumes elegantly printed; 'Illusions: a Psychological Study,' by James Sully; and a new and enlarged edition of 'New York Illustrated.'——The Century Co. will eventually publish a critical and historical sketch of music in America, by Richard Grant White, of which a foretaste—a series of articles on the history of opera in this country—will soon be given in *Scribner's Monthly*.——Following Catlin's well-known monograph, 'The Breath of Life,' Dr. Clinton Wagner's 'Habitual Mouth-Breathing' (New York: Putnams) reinforces from a medical point of view the evils of this unfortunate practice, and points out its causes and mode of treatment.——We have received the Rules, Programmes, and List of Officers of the International Medical Congress which holds its seventh session in London on August 2–9. The Secretary for this country is Dr. L. Duncan Bulkley, whose address is No. 1 East 33d St., N. Y. City. Noticeable, in this programme, which is printed in three languages, is the superiority in conciseness of the English to the French or German.——The two remarkable Government publications of the week are vol. ii., Berlioz-Cholas, of Dr. Billings's *magnum opus*, the 'Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. A.'; and the seventh and concluding volume of the Report of the Geological Exploration of the Fortieth Parallel, being Prof. O. C. Marsh's monograph on 'Odontornithes,' or the extinct toothed birds of North America. The plates which accompany this fine volume and show the anatomy of the *Hesperornis regalis* and *Ichthyornis dispar*, justify the scientific interest in the discovery of these wonderful links in the animal creation.——Dr. Leonard Waldo's first annual report on the work of the horological and thermometric bureaus of the Winchester Observatory of Yale College deserves a wide reading. It records with name and rank the performances of a great number of time-pieces, tested in various positions and temperatures, to which certificates were issued; shows what an improvement in the manufacture of thermometers has been already brought about by the tests of these instruments, and how much at fault clinical thermometers were found to be; and gives the text of the Connecticut law (the first of the kind in this country) prescribing a State standard time, viz., that of the meridian of the New York City Hall.——The Harvard College library has just received, according to the current *University Bulletin*, from Josiah P. Cooke, Professor of Chemistry, two Talbotypes of Boston buildings taken by himself about 1842, and a third, of the library building itself, in 1844. It was not till ten years after these photographs were made that graduating classes began to leave behind them photographic portrait albums.——The growing importance of the sorghum culture ensures widespread attention to the Report on sorghum and cornstalk analysis just issued from the chemical division of the Department of Agriculture. Plates exhibit the characteristic tassel of the several varieties of sorghum, and the proportions and other elements of the analyses.——The editor of the *Magazine of American History* invites the contribution of brief historic bibliographies on a number of designated topics—Northwest Territory, Red River Settlement, Hudson's Bay Co., etc.

—No. 1 in the American series of Papers of the Archæological Institute of America (Boston: A. Williams & Co.) is a publication which would do credit to any similar organization the world over. It consists of an "Historical Introduction to Studies among the Sedentary Indians of New Mexico," and a "Report on the Ruins of the Pueblo of Pecos," both from the pen of Mr. A. F. Bandelier, of Highland, Illinois. Undoubtedly it requires a special effort to interest ourselves deeply in the antiquities of a people which, though aboriginal to our native land, has no relation whatever to our derived civilization, and whose written history has to be studied in a foreign tongue, in connection with the Spanish conquest of America. For this laborious task no one has more scholarly qualifications than Mr. Bandelier, and it will be strange if his Historical Introduction do not attract other and younger minds to the pursuit upon which he has entered with so much ardor. He sets out with showing the romantic nature of the causes which led the Spanish on to the discovery of New Mexico, and then sifts the various itineraries which mention the pueblos encountered on the northern

march by Fray Marcos, Coronado, etc. In this way he identifies "Cibola" with Zuñi, "Tusayan" with the Moqui district, and "Acuco" with Acoma—"*three* of the principal pueblos or groups of pueblos of New Mexico and Arizona"; and "Cicuyé" with Pecos, the immediate subject of his report. Mr. Bandelier hopes to continue these historical researches in a discussion of "the various expeditions into New Mexico, and from it to other points northwest and northeast, up to the year 1605." He pays a high tribute to the works of his predecessors, Mr. W. H. H. Davis ('Spanish Conquest of New Mexico') and General Simpson ('Coronado's March,' 'Reconnoissance,' etc.) The report on the ruined pueblo (Cicuyé, Pecos) in the valley of the Rio Pecos to the southeast of Santa Fé is painstaking and cautious, with exact topographical details, and with ground-plans, sections, and excellent outline illustrations after photographs. One of the communal buildings on the *mesilla* at Pecos "is probably the largest aboriginal structure of stone within the United States so far described," and "will even bear comparison with many of the aboriginal ruins of Mexico and Central America." Associated with the Pecos tribe is the tradition of Montezuma, which Mr. Bandelier calls a "Spanish-Mexican importation," and notes the fact that "not a single one of the numerous chronicles and reports about New Mexico, up to the year 1680," mentions it. He does not attach "any historical importance whatever, not even a traditional value," to a legend whose rhetorical serviceability in the past is notorious. It is shocking to learn from this report that the archives of Santa Fé, subsequent to the return of the Spaniards after the pueblo Indians' revolt of 1680, were kept in good order up to the year 1870, when they were sold for waste paper or used for kindling by the then Governor of the Territory, whose name Mr. Bandelier charitably suppresses.

—Few native institutions in this country can boast a more genuine antiquity than the First Church in Boston, which celebrated last year its 250th anniversary. The Society has just published a handsome volume of the memorial sermons and proceedings (Boston: Hall & Whiting); the three historical discourses by the present pastor, the Rev. Rufus Ellis, meriting special notice both for their admirable literary quality and for their picture of a time when the Society was "as truly the town as it was the church." The period in question was the twenty years from the drawing up of the church covenant (July 30, 1630, O.S.) to the foundation of the Second Church in 1650. The identical form of the covenant is retained to this day as it was originally drafted by Winthrop and, though the First Church has for several generations been Unitarian, is blazoned in stained glass in its latest house of worship. At the celebration last November a descendant of Governor Winthrop in the sixth generation (ex-Gov. Robert C. Winthrop), a descendant of John Wilson, the first pastor (the Rev. Grindall Reynolds, of Concord, Mass.), and a descendant of John Cotton, the "teacher" associated with Wilson in his pastorate (the Rev. Phillips Brooks), by their presence and speeches strikingly illustrated the continuity both of the church and of the Puritan stock. The Apostle Eliot, Roger Williams, John Davenport, Mrs. Anne Hutchinson, Sir Harry Vane, and other famous characters of the colonial epoch all figure in connection with the First Church in Dr. Ellis's lucid retrospect. In two centuries and a half the Society has had five church edifices, views of three of which are here given; and seventeen pastors, many of them eminent, and one of whom, Benjamin Wadsworth, became President of Harvard College. Two, the Rev. William Emerson and the Rev. Nathaniel L. Frothingham, were the fathers of clergymen yet more distinguished than themselves. It is announced in this interesting volume that a full history of the church is in preparation by Mr. Arthur B. Ellis.

—Mr. Harry Quilter's 'Giotto' is one of the best, and Mr. Edwin Stowe's 'Velazquez' probably the worst, of the Great Artist Series of handbooks issued here by Scribner & Welford. Mr. Quilter is an ardent disciple of Mr. Ruskin, and as fervent an apostle of pre-Raphaelitism as it is possible for an intelligent writer to be, perhaps, now that the balance of action and reaction in this once burning question has been adjusted by sheer lapse of time. Moreover, aside from being thus sympathetically disposed towards his subject, he has made an apparently thorough study of it, and, so far as it depended upon his efforts, is qualified to write the life of Giotto well. His work is thus an instructive compendium from which any one will be able to arrive at an understanding of the work of Giotto and his place in the history of art—any one, that is to say, who knows how to allow for an enthusiasm against which the writer himself strives laudably to be on his guard. The chapter on "Giotto's Style" is very good indeed in clearness and appreciation of its immediate theme; but until painters are agreed upon their terminology, such references as it makes by way of illustration will be confusing. We are not sure whether by chiaroscuro Mr. Quilter means "light and shade," as he seems to mean, or the design of light and dark in a picture; he ought certainly to mean the latter when he speaks of chiaroscuro in Rembrandt "thrusting color and subject out of the field altogether"—a misleading statement in any view. A writer of a popular hand-book who attempts these subtleties ought to define his terms precisely. The ordinary reader might get from these pages the notion that, for two centuries and a half after Giotto, painters remained ignorant of the fact that objects in sunlight cast shadows, whereas it was Rembrandt's mission to emphasize the great truth that they do. The only other shortcoming of the book is the surplusage involved in the author's consciousness of the importance of his task, for which he has the air of squaring his elbows with a view to making more of a book than is really justified by its substance. But in this respect he is reserve itself beside Mr. Stowe, whose 'Velazquez' one would have pronounced a work impossible to be written after Thackeray's parody upon "G. P. R. Jeames, Esquire." It begins in this way: "It is spring-time of the year 1623. North and south the world, roused from its winter lethargy, yields itself a willing victim to the sweet and subtle influences. . . . Away in Spain, beside a well-known dwelling in the far-off city of Seville, there stand—scarcely discernible in the darkness of early morning, ere yet the first faint streaks of dawn begin to light the eastern horizon—a couple of mules tended by a solitary domestic." This is kept up through the book, which accordingly needs to be expurgated before any one careless about imaginative literature and curious about Velazquez would find it of value. Mr. Stowe was "formerly Scholar and Exhibitioner of Brasenose College, Oxford." The illustrations are very poor. Those of Mr. Quilter's book are relieved by a double-page chromo-lithograph from a water-color by the author after one of the Assisi frescoes, and the precedent is a good one for future volumes of the series to follow.

—Much more valuable is the series of "Text-Books of Art" edited by Mr. E. J. Poynter, of which we have now the third volume, "German, Flemish, and Dutch Painting," written jointly by Mr. H. J. Wilmot Buxton and the Editor. It is a perfectly dispassionate running account of Northern masters, biographical, descriptive, and critical. The tone adopted in the preface is excellent, and is maintained. We may, perhaps, need to bear in mind five or six great names in reading that the painters of Germany and the Netherlands provide "a field of study no less interesting than that furnished by the Italian masters"; but "interesting" is an epithet that may be variously understood, and any implication of over-praise is sufficiently qualified by what follows. Considering the abundance and character of German art-literature such remarks as these sound agreeably, and are worth making: "Art gradually declined [after Dürer and Holbein and their immediate disciples] in the hands of such copyists as Mengs, who was nothing better than a feeble imitator of Michelangelo, and of Denner, who smothered Art by his excessive elaboration. The later revival under Cornelius and Overbeck, if it does not arouse enthusiasm, at least commands respect and admiration." After this one feels sure of candor, and, as he proceeds, of competence. Proportion has been as well observed as is possible in a compendium of the limits of this, and the conciseness, necessarily studied and necessarily making the critical accounts of some of the greatest names seem a little meagre, is relieved by the fact that it relates to style rather than substance. Now and then an observation occurs of sufficient pith to more than compensate for a chapter of the usual thing. For example, the Dutch painters "confined themselves to loving, understanding, and representing nature; every one adding his own feeling and tastes—in fact, adding *himself*." Or this, describing Rembrandt's pictures as "warmed by a clear, though limited, light, which dawns through masses of shadow," in which the word "dawns" is extremely felicitous—far better than Mr. Quilter's remark about "chiaroscuro thrusting color and subject out of the field." The illustrations are very numerous, most of them indifferent, a few bad, and some very good indeed.

—In connection with the foregoing Mrs. Ednah Dean Cheney's 'Gleanings in the Fields of Art' (Boston: Lee & Shepard) may be mentioned. It is, however, as the title indicates, a *mélange* rather than a compendium, and its value, being mainly cyclopædic, is correspondingly lessened by the fact. It begins with a rather elementary discourse upon "Art," and proceeds with "Greek Art," "Early Christian Art," and so on to "David Scott" and "Contemporaneous Art." Much of what is said strikes one as very sensible; much else that is equally sensible "has been so a long time," in the familiar phrase. In fact, one wonders a little that so apparently unimaginative a writer, whose main characteristic is evidently soundness, should have been moved to deliverances upon so poetic a theme. And the unimaginativeness of the book, though a safeguard in some respects, is a drawback in others, as naturally happens to unsympathetic treatment of any subject. The style is in keeping—a little disconnected and spasmodic, or, perhaps, we should rather say "Emersonian." The reader is somehow prepared by it for such inaccuracies as "William" for *Walter* Pater, and attributing to Emerson a misquotation from "Locks-

ley Hall," and such statements as that Shakspere is "one of the three great poets of the world," and, "There is to-day, I firmly believe, more genuine popular interest in, and love of, art in America than in any other country." These things are unavoidable when one joins to the habit of "going near the ground" a certain perfunctoriness of thought and statement, and are perfectly consistent with the acuteness of the remark that Ruskin's praise is interpretation but his censure misleading, and of similar observations that are the salt of Mrs. Cheney's book.

—The tobacco crop of the country in 1879 was, according to the returns of the late census, 473,107,573 pounds. This was raised upon an area of 637,659 acres, giving an average of 731 pounds to the acre. The crop, compared with the yield in 1869, shows an apparent increase of 80 per cent. This, however, exaggerates the increase in tobacco culture, as the crop of 1869 was a light one, below the average of the years immediately preceding and following it, while, moreover, through fear of taxation, planters did not, in 1870, return their full production. Fifteen States produced, as in 1870, more than $\frac{99}{100}$ of the whole tobacco crop. These States are as follows, naming them in the order of production :

	Acres.	Pounds.	Pounds per acre.
Kentucky	226,127	171,121,134	756
Virginia	139,423	80,099,936	573
Pennsylvania	27,567	36,957,772	1,340
Ohio	34,679	34,725,405	1,001
Tennessee	41,132	29,365,052	707
North Carolina	57,215	26,986,448	471
Maryland	38,174	26,082,147	683
Connecticut	8,666	14,044,642	1,620
Missouri	15,500	11,994,177	773
Wisconsin	8,811	10,878,463	1,234
Indiana	11,955	8,872,842	742
New York	4,968	6,553,351	1,327
Massachusetts	3,358	5,309,336	1,599
Illinois	5,625	3,936,700	699
West Virginia	4,071	2,256,146	564

Of the above tobacco-producing States only four—Missouri, Illinois, Indiana, and Massachusetts—produced less than in 1869. The difference in yield per acre in different States is due to the use or non-use of fertilizers, the habit of growth of different varieties, and the vicissitudes of the seasons.

—One of the most interesting of the mediæval collections of stories is the Italian work known as the 'Cento Novelle Antiche,' or (to distinguish it from the 'Decameron') which went by the name of 'Centonovelle,' 'Libro di Novelle e di bel parlar gentile,' or, again, more concisely, 'Il Novellino.' Boccaccio took from it the novel of the "Three Rings," which plays such an important part in Lessing's 'Nathan der Weise,' and Sancho Panza's celebrated story of the goats crossing the river is also found in it The two principal editions of the 'Novellino' are those published in 1525 and 1572 by Carlo Gualteruzzi and Vincenzo Borghini, which differ materially in the choice of stories and text, the latter omitting from his selection a number of indecent stories. Succeeding editors have reproduced one or the other of the above editions, or combined them, according to the object in view. No attempt, however, was made to investigate the relations of the two editions to each other and to the original MSS. until Professor D'Ancona's articles in the *Romania* (1873–74), "Del Novellino e delle sue Fonti" (reprinted in 'Studi di critica e storia letteraria,' Bologna, 1880). Professor D'Ancona's concern was chiefly with the sources of the various novels, and not so much with the text, although he threw much light on the question of the authorship and date of the collection, concluding that there was but one author, and that the time was not later than the end of the thirteenth century. It was, however, reserved for Signor Guido Biagi to settle decisively almost every question connected with the text, and to enrich Italian literature by the publication of the version contained in two Florentine MSS. The title of the handsome volume, of which five hundred copies only were printed, is 'Le Novelle Antiche dei codici Panciatichiano-Palatino 138 e Laurenziano-Gaddiano 193, con una Introduzione sulla Storia esterna del Testo del Novellino' (Florence, 1880), forming the first volume of a 'Raccolta di Opere inedite o rare di ogni secolo della letteratura italiana.' Biagi discusses solely the question of the text, examining in the first chapter the external history of the 'Novellino,' the opinions of the various editors, critics, etc. In the second chapter he gives a complete bibliography, and then passes to an examination of the MSS. The two remaining chapters are devoted to the editions of Gualteruzzi and Borghini. We cannot give here the results reached by the editor, but may mention that he was fortunate enough to find the autograph notes of Borghini showing exactly how he made up his edition by substitution and alteration. The remainder of the volume, two hundred and twenty-nine pages, is occupied with the novels contained in the above-mentioned MSS. Signor Biagi deserves the gratitude of all students of early Italian literature for his conscientious labors, and the highest praise we can bestow on his work is to say that it is worthy of the school of scientific investigation which Professor Adolfo Bartoli has formed in Florence, and which has already begun to bear such good fruit.

—In view of the fact that students of Sanskrit are rapidly increasing in number, Mr. Frederic Pincott's version of the first reading-book usually placed in their hands is to be welcomed ('Hitopades'a: A new literal Translation from the Sanskrit Text of Prof. F. Johnson.' London: W. H. Allen & Co. 1880). The most available edition of the 'Hitopades'a' in the original Sanskrit is that of Professor Johnson, which is also the most convenient, from being accompanied by a full and accurate vocabulary. Professor Johnson's translation has, however, been for some time out of print, and we are here offered what is much more acceptable than a reimpression of it would have been. Mr. Pincott has accomplished his task meritoriously; and the occasional roughness of his renderings will be more than compensated, to the incepting Sanskritist, by their strict literality. Near the foot of p. 37 there is an awkward error of the press—"again" for "a gain."

JEFFERSON DAVIS AND THE CONFEDERACY.—I.

The Rise and Fall of the Confederate Government. By Jefferson Davis. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. 707, 808.

THE book Mr. Davis has written is not the book which real students of history would have asked him to write. They would like to have him tell the things which he knows better than other men, and of which his personal reminiscence will be original and valuable evidence. They would like to question him as to the inner history of the secession movement from the time the Republican party was formed—when the purpose of separation took definite shape, what were the methods used in its propagandism, who were the leaders in it, how the Union sentiment of the Southern States opposed it, the extent to which Unionism was weakened before the secession action of South Carolina, and the truth of the common belief that the collision at Sumter was hastened for the purpose of precipitating the States into rebellion contrary to the prevalent wish and sentiment of the people. They would eagerly enquire whether a general belief that a great war would ensue would not have prevented the struggle, and how early a reaction set in after the bloody strife had been begun; what were the elements of opposition which were developed in the Confederate Congress, their history and progress, their leaders and their purposes; how soon did leading army men indicate their belief in the ultimate destruction of the Confederate armies, and what part did such a belief play in the final rapid collapse of the military power. These and similar questions are the unsettled ones in reference to which original evidence will be precious historical material, and it will be a general and serious disappointment to his readers to find that Mr. Davis in his two bulky volumes throws hardly a single ray of light upon the real secrets of the great conflict. We may be forced to admit that the time has not yet come when the Southern leaders would be disposed to take the public so fully into their confidence, and that it is usually in posthumous memoirs that the chief actors in so terrible events tell the true story of a lost cause. Such reflections, however, only move us to ask, further, why Mr. Davis should write at all unless he were ready to deal with the subject in a thoroughly historical way. It is hardly in his *rôle* to be the compiler of facts at second hand. His work should either be the opening of his heart as to his peculiar knowledge, or a large historical handling of the important era in which he had so conspicuous a part. It is a misnomer to call that "The Rise and Fall" of the Confederacy which deals only with the surface of events; and we suspect that Mr. Davis will not escape the judgment of competent critics abroad, as well as at home, that he has given us very little indeed that could with any truth be called the inner history of his own time.

From the reading of this work we get a decided impression as to its literary growth, which we mention, not as a matter of much importance in itself, but because it seems to explain, to some extent, the purpose and object which the author adopted before its completion. The basis of it seems to have been a direct and often vigorous narrative of the leading events of the war, with expansions at points where the writer had been made the subject of criticism and had been charged with partiality in his treatment of military men, or with unjustifiable interference with their plans. Into this have, seemingly, been dovetailed several theoretic discussions of the relations of the States to the Federal Government and of the asserted rights of secession and coercion. These discussions have so completely the marks of being separate compositions that we are led to suspect that they either formed the body of a separate treatise intended for other use, or that they were subsequently written and inserted into the narrative with comparatively little care for the literary joiner-work. Part Second of the whole work is the most extensive *excursus* of this sort, and gives us rather more than a hundred pages of disquisition upon the Constitution of the United States in its relations to the slavery question and the so-called "reserved rights" of the States and the people. The result

is that we have a composite work, of which the two parts may easily be separated, one being the final argument of the secessionist leader, upon which he rests the defence of those who undertook with him to break up the national Union.

It will be convenient to review these two portions of the book separately, but before doing so it is necessary to say a few words as to the writer's standpoint and the tone and spirit he has shown. It was not to be expected that Mr. Davis would put off the spirit of partisanship and look back upon the civil war with the calmness of a philosopher or of a disinterested observer; but since the whole world agrees in regarding such an armed collision as a means of deciding controversies which exceed the jurisdiction of ordinary tribunals, it was not unreasonable to look for some recognition of this fact on his part, and the adoption of a tone in accord, in some measure at least, with the prevailing judgment of the world. Mr. Davis has very distinctly admitted that the governments of Europe decided against his and the secession theory of the independence of the Southern States by the sole force of their ordinances of secession. His efforts to open formal diplomatic intercourse was a failure, and he says of it "that the course of action adopted by Europe . . . was, in point of fact, an actual decision against our rights and in favor of the groundless pretensions of the United States" (vol. ii. 369). When other civilized states thus concurred with the view of the United States Government, that the Constitution forbade the severance of the national Union at the will of any State, and that armed opposition to the Federal power was a rebellion which could only culminate in independence at the end of a successful war, we may reasonably demand that a writer of intelligence, however ardent a secessionist he may have been, will recognize the fact that the *prima-facie* right is with his opponents. When, therefore, he assumes that the independence of the rebelling States was too evident for argument, that it was a "crime" not to recognize it instantly, and that "outrage," "infamy," "perfidy," "despotism," "usurpation" are the only terms fit to be applied to the conduct of the Government, he weakens the force of his argument by showing an incapacity to understand the situation. Whether this tedious iteration of expletives be merely from force of habit, established in times when such rhetoric was supposed to be useful in "firing the Southern heart," or be chosen with a view to please a select circle of irreconcilables, it is equally a blunder which will weaken any effect the book might possibly have had upon public opinion in Europe or in America. The settled judgment of Christendom is that the attempted secession was what our Government declared it to be, a revolutionary rebellion which we had the right to suppress by force of arms, and that all the ordinary appliances of war could be justly used to this end. Mr. Davis might combat this judgment by temperate argument, if he chose; but hysterical abuse only makes him ridiculous, and none the less so because the very publication of his jeremiad over the total destruction of liberty in this country will be taken to be some slight evidence that freedom of speech, at least, remains.

The further we get from the events of 1861 and the discussions that preceded that crisis the more clearly one great fact is seen to be dominant in our history. To put an end to slavery was the conscious or unconscious aim of all the political agitation of the century. Von Holst treats the slavery question as the only matter of real significance in our history since Great Britain recognized our independence, and makes the constitutional history of the United States consist in the rise and progress of the controversy over this institution, culminating in the civil war and the anti-slavery amendment of the Constitution as a consequence of it. The philosophic German historian is undoubtedly right, and growing familiarity with American politics is making his view the prevalent one throughout Europe. We in this country have had personal knowledge of the truth of his interpretation of our history. Mr. Davis is wholly unable to see so plain a fact, and still insists that the slavery question was not a great moral controversy, naturally growing into one of those popular movements which mark an era in human progress. "Had it been left to pseudo-philanthropists and fanatics," he says, "most zealous when least informed, it never could have shaken the foundations of the Union." That it was not so left to a few zealots was, he thinks, because "demagogues seized upon it as a means to acquire power." No doubt demagogues are ready, the world over, to seize upon popular questions for such purposes; but we may fairly hesitate to admit that he has gone below the surface of events who reasons in such a way regarding such an epoch. A Tory during the Revolution of 1776 would have argued just so about the agitation of independence, and in his opinion the Adamses, Patrick Henry, Franklin, Jefferson, and the rest were "zealots" and "demagogues," of close kin to those Mr. Davis has in his eye. The proof that demagogues are the accompaniment and not the cause of a movement is to be found in the character and proportions of the movement itself.

The same narrowness of view is shown in the handling of the controversy over the "extension" of slavery. We are sure that a majority of intelligent men in the South will smile at Mr. Davis's reproduction of the puerile argument that extension of slavery "does not, never did, and never could imply the addition of a single slave to the number already existing" (vol. i. 7). If Delaware had been the only slave State he would ask young Southerners now to believe there would have been and continued to be as many slaves as were found from Cape Henry to the Rio Grande! What must we think of the mental fitness of a writer to deal with such subjects when he not only makes the absurd assertion quoted, but fills pages with the forgotten application of the Territory of Indiana in 1806 for a suspension of the prohibition of slavery, based on this argument, supplemented by the contradictory one that slavery was getting to be unprofitable in some of the States "overburdened with negroes," and that, therefore, it would be an advantage to them to sell off the surplus? Everybody knew then, as well as we know now, that the territorial limitation of slavery meant its ultimate extinction.

On the general question of the right of Congress to prohibit slavery in the Territories, Mr. Davis declares it a "recognized principle" that the Federal legislature had no such power (vol. i. 27). This is a definite term, and refers properly to some rule which has been generally if not uniformly acted upon. If we ask how the facts accord with this declaration, we find that under the articles of Confederation, and before the adoption of the Constitution, the famous ordinance of 1787 prohibited slavery in all the territory ceded by Virginia to the United States. The question of power to prohibit came up for action again in 1820, when the Missouri Compromise was enacted, in which Congress again forbade slavery in a vast territory, viz., all that acquired from France in the Louisiana purchase which lay north of 36° 30′ north latitude. Again, in 1850, upon the admission of California as a State, the free State representatives refused to extend the line to the Pacific, California was admitted as a free State with boundaries reaching to Mexico, and the power of Congress to exclude slavery from all the territory acquired by the Mexican War was distinctly asserted. The power of prohibition had thus been practically asserted by Congress, and acknowledged by the whole country, from the organization of the Government down to the Kansas-Nebraska struggle of 1856. It is in the face of these undisputed facts that Mr. Davis asserts his "recognized principle," and if we seek an explanation of such curious oblivion of the history of the country, we find that he adopts and repeats the political catchword of the campaign of the last-mentioned year, that the ultra State-rights doctrine was "only a return to that rule which had been infringed by the compromise of 1820, and the restoration of which had been foreshadowed by the legislation of 1850." In other words, the "rule" was the exact opposite of the continuous practice of Congress from 1787, and was the dogmatic theory of the secessionists, whilst the "return" to it was "foreshadowed" by the defeat of these theorists in their efforts to protect and perpetuate slavery in the territory acquired from Mexico! We cannot help believing that if Mr. Davis had mingled a little with the world during the past fifteen years he would have been conscious of the absurdity of gravely reproducing these campaign arguments, which never secured respect, and which were scarcely enough to satisfy the most heated partisans at the time.

With the same inability to "orient" himself and to discard the most thoroughly exploded inventions of that period of fierce and unscrupulous political contest, he repeats the libel that the anti-slavery movement was "contemned on account of the character of its leaders, and the more odious because chief among them was an Englishman, one Thompson, who was supposed to be an emissary whose mission was to prepare the way for a dissolution of the Union." He charitably "hopes" that the mobbing of the eloquent philanthropist, George Thompson, was through "reverence for the obligations of the Constitution," though why the chief of secessionists should approve of such punishment for one who is only charged with being a "preparer of the way" for dissolution, is a little puzzling. Bostonian Democrats of the old school will appreciate these references to the performance of their sacred duty to the Constitution.

The treatment of the conduct of Mr. Lincoln's Administration at the outbreak of the war is strictly of a piece with the rest of the presentation of the case. We see no trace of a suspicion that possibly the President and his advisers, as well as the great party behind him, had some conviction of duty; that possibly they had some patriotic devotion to the flag and that country which was something other and more than Illinois or New York alone; that possibly the Northern men experienced a terrible shock of pain, quickly changing to wrath, when the flag was fired upon at Sumter; and that the swelling enthusiasm which swept away the political orators whom Mr. Davis quotes as promising the "fire in the rear," and answered (as he also mentions without seeming to know its meaning) with

seven hundred thousand enlistments in response to the call for half a million, might possibly indicate that in men's hearts the object of the Constitution to create a "more perfect union" had so far been accomplished that they preferred death to its destruction. He went from the Senate to the South in the spring of 1861, leaving, as he supposed, a full half of the Northern people more willing to fight against their national Government than for it, and to this day he is unable to see anything in what followed except a surge of ignorant passion led and moulded by a few corrupt and cruel demagogues! Supplement this with his theory that we had no national existence, but only a partnership between individuals, which, as he proves by an extract from Parsons on Contracts, "may be dissolved at the pleasure of either partner" in the absence of a specified time in the articles of partnership, and the rest follows logically enough. The United States had ceased to exist when South Carolina withdrew from the firm. It had no right to its forts, its custom-houses, its cannon and arms, or its ships of war. Mr. Davis thinks it an excess of sentiment in those naval officers who laid down their commissions that they did not first carry their ships into Southern ports and hand them over to the enemy (vol. i. 313). To call for volunteers to sustain the Union or hold its property was usurpation on the part of the President. To march through Maryland to the capital was invasion, and a Baltimore mob was patriotic in stoning the troops. Everything which could be imagined against the Union was right, everything which could defend it was wrong. There never was a case more exactly like poor Pat's when he humorously complained that he found the dogs all loose and the paving-stones all fast.

Mr. Davis will find that the young men of the South have moved in twenty years, if he has not, and there will be among them a pretty clear apprehension of the fact that the secession leaders of 1861 began a terribly destructive war, upon theories that had no solidity. He would seem more than half conscious of this when, in his dedication, he appeals rather to the sentiment and the sympathy of Southern women than to the intelligence and judgment of Southern men. Our lamentable experience only adds another to the examples which prove that national organizations are not dissolved, like mercantile firms, under the rules laid down in Parsons, and even a school-boy should know that a great government is never broken up but by a bloody revolution. The secessionists began such a revolution under Mr. Davis's lead, presumably counting the cost, and he must expect scant respect for his ponderously-labored argument that there was no right or power in the Government to sustain itself by warlike force. We may deplore the necessity of a resort to arms, but the Administration of Mr. Lincoln would have had and deserved the contempt of the civilized world if it had tamely allowed disintegration to become an accepted fact without striking a blow. Proud-spirited Southern men would have shared this contempt, and war would not have been avoided—it would only have become a war for Southern conquest over those who had proved their pusillanimity. Because these things are universally known, Mr. Davis's book will appear as weak and inconclusive to Southern readers as to others. They will instinctively say that they would have done, in our places, what we did; and all the forcible-feeble repetition of abusive words which mars almost every page of these volumes will be its own antidote, and be generally reckoned only as foolish scolding.

MODERN BOSWELLIANS.

Croker's Boswell, and Boswell Studies in the 'Life of Johnson.' By Percy Fitzgerald, M.A., F.S.A. London: Chapman & Hall.

Boswell has left a tribe of descendants who reproduce the traits of their ancestor. They are all, like him, convinced that the pettiest trivialities with regard to Johnson have an inherent and permanent importance, which ought for all time to command the respectful attention of the wise and the good. Whether, for instance, he remained at Oxford for somewhat more than three years (as stated by Boswell) or for only little more than six months (as suggested by Croker) is a problem which racks the intelligence and divides the judgment of all genuine sons of Boswell. We had hoped, we confess, that Dr. Hill had at last solved this *vexata quæstio*, not because to our minds the matter was worth solving, but because we had vainly hoped that, Dr. Hill having at last extracted from battel books the sought-for confirmation of the Little-Endian hypothesis, we might hear no more of a wearisome controversy. But we greatly underrated the pertinacious pugnacity of true Boswellianism. The Big-Endians have, in the person of Mr. Fitzgerald, vigorously taken up arms in defence of their position. Dr. Hill's supposed triumph is, according to all sound Big-Endians, brought to nothing. His exultation over his success was premature, and the vain belief that Johnson left Oxford within a year after his entrance is to be numbered among Mr. Croker's "mare's-nests and delusions." If everything, however slight, which concerns Johnson is of importance, it naturally follows that everybody who wrote about Johnson, even if he wrote nothing but folly, derives a certain kind of interest from being linked with the idol of Boswellian worshippers. The meannesses of Boswell, his jealousies and his perversions of truth, as also the truculence, the errors, the mare's-nests of Croker, have in the eyes of a fanatic like Mr. Fitzgerald a certain Johnsonian sacredness. To have fallen into a delusion about Johnson is a claim, if not to fame, at any rate to notice. This, at least, is the only principle on which we can account for a good half of Mr. Fitzgerald's book. Nearly 200 pages are taken up with Croker. We have Mr. Croker as "a reviewer of old times," "Mr. Croker's system of editing," "Macaulay and Croker," and "Croker's fallacies, mare's-nests, and delusions." We almost wonder we have not also a list of the "errors which Mr. Croker did not commit." This would make the treatment of the inaccurate old cynic quite complete, and scarcely take us further afield than does Mr. Fitzgerald's actual work.

Now, we do not mean to assert that even this over-elaborate exposure of mistakes which have long since been forgotten is of no interest whatever. If a man had literally nothing else to do, he might perhaps do worse things than fight over again the well-fought battle between Macaulay and the Quarterly Reviewer. A reconsideration of the whole contest, which often degenerated into something little better than a wrangle, brings out two or three facts which are not utterly without value. It is pretty clear, for example, that Macaulay was on almost every point at issue substantially in the right. Here, as elsewhere, his slashing mode of writing really did him injustice, and concealed from critics who disliked his tone of over-assurance the fact that his confidence, excessive as it seemed, was grounded on the possession both of immense knowledge and of sound critical judgment. It is again proved past a doubt in Mr. Fitzgerald's pages both that Croker was subject to something very like actual delusions about Johnson, and that the general tone of reviewing has in every point of view infinitely improved during the last fifty years. But when one grants that an absolutely idle man might have employed his time worse than in reviving the long-forgotten question whether Croker was or was not accurate, one still may be permitted to wonder that any person who knew as much about things in general as Mr. Fitzgerald should have found it worth while to devote time and thought to topics so unimportant as those which fill half his book.

The same remark applies, though in a somewhat less degree, to the portion of the work which is taken up with Boswell. If ever a man was kicked into fame it was the clever, pertinacious, utterly mean Scotch sycophant who, after being snubbed and trodden upon by Johnson and Johnson's friends for the best part of his lifetime, was after death held up both for fame and infamy by the most distinguished author who has occupied himself with the Johnsonian legend. One's first impression is that nothing but the morbid craving for everything touching on Johnson which is the main trait of every modern Boswellian, could have led Mr. Fitzgerald to explore all the details of Boswell's literary labors. But to speak fairly, the study of Boswell is to a certain extent really instructive. Macaulay's moral judgment of the man is amply justified. Mr. Fitzgerald makes it perfectly clear that to overrate the meanness of Boswell's character was perfectly impossible. But it is also clear that Boswell's intellectual powers, though of a very peculiar kind, were as considerable as they were rare. He was, moreover, a man endowed with great ambition and remorseless tenacity in clinging to the attainment of its end. His attachment and loyalty to Johnson are, we suspect, a good deal exaggerated, but the deliberate calmness with which he throughout life pursued literary fame was unrivalled. Instinct or reflection showed him that biography and anecdote were his *forte*, and he seems soon to have perceived that the life of Johnson was just the work suited to his peculiar aptitudes. While engaged upon it he expressed the opinion to a friend that it would be "without exception the most entertaining book you ever read." Every one now knows that this conviction was grounded on a perfectly sound estimate of the book which he was about to produce.

What, however, few persons have, we suspect, realized is the extent to which the immortal life was a work of imagination. That Johnson talked better than he wrote, and that he talked better in Boswell's biography than in real life, has long been common knowledge. Dr. Hill and Mr. Fitzgerald have, however, now established the fact that Boswell's Johnson is to a certain extent a creation of Boswell. He collected together from his own memory or notes, or from the reports of friends, a lot of Johnsonian anecdotes and dicta, and then deliberately "Johnsonized" and improved his materials. He himself tells us that "when my mind was, as it were, *strongly impregnated with the Johnsonian æther*, I could with much more facility and exactness carry in my memory and commit to paper the exuberant variety of his wisdom and wit"; and Mr. Fitzgerald, by one

example after another, shows what this language really means. It signifies nothing less than that Boswell, by slight curtailments or judicious additions, enforced the point of Johnson's discourse. We have, in short, in the Biography the conversation of the best and most vigorous talker of the age, retouched by the best and most imaginative biographer who has existed in any country since the day when Plato recorded, or imagined, the dialogues in which Socrates held up to eternal ridicule all the cleverest talkers to be found in the cleverest and most talkative city of the ancient world.

The assiduous industry with which Boswellians collect together trifling anecdotes of their hero and his flatterers is not a little absurd, but it leads occasionally to results which, though not exactly valuable, are not without interest. Unhappily, the whole race have inherited from their progenitor two characteristics which deserve severe critical condemnation. In common with most fanatics they misunderstand the character of the god whom they adore. In his own eyes, as in those of his contemporaries, Johnson's fame rested upon his writings. He was an impressive writer and a great practical moralist. By the force of his writings he gave the prevailing tone to the moral sentiment of his age. Yet the school who worship at his shrine give no proof whatever of even moderately fair acquaintance with his writings. No doubt they would say and think that they admired 'Rasselas,' the *Rambler*, the 'Modern Poets,' the 'Vanity of Human Wishes,' and the like. But though we do not for a moment hint that Dr. Hill or Mr. Fitzgerald has not read the writings on which Johnson himself would ground his claim to be remembered, we do confidently assert that the Johnson who captivates them is Johnson the talker, not Johnson the writer. In other words, the author whom they really venerate is Boswell; they adore the slave, not the master. This is plain enough when we read that Mr. Fitzgerald has written his pages "with a view to contributing to the further enjoyment of one of the most enjoyable books in our language." Every one loves gossip, and our modern Boswellians, who care little for poetry or ethics, enter heart and soul into the pettiest gossip which can be hung on to the work of the most famous of all gossip-mongers.

Men who are in reality followers of Boswell can scarcely be expected to be fair judges of Johnson, and the time has come for saying that Johnson-worship, like every other kind of fanaticism, runs a great risk of becoming an absurdity and a bore. No one with the least care for literature, or with the slightest appreciation for character, can fail to feel either the charm of Johnson's conversation or the impressiveness of his moral attitude. As long as admirers claim for Johnson only the right to a high place among men of letters and to infinite respect as a practical moralist, no person of sense or feeling would dream of denying the justice of the claim. If it be said further that, as painted in the pages of Boswell, he excels all English talkers in terseness of argument and readiness of repartee, this too will be conceded by every person of taste or of judgment. But when language is used which implies that the great lexicographer ranks among the greatest men whom England has produced, it is impossible to admit an extravagant claim without insisting on the necessity of making several abatements to it. In no field of speculation was Johnson in the first rank. His vigor was immense, but the force of his expressions constantly exceeded both the originality, the accuracy, and the truth of his thought. On subjects of speculation he was considerably behind the most vigorous intellects of his day. To compare him as a thinker with Burke, Gibbon, Hume, Adam Smith, or Bentham would be simply ridiculous. It is not merely that his views were often mistaken: the same thing might be said of many of the opinions held and defended by each of the celebrated men whom we have mentioned. The grave fault in Johnson is not so much that in many respects he fell into error, but that he was constantly wrong in his mode of thinking. If any one will put 'Taxation no Tyranny' or the 'False Alarm' side by side with the wildest passages of the 'Regicide Peace,' he will understand our meaning. Burke's mistakes are the errors of a genius who, in the midst of boiling passion, never loses the divine gift of insight. Johnson's mistakes are the mistakes of a man who does not see below the surface of the matter with which he attempts to deal.

What, it may be said with truth, does it matter that a man of strong capacity and eminent virtues took a mistaken view of the right way of meeting the claims of the American colonists or the agitation excited by the expulsion of Wilkes from Parliament? Our answer is simple. In one point of view, such errors are mere trifles; they detract nothing from the moral dignity of Johnson's character, they leave intact his humor and his humanity. In another point of view, however, these errors are no trifle. A thinker who has failed to grasp the nature of the problems with which he has tried to deal has no right to the fame due to men who have been masters of particular provinces of thought. Add further to this that a teacher's intellectual defects invariably tell, to a certain extent, unfavorably on his moral influence. Johnson was full of prejudices, and fostered many of the prejudices of his age. He gave new vigor to Tory platitudes at a time when it would have been greatly for the benefit of the world that these platitudes should have been seen by every one to be platitudes and not important truths. By his knock-down style of argument he confirmed the prejudice, but too natural to Englishmen, that questions which could only be properly decided by force of reasoning and careful investigation into facts could be determined off-hand by the forcible expression of obvious truisms.

Johnson's most earnest admirers will best serve the solid fame of their hero by laying aside every kind of Boswellianism. He was too great a man to need that his deficiencies should be concealed or extenuated. It is well to admit that the vigor of his conversation arose in part from the habit of pronouncing decisively on matters which do not admit of off-hand decision, and that the teacher who fostered this habit both in himself and others conferred a very dubious benefit on a generation of Englishmen by no means too open to the influence of knowledge and of truth.

A NEW VOLUME OF MÜLLER'S CHIPS.

Chips from a German Workshop. By Max Müller. Vol. v. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

PROFESSOR F. M. MÜLLER has lately published in England two volumes of 'Selected Essays,' mostly taken from his four instalments of "Chips," but containing also a few articles not included in the latter collection. These articles, accordingly, five in number, are now added by his American publishers as a fifth volume to the "Chips" series. It is a thin book, of less than half the size of its predecessors.

The five essays are on a considerable variety of subjects. The concluding one is a working-up into *quasi*-popular shape of a matter which can hardly be said to have any real interest except for special students—the prospect, namely, of getting from China and Japan the Sanskrit originals for one and another of the innumerable and interminable scriptures of Buddhism, dry with a dryness compared to which dust almost seems to have a peachy savor. The one next before it deals with the reform of English spelling; Müller boldly casts his immense influence on the side of this movement, thereby rendering it such a service as perhaps no other single man could render—it is fighting one set of English prejudices with another. He does not shrink from adding practice to theory; beginning the essay with the ordinary orthography, he presently introduces (not without warning) a few new phonetic characters, later a few more, and then the whole array of Mr. Pitman's system, as if to draw his readers gradually on, until they become phonographers without knowing it; such a result were much to be desired. Müller adopts this particular system, not as being in his view ideally the best one, but as having in England the most actual usage behind it; in this country, we believe, it is much less known. The matter, indeed, is one of small consequence in the present stage of the reform; that Max Müller approves the movement sufficiently to be willing to clothe his arguments in its favor in one of the new-fangled garbs is a circumstance calculated to make no insignificant impression on public opinion in England and America.

The two next preceding articles are concerned with mythology and religion. The latter of them, entitled "False Analogies in Comparative Theology," calls attention to certain aberrations of students in this department. Practically, the most valuable part of it is its exposure and denunciation (pp. 123–129) of Jacolliot's 'Bible in India,' that worthless work, half-ignorant and half-lying, which in our country also has obtained, in certain circles, a strange popularity and credence, and has to be constantly combated in the interest of sound knowledge.

To the other essay, on the "Philosophy of Mythology," no high praise can be awarded. The author's excursions over the wide field of mythologic lore are always full of interest, by reason of his comprehensive knowledge, his power of poetic combination, and the charms of his style. When he comes to discuss the reasons of things he is far from carrying our judgments with him. He here puts forth and urges anew his well-known solution of the mythologic problem—namely, that the whole thing is chargeable upon language; that mythology is "a disease of language," "an inherent necessity of language," and the rest of it. Now, it may be readily conceded that there would be no mythology without language; but so there would be no culture without language; and the statement of that fact by no means constitutes a philosophy of civilization. To make a mythology there is needed, in the first place, the curiosity that leads men to seek to know something about the forces that lie behind the phenomena of creation; and, in the second place, the anthropomorphic fancy that casts the results of their observation and deduction into human shapes, and conceives and states the phenomena as human acts: these, and these alone, are the fundamental factors. Then

comes in the interference of language, as the instrumentality of tradition; the anthropomorphic statements are passed down from one age to another, all the time losing something of their immediateness of apprehension, until the myths become at last mere stories. Language is the means by which tradition converts myth into legend, and that is all that it has to do with the matter.

We may be allowed to quote in full a single paragraph as a sample of Müller's mode of reasoning on this subject. Speaking of the sun, he says:

"For so prominent an object in the primeval picture-gallery of the human mind a sign or a name must have been wanted at a very early period. But how was this to be achieved? As a mere sign a circle would have been sufficient, such as we find in the hieroglyphics of Egypt, in the graphic system of China, or even in our own astronomical tables. If such a sign was fixed upon, we have a beginning of language in the widest sense of the word, for we have brought the sun under the general concept of roundness, and we have found a sign for this concept, which is made up of a large number of single sensuous impressions. With such definite signs mythology has little chance; yet the mere fact that the sun was represented by a circle would favor the idea that the sun was round; or, as ancient people, who had no adjective as yet for round or *rotundus*, would say, that the sun was a wheel, a *rota*. If, on the contrary, the round sign reminded the people of an eye, then the sign of the sun would soon become the eye of heaven, and germs of mythology would spring up even from the barren soil of such hieroglyphic language."

Here is clearly apparent Müller's utter servitude to the word, the written or uttered sign, and his consequent reversal of the whole process of primitive thought: it would not be easy to find anything more curiously wrong in the whole body of modern reasonings and speculations on mythology. The selection of a circle as symbol of the sun does not, according to him, result from an apprehension of the latter's roundness, but it is an antecedent means to the arriving at that apprehension. And then it is a contemplation of this symbol that suggests the likening of the luminary itself to a wheel or an eye! If a people had not imagination enough to conceive the sun directly as a fiery wheel rolling through the heaven, or a burning eye gazing down upon the earth and searching out every hidden thing, there would be small chance indeed of its having its powers awakened by studying an Egyptian hieroglyphic, or a figure out of a Chinese graphic system.

Now for a single specimen also of the material on which Müller founds his reasonings. One of his best-known mythological identifications on the ground of etymology is that of the nymph Daphne, pursued by Apollo and turned into a laurel-tree, with the dawn, followed and put out of existence by the sun. He himself selects the case here as a typical one, and reports it thus: "Daphne, as I have shown, can be traced back to Sanskrit *ahanâ*, and *ahanâ* in Sanskrit means the dawn. As soon as we know this everything becomes clear." This reads like a demonstration, and it is accepted as such and quoted over and over again by second-hand authorities to whom Müller's word is gospel. In point of fact, however, *ahanâ* does not mean dawn in Sanskrit, and there is also no possible connection between it and *daphnê*. The word occurs in the Sanskrit literature once, and only once: in a Vedic hymn to the dawn, to be sure, but in such a connection that its sense is questionable; it may, at the best, be an adjective appellative of the dawn, perhaps signifying "the day-bright one" (Grassmann), but some of the best authorities (Böhtlingk-Roth, Ludwig) understand it as a nouncase for *ahnâ*, "with the day." As for an identification with *daphnê*, that could only be established by applying the Voltairean law of etymologies ("et les consonnes fort peu de chose") to the latter's initial *d*. Müller elsewhere ('Chips,' ii. 89) manages the affair in this way: "*ahan* . . . is said to stand for *dahan*, like *açru*, 'tear,' for *dâçru*, Greek δάκρυ." By whom this "is said," save by the author himself, it would be interesting to know. Certainly no etymologist of reputation at the present day will suggest it as admissible; Curtius and Fick, for example, regard *açru* and δάκρυ as coming from two different roots and unrelated, and they ignore *ahanâ* altogether. In another connection Müller does what he can to discredit this explanation of *Daphnê*, by tracing (in the midst of a like ominous silence on the part of his fellow-scholars) *Athênê* also to the same luckless *ahanâ*—of which word, indeed, his whole treatment makes the impression of an etymological hocus-pocus, and furnishes a striking commentary on the claim made by him, in the preface to the selected essays, that in re-editing them he had allowed due weight to the criticism of others.

Respecting the first paper in the volume, on Freedom, we have left ourselves only room to say that, notwithstanding its somewhat rambling plan, it contains interesting statements and thoughts on the English systems of education.

RECENT POETRY.

Song Bloom. By George Barlow. London: Remington & Co. 1881.

Farm Festivals. By Will Carleton, Author of 'Farm Ballads,' 'Farm Legends,' etc.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1881.

The First of May: A Fairy Masque. Presented in a Series of 52 Designs by Walter Crane. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1881.

The Statues in the Block, and Other Poems. By John Boyle O'Reilly. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1881.

The Princess of Alfred Tennyson. Recast as a Drama. Boston: Lee & Shepard.

MR. BARLOW is undoubtedly the respected tutor of 'Sanford and Merton' metamorphosed by the new British craze of æstheticism into a singer of intense madrigals. His muse is of an invincibly prosaic inclination, bent by main strength to the inspiration of love-songs in imitation of the Rossetti and Swinburne school of poetry. A school of poetry is formed when a number of poets who think the same things concerning their art is large enough to attract attention. Such a number was reached some time ago by the humble followers of the illustrious poets mentioned, and Mr. Barlow appears to be a particularly typical specimen. This excuses notice of his 'Song-Bloom.' Like many of his brethren, he has, as we have intimated, no call whatever to write verses, nor, we believe, to write anything except that amount of epistolary prose necessary to his material well-being. He is one of those poets who make one wish the personal criticism of Jeffrey and Gifford had been reserved for the present generation instead of wasted on Keats. Despite the amenities of modern criticism, a poem like "To My Lady," for example, irresistibly withdraws attention from itself to its author, and the imagination is compelled to busy itself with speculation as to the latter's manner of life from his youth up. He has been long parted from his lady, and is anxious concerning her fate. She is somewhere in the interior, and he asks her if she is content with flowers:

> "Dost thou not yearn for the sea?
> Dost thou dream never of me?"

he sighs plaintively. Presently an unpleasant suspicion seizes him, and he cries:

> "Oh! wonderful body and hands,
> Who kisseth the brown hair-bands?
> Who kisseth body and hair,
> And breast-flowers soft and rare?
> Hath he wonderful tender hands
> To gladden the brown hair-bands?
> Hath he subtle and gentle touch
> To fondle the dear neck much?"

Then he relapses into the most passionate pleading. It is evident that he is perfectly unstrung. He wants her to give him her "wonderful hand," to meet him in "the woods one night," or he says he will wait for her "by the old unaltered sea." When she comes he wants her to give him a kiss, to "cling about him," to touch him "with every nerve; with wonderful bend and curve," to "lean and throb" to him, to take "my neck in thine eager hands" and "smother" him with those "hair-bands," to make of her "white arms" a "tense white ring" to embrace his body "like one multiform flower," to be "compliant and pure," and, in fact,

> "Awful, entire, supreme,
> Great as a great God's dream."

In his dedication he calls such "song-bloom" as this "Flower-buds that chide my hair's unlyric grey." But having once confessed to an unbecoming coltishness, he abandons himself completely to his poetic frenzy, and it is well known that when a poet's hair gets to be an "unlyric grey," unless he mends his ways he loses all control over himself, like any other man. This, however, is only superficial criticism applied to Mr. Barlow. The point to be noticed is that in all probability this emotion is really pumped up. His longings are too vague and his vocabulary too monotonous to permit any other supposition. His epithets are all in one key, which it is impossible for him to leave, having nothing else to say, indeed, than the foregoing lines suggest. He uses "lush" and "utter" and the different colors a good deal, but is, like the rest of his school, particularly attached to "white." We have white shoulders, necks, arms, hands, feet, and so on; white sea-foam, of course; white veils, "May-bloom," meadow-sweet, and various flowers, and so on almost indefinitely. "Swift" is employed unconventionally—*e.g.*, "swift face." Black, brown, and black-brown hair is preferred to blonde, which is an agreeable change. There are, naturally, echoes of the 'Laus Veneris.' One, entitled "Christ and Beauty," is a dialogue between Christians and Greeks, and presents the Greeks in the light familiar to readers of the neo-pagan poetry. This view, it may be remarked parenthetically, is one of the most singular of notions, and one for which Bulwer is probably more responsible than original documents. The same subject is presented in "Voices," a poem consisting of alternate choruses of Christian Elders and Greek Maidens; the prologue is a sonnet upon Christ, and the epilogue one on Beauty. There is no question as to the poet's position in the controversy; he sides with the Greek Maidens, of course. The Elders sing of Christ—

> "As a lion o'er leagues of sand
> He paces, and loud is his roar."

The Maidens in reply exalt Aphrodite and assert—

> "Little she cares for the might
> Of Jesus, his lion-like roar."

Of Mr. Barlow's other poems it will be sufficient to give a few specimen titles merely: "To a Lady with Deep Black Hair," "To the Queen of My

Young Life," "A Hymn of Woman," "To the Greater Woman," "O Death!" "And Art Thou Tender?" "Christ and Venus," "Hold Thou My Hand," "Thou Art Not There!" "L'Envoi: Thou Art Alive!"

The fly-leaves of this volume (which, by the way, is admirably printed and appropriately bound in white, with bevelled boards) contain the views of the English press upon Mr. Barlow, and form, therefore, the significant portion of the book's contents. The *Scotsman* reprobates "his defiant irreverence," but says he "proclaims the worship of the beautiful . . . . with a force, a luxuriance of epithet, and a mastery of form which compel the admiration even of those who most heartily detest his 'cult.'" The *Spectator* says he "has somehow managed to get his head above the crowd of candidates for poetical fame," and observes that "his creed, if we may judge from a poem entitled 'Christ and Woman,' seems to be settling down into something like Comtism." The *Whitehall Review* says he is "never commonplace," and calls his verses "poetry in the true sense of the word." The *Sunday Times* speaks of his love-songs as "more serious than amorous," the truth of which statement the context proves unconscious. Mr. Blanchard Jerrold, in *Lloyd's News*, says his "qualities are great enough to merit care in their culture." The *Westminster Review* divulges the fact that "Mr. Barlow has probably, without knowing it, been influenced by the feeling of the day. . . . . Influences are, as it were, in the air," it continues, which confirms our worst suspicions. The *Literary World* finds in him "an indubitable gift of beautiful and harmonious, if not commonly powerful, expression." The *Standard* discovers his "chief excellence." The *Antiquary* dwells on his "idealistic tendency and tenderness and charm of sentiment." Lord William Lennox, in the *Court Journal*, regrets that "Mr. Barlow does not furnish the stage with one of his works." The *British Quarterly Review* commends his poems for, among other things, "tender, touching insight into the depths of a pure soul," and so on. These observations refer to the previous work of the poet before his hair acquired its "unlyric grey," and it may be left to the reader, sceptical about the lack of humor in much current British criticism, to reconcile them with the fact that in the present volume, at least, there is not a poetic thought or locution except a few stolen felicities of expression, now wearisomely hackneyed.

To such parodies of passionateness Will Carleton's third number of his Farm Series forms a tonic contrast. Every one has read and enjoyed its predecessors, and it is safe to predict for the 'Farm Festivals' "as kind and generous a greeting" as the former received, in which event the author says he will be "more than pleased." A few of the versified tales here included have been published before, but most of them are new, and the perfect sanity and simplicity of them all are extremely agreeable. The unity of the volume is somewhat marred by the introduction of some narratives, such as "The Death-bridge of the Tay" in the "Festival of Anecdote; or, An Evening in a Country Store," which is a stirring ballad, however conventional in treatment; but the loss in form is made up in substantial merit, and generally we do not get far from the farm flavor. "The First Settler's Story" is excellent, and its pathetic motive managed with fine simplicity. Like the rest of Mr. Carleton's stories, its pathos is rendered far more effective to the discerning reader by a candor rare in similar literature. The subject is more commonplace and the contrast of lights and shadows of character less impressive than in the kindred stories in verse of Bret Harte, for example, and yet are entirely without the crying literary unscrupulousness which in the latter offend a sensitive taste quite as much as they surprise it, and will probably prove fatal to their enduring fame. Mr. Carleton gains much, too, by refining upon the ordinarily exaggerated dialogue and rejecting the thoroughly factitious aid of cacography. Neither are his stories versified prose merely; we may even say that, besides the additional pleasure derived from their felicity of movement and enforced epigrammaticism, there is in the diction now and then a genuinely poetic touch of much beauty and excellently adapted to the sentiment it clothes. He has a lyric gift of respectable quality, which is here abundantly exhibited, and that his humor is delightful need hardly be said. To the latter the definition of humor given by an aunt of George Eliot, and recently published by Miss Thackeray, "talking in fun while thinking in earnest," is particularly applicable. For example:

> "That night, while theoretically sleeping,
> I half heard and half felt that she was weeping."

Mr. Carleton's ear, it will be noticed, is not unerring, but he rarely halts, and in writing some thousands of couplets the best ear is sure to fail now and then, unless we except among contemporary poets Dr. Holmes, whom Mr. Carleton occasionally recalls. Holmes would, we are sure, be glad to acknowledge this, for instance:

> "So this meeting joined in conflict; and affairs assumed a shape
> As if sin's unpleasant future had effected an escape."

That is purely American and would make the reputation of a "newspaper poet." Here is another:

> "In the last campus rush we came to strictly business blows,
> And with the eye he left undimmed I viewed his damaged nose."

Nor need we add that nothing is farther from Mr. Carleton's verses than any hint of vulgarity. "Our Travelled Parson" is one of the best of the ballads in respect of kindly humor, but it must be admitted to lack a *fonds* of seriousness, or else of sincerity, which is a defect; magazine readers will readily recall it, and Mr. Abbey's admirable illustration. The rest of the illustrations, by the way, do Mr. Frost's rising reputation no great credit.

The author of 'The First of May' is, we believe, a young English poet, and not, as might be inferred from the title-page, Mr. Walter Crane. Mr. Crane will, however, rightly command most of the reader's attention, though the Masque is a very pretty reflection of the spirit of seventeenth-century madrigals, has a pleasantly entertaining plot of properly insubstantial texture, and is in general of an innocent and agreeable rather than a lively interest. Much the same thing might in strictness be said of Mr. Crane's fifty-two designs which illustrate the poem, but these qualities are rarer in his art than in literature, and are consequently more noticeable. Nor do we mean to depreciate them in either of the contributors to this pretty volume. The Masque is a fairy story, and Mr. Crane has illustrated it with great copiousness, charming grace, and, within the limits imposed by the subject, great variety. Each page contains from two or three to twenty lines only, which are framed in the designs. Almost no criticism is to be made upon them from the point of view of decorative treatment of a light and fanciful fairy-tale. The drawing is very good, and if it were not, the slight conventionality which idealizes to a just perceptible degree the human figures of which the most important part of the decoration is made up, would prevent one's feeling inexactness as a defect. Some of the figures, such as that on page 43, are delightful, and some of the figure arrangements, as that on page 18, not less so. In many the grace of individual movement and attitude is surprising, and justly to be called rhythmic. In others the mere linear scheme, independently of the interest of the figures as figures, is in the highest degree decorative. The copy before us is not too well printed, or if it is faultless in this respect we should have been glad of more distinctness in both the letter-press and designs.

"The Statues in the Block" is the most ambitious of the poems in Mr. O'Reilly's little volume, but we like it nearly the least, not only on account of its apparent effort, but because its author's best vein is dramatic, and his dramatic force here is so misapplied, the poem being of a mystic and fanciful description, as to seem pretentious, which is the last thing we should in general think of calling Mr. O'Reilly's interesting performances. None of these poems equal in interest, however, the first things he published; in his Australian stories he had the field almost to himself, and improved the opportunity which a genuine enthusiasm in his subject and personal knowledge of its local color gave him, but much of this verse has a perfunctory ring compared with the 'Songs from the Southern Seas.' Thus "The Mutiny of the Chains" is the best thing here, to our mind. At the same time the mass of these verses is by no means to be classed with much of the transient verse of the day bearing similar titles and concerned with the same motives. "Love's Secret," "The Well's Secret," "Love's Sacrifice," "Her Refrain" are all seriously conceived and simply uttered. If there is nothing striking in them there is also no blemish to note.

Any one who thinks that a work of Mr. Tennyson's can be improved in form is, of course, at liberty to make the attempt. In regard to 'The Princess' the preface of this anonymous undertaking assures us that "its rich materials admit of more strictly dramatic treatment," and says this "is suggested by the poet himself in terms which might justify the attempt if made in an appreciative spirit, with no purpose of disturbing the original, legitimate impression of the poem." This qualification, of course, begs the whole question; but, that aside, we feel sure the recaster has misunderstood the "suggestion" of Mr. Tennyson, and that the poet would hardly view with equanimity his endeavor "to retain the language and style of Tennyson as far as possible." This is a conclusion from an examination of the recast work, and not based on the *à priori* grounds which, one would say, are nevertheless sufficiently strong. The language is, of course, recognizably retained, but of the "style," as apart from the language, the less said the better. However, the remodeller's real motive is betrayed in his remark that a dramatic rendering of 'The Princess' may "deepen its philosophical interest, as it bears upon many questions of modern social life and culture." How this results it would be difficult to tell but for a note which informs us that "applications for permission to perform this Drama should be addressed to the Publishers." Private theatricals, it is possible, offer a field heretofore neglected for the promulgation of the social views which 'The Princess' was written to enforce. But if there is any correspondence between his ideas

and such presentation of them, Mr. Tennyson, we suspect, would be the last person to admit the fact. It would, on the contrary, be a point in favor of M. Taine.

RUSSIA SINCE NICHOLAS.

Von Nicolaus I. zu Alexander III. Leipzig. 1881.

In the year 1873 a little volume was published in Germany under the unpretending title of 'Society in St. Petersburg.' It was eagerly taken up by many who expected it to yield something to satisfy their taste for gossip and scandal. Those who read it with more serious intentions were surprised to find in this series of sketches of distinguished people a masterly and connected account of contemporary Russian history, without any attempt at personal gossip or sensational writing. The leading characters in the narrative received no more prominence than was necessary to understand the part they took in the great national drama. The book passed quickly through several editions, and was followed by a new series of sketches under the same title, and by a new work, written in the same dignified, statesmanlike style—viz., 'Russia Before and After the War,' which was immediately translated into English, and created a great sensation across the Channel, where the anti-Russian feeling was then at its climax. Then followed 'Berlin and St. Petersburg,' which, from a political point of view, is, perhaps, the most important of all. The relations between regenerated Germany and new Russia are criticised in this volume by a writer who, though he cannot conceal his strong predilection for German institutions as compared with those of Russia, does not allow national or party feeling to lead him into either exaggeration or suppression of facts. The volume before us, 'From Nicholas I. to Alexander III.,' which has just been published, brings this interesting series to the events of our day. The closing chapter gives a graphic sketch of the life of Alexander II., of his terrible death, of his successor, and the men who were the first advisers of the young Czar. The author has preserved his anonymous character throughout. Mr. Fairfax Taylor, in the preface to his translation of 'Russia Before and After the War,' pronounces him to be a Russian, but, as we pointed out in our notice of this work (*Nation*, No. 781), there is no question that the author is Julius Eckardt, the well-known Hamburg publicist, author of numerous other politico-economical works relating to Russia of the highest value and authority.

Everywhere in his criticism of Russian affairs the insolence and corruption of all classes of Government officials are considered a chief cause of the widely-spread discontent among the enlightened classes of the Russian people. But it would be attaching an exaggerated importance to this evil to attribute to it alone the steadily increasing demands for reform, and the origin and growth of Nihilism. There existed until a year ago an institution in Russia which has caused more general indignation among educated people than any act of the Government: we mean the famous, or rather infamous, "Third Section of the Chancery of his Majesty the Emperor." This bureau of secret police was established by Nicholas I. soon after his accession to the throne. It was endowed with extraordinary powers not only to discover and punish political offences, but also to control Government officials of every grade, up to the immediate surroundings of the Emperor. Accusation, inquest, judgment, and execution were all within the power of one office, which was perfectly independent of all control except that of the Czar himself. When, scarcely a year ago, on the 18th of August, 1880, Alexander II. consented to abolish this institution, men in favor of wise and moderate progress, both in Russia and abroad, regarded the reform as second only to the abolition of serfdom in importance. The author devotes the first and longest chapter of his book to the working of this department. He publishes three documents from the archives of the secret police which now for the first time see the light. The first, a report of a common agent, contains accusations against six of the highest dignitaries of the Empire, cabinet ministers and generals. The sharpest attack is made against Prince Galitzin, then Minister of Education and an old personal friend of the Emperor's. The Prince is accused of appointing German professors at the public schools, who teach the young Russians contempt and dislike of Russian institutions and the immense superiority of the foreign political and social order of things. His greatest sin is that he has introduced the "damnable practice of reading the Bible, which, as is well known, was the origin of the terrible reign of the Jacobins in France. Our servants are already beginning to imagine that they are the equals of their masters. All this and many other incalculable evils proceed from this abominable practice." The second document shows the deeds of a certain Major Sgotoff, who was sent to the government of Simbirsk. This man, a simple officer of gendarmes, ruled as an autocrat, not beside but above the governor of the province. At his request the governor himself and several of the highest officers were removed, others appointed and removed again. On his information an aide-de-camp of the Emperor, belonging to one of the noblest families in the Empire, who was on a recruiting mission in Simbirsk, was accused of bribery, degraded from his rank and sent to Siberia. The third document gives a full and distressing account of an incident such as was in those times of daily occurrence. A country gentleman was accused of liberal tendencies, pulled out of his bed in the middle of the night, dragged into prison, and sent to Siberia, whence he has never returned.

The second essay throws light for the first time upon the Petrashevsky conspiracy of 1848, in which more than twenty officers of high rank in the military and civil service of the Empire were engaged, besides several professors of colleges, doctors, engineers, and lawyers. All these unfortunate men were condemned to death. Their real fate has never been discovered; they simply disappeared. A complete list of their names and occupation is given for the first time in this volume. This conspiracy, which was discovered shortly after the outbreak of the French Revolution of 1848, was one of the first secret movements in favor of political reform in Russia. The immense Empire was in those days entirely isolated from its Western neighbors; not a newspaper, scarcely a letter, could pass the frontier from East to West or West to East without close examination. Little was known of the circumstances of this plot, which has lately been much discussed as the precursor of Nihilism. One of the consequences was that 25,000 books, comprising the best English, French, and German classics, were confiscated in St. Petersburg alone; that every bookseller's shop in the Baltic provinces was closed, and the project was seriously discussed of closing every publishing house in the Empire and concentrating the entire book trade in one Government department. Of this and many other instances of the senseless fight against modern ideas the author gives a detailed account, and offers official documents in proof of his statements.

His sketch of the Russian refugees in London is a lifelike representation of the authors and chief actors of Nihilism. Bakunin, the arch-conspirator; Alexander Hertzen, the founder and chief editor of the *Kolokol*, the first revolutionary journal, with his brilliant staff of assistants, are portrayed in bold relief. Other articles contain portions of a private correspondence between Prince Paskevitch and Gortchakoff, and several secret memoranda addressed to Russian diplomatic agents abroad. The concluding chapter is the chronicle of the events of the last two months. The long reign of the late Czar is reviewed with great intelligence and keen insight into the public affairs of the last twenty-five years. The author pays a touching tribute to the many amiable qualities of Alexander II. He speaks in terms of the highest appreciation of the many public acts which mark his reign as the noblest of any in the history of the great Empire. He discovers the mistake and misfortune of Alexander's reign in the circumstance that, having given so much, he did not give enough to satisfy a large portion of the intelligent classes of his people. He views with dismay the first steps of the new Czar, which he considers fatally mistaken. He arrives at the conclusion in which the best thinkers of Europe have found Russia's only prospect for future welfare and safety: a constitution, but, first of all, complete decentralization. Progress is only possible with a perfect autonomy of the different nations of the Empire, which are sharply divided by geographical and historical landmarks. Centralization is despotism and barbarism, even if represented in an imperial parliament.

BURROUGHS'S 'PEPACTON.'

Pepacton. By John Burroughs. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The natural state of man, according to Von Moltke, is a state of warfare, and it is probable that most of the readers of Mr. Burroughs will turn first on opening his new volume to his tilt against his brother-authors in the chapter called "Nature and the Poets." This essay had to run the gauntlet of pretty sharp criticism from scientific men and others after its first appearance in *Scribner's Monthly* for December, 1879. On inspecting the revised issue we find that our author has learned wisdom by experience, and has quietly abandoned some of his untenable positions. He drops out of his indictment against Bryant the charge made in *Scribner's Monthly*, that the poet makes his "Summer Wind" shake down fragrant blossoms from the shrubs, whereas, according to Mr. Burroughs, there are no trees or shrubs that have fragrant blossoms so late as July. He had unluckily forgotten the very fragrant azalea (*A. viscosa*), which flowers profusely through the meadows of New England in just that month; and this error having been pointed out, he wisely now omits that count in the indictment. In the same way he omits the assertion made in the original essay, that the common wild Houstonia blooms earlier in the spring than the yellow violet (*V. ro-*

tundifolia), which he apparently did not at that time distinguish from the later species (*V. palustris*). These omissions show candor, if a man is to have credit for candor when it has become inevitable. Unluckily, they do not show a punctilious habit of accuracy. The assertions which he thus withdraws were made as bluntly as those which he still retains; and some of these, we regret to say, are equally unfounded. Take, for instance, his censure upon Lowell for the passage in his "Al Fresco":

> "The dandelions and buttercups
> Gild all the lawn; the drowsy bee
> Stumbles among the clover-tops,
> And summer sweetens all but me."

This passage is thus criticised by Mr. Burroughs:

"Of course the dandelion blooms occasionally throughout the whole summer, especially where the grass is kept short; but its proper season, when it 'gilds all the lawn,' is, in every part of the country, some weeks earlier than the tall buttercup (*R. acris*) and the clover. These bloom in June in New England and New York, and are contemporaries of the daisy. In the meadows and lawns the dandelion drops its flower and holds aloft its sphere of down, touching the green surface as with a light frost, long before the clover and the buttercup have formed their buds" (p. 120).

"Long before the clover and the buttercup have formed their buds"! And yet any one of the numerous visitors who were drawn to Cambridge by the Greek play, in the last week of May last, might have seen with his own eyes the completeness of Mr. Burroughs's mistake. Any such visitor who happened, as we did, to walk from Harvard Square to Elmwood (Lowell's home) on the very last day of May, would have seen the dandelions and buttercups so nearly balanced in numbers on lawn after lawn that nothing short of a Returning Board could have settled the question between them. As to the white clover (*Trifolium repens*), its blossoms were also visible, though not abundant. Mr. Lowell's botany was thus vindicated by the irresistible testimony of the human eye. The simple fact is that, in the locality which Lowell describes, the buttercup does not, as Mr. Burroughs asserts, follow the dandelion by a distinct interval, but laps over upon it in the same fields and lawns, so that, on a certain day or days of every spring, the two flowers will be equally balanced. What, then, is a poet to do who happens to write on one of these days? Is he to describe what he sees before him, in the precise place where he is; or is he to send to Mr. Burroughs, wherever he may be within that very wide botanical domain which he calls loosely "New England and New York," to ascertain the permissible combinations?

The truth is—and it may as well be told frankly, as the one drawback found by most readers in the very pleasant books of Mr. Burroughs—that he allows himself an amount of dogmatizing, in presence of nature, which is not only unattractive but quite unsafe. He certainly has in him, either by nature or through the influence of Walt Whitman, something of the quality of that good old Scotchman whose petition was "O Lord! we pray thee that we may be right, for thou seest that we are very decided." It is true that Thoreau, who is in some respects Mr. Burroughs's prototype or exemplar, had something of the same gift. But Thoreau had in two respects the advantage: first, in a more exact and thorough habit of mental discipline, and, secondly, in concentrating his observation upon one very limited region. When he made a statement it was very nearly infallible, if it related to a fact in nature; because all his dogmatizing was about Concord, and he knew Concord through and through. He wrote simply a monograph, like White of Selborne; he was, as Henry James, jr., says, "parochial," and hence his strength. But the observations of Mr. Burroughs range throughout the country; he is in New York, in Washington, and sometimes, though rarely, in New England. Gaining thus in width of comparison, he loses in precision. When he says "hereabouts" or "in our latitude" we never know whether he means the Hudson or the Potomac; and if he were spending a winter in Florida, he would, we suspect, undertake to correct the botany of an Alaskan poet.

A good illustration of this is the perseverance with which he follows up the assertion that the early yellow violet has no odor. Bryant says of it:

> "Thy faint perfume
> Alone is in the woodland air."

His critic says, as he said long since in *Scribner*, "I have never been able to detect any perfume in the yellow species (*Viola rotundifolia*). This honor belongs alone to our two white violets, *Viola blanda* and *Viola Canadensis*" (p. 107). Now, the first statement is unexceptionable, for each man has a right to testify according to the perceptions of his own nose. It is the second sentence that is objectionable, in which he elevates that organ into a standard of universal authority. Mr. Burroughs is an excellent observer, and although we have never happened to find any of these early yellow violets that were scentless, or found any one else who pronounced them scentless, we are willing to admit that they are so in the precise localities where he has found them. Why should not he be equally tolerant? By his own showing, the hepatica varies as to odor, in just this way; why not the violet? The white water-lily, perhaps the most fragrant of our Northern flowers, is often wholly without fragrance, as we can personally testify, in South Carolina. In deference to the many people who have smelt precisely that "faint perfume" which Bryant so well describes in the yellow violet, it would be better for Mr. Burroughs to yield the point. It is proverbially difficult to prove a negative. The rural French judge who heard the testimony of three witnesses to the effect that they had seen a certain man commit a homicide, and then allowed it to be outweighed by the evidence of four men who swore that they had never seen him commit one, is not a good model for the scientific observer.

We own to liking Mr. Burroughs best when he is least controversial, and when, on the other hand, he gives us something more than simple narrative. For instance, his voyage down the Pepacton, or east branch of the Delaware, suggests comparison with Thoreau's Concord voyage, and the difference in wealth of material and depth of thought is very observable; the younger writer seems thin and trivial in comparison. But where he takes a little more pains, and gives a more studied result of thought and fancy, brought to bear on a theme of his own selection, he appears at his best. This is the case in "An Idyl of the Honey-Bee," "A Bunch of Herbs," and "Springs." He has done nothing more agreeable and valuable than these three papers. "Footpaths" is of less weight, and is on a theme that has been treated by others; while the "Notes by the Way" are too fragmentary. On the whole, this must be pronounced one of Mr. Burroughs's best books. It shows more depth of thought than some of his writings; more care in execution than others; there is none of that occasional coarseness which marred some of his earlier descriptions; and he only gives two pages to Walt Whitman.

Law relating to Stocks, Bonds, and other Securities in the United States. By Francis A. Lewis, jr., of the Philadelphia Bar. Philadelphia: Rees, Welsh & Co. 1881.

Mr. Lewis's book will be found a valuable collection of decisions upon the law of the stock exchange. Almost all this law is of very recent growth, and is what Bentham would have called judicial law. So far as the legislature has interfered with the development of it, it has generally been for the purpose of preventing transactions in stocks, as, for instance, in the case of Sir John Barnard's act, passed in 1734, for the prevention of the "infamous practice of stock-jobbing." The opinion which led to the passage of this act continued, as Mr. Lewis points out, in England through the last century, during which all dealers in stocks were a very unpopular class. In this country, singularly enough, although the United States is the home and nursery of stock speculation in the modern world, this feeling has continued down to the present day; yet its strength is largely dependent upon the general condition of trade and business, and can hardly be put down as a settled intellectual conviction or prejudice. In times of commercial depression there is no occupation the press more eagerly and constantly devotes itself to than that of warning the public against the doings of the "thieves in Wall Street." With returning prosperity this animosity disappears, and in times like the present hardly a trace of it remains. But so far as we know, in both countries, the influence of public opinion upon legislation with regard to dealings in stocks has always been to treat the occupation as one either criminal in its end, or as at any rate barely to be tolerated by the law-making power. The courts, however, by applying the principles which regulate ordinary commercial dealings as far as possible, have created in the last one hundred and fifty years a body of law relating to stock transactions which is probably far better, more just, more coherent, and more simple than if the legislature had undertaken the matter. They have done this really under the influence of necessity, for speculation is a necessity to the modern world, and the idea of its being treated as outside the pale of law has long since been known by all who have given the subject any attention to be absurd. Take a single instance: it is essential for the security of dealings in stocks that certificates should pass readily from hand to hand very much like negotiable paper, and one hundred and fifty years ago the idea of the negotiability of certificates of stock would not have suggested itself for a moment as within the bounds of possibility to any judge or lawyer in England or America. In fact, there was at common law, as Mr. Lewis points out, no such thing as negotiability, bills of exchange being negotiable only by that convenient body of law known as the Law Merchant. Now, without going into the technical difference between "bills of exchange" and "certificates of stock," Mr. Lewis shows that there has been a steady progress towards the assimilation of the law of the two classes of securities. He does not think that the courts will ever go so far as to put them on the same footing, but he seems to admit that the process of assimilation has gone already pretty far.

The Campaign of Chancellorsville. By Theodore A. Dodge, U.S.A. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1881.

In the *Nation* of May 23, 1867, in a review of Hotchkiss and Allan's admirable book on Chancellorsville, we attempted to give as clear and complete an account of that series of operations as the information then accessible and the space allowed us permitted. If the book before us had then been in existence we could have made the account more complete, but the general description then given would not have required substantial alteration. For this reason we shall not here fight the battle over again. It is sufficient to bespeak for this handsome volume a cordial welcome, which it thoroughly deserves. With the aid of Hotchkiss and Allan from the Confederate side, and of Dodge from the Federal, the interesting campaign of Chancellorsville may be studied with entire satisfaction. There is no other great battle or series of battles in the war of secession which is so completely and accurately described and explained. As we said before, the story is not pleasant reading for Northern men. The failure at Chancellorsville was not only most discreditable to General Hooker, who then commanded the Army of the Potomac, but it was such a total and extraordinary failure that the story would be incredible if we did not know it to be true. We supposed that we knew the worst when we reviewed the work of Hotchkiss and Allan; but Colonel Dodge has shown us that we were mistaken, and that there was another dismal episode in the disastrous series which we did not then appreciate as it deserved. This was the loss of the golden opportunity which fortune almost forced upon Hooker as a consequence of his ill-judged action in weakening his right, on the false theory that the enemy was flying. When morning dawned on the day after Jackson had found victory and a death-wound on our right, two divisions of our army, Birney's and Whipple's, held a position which practically prevented a junction of the two wings into which Lee had divided his army. From this position Hooker blindly ordered our men to withdraw. Stuart promptly occupied it, placed thirty guns upon it, and these guns "enfiladed our lines with murderous effect during the remainder of the combat of Sunday, and contributed largely to our defeat."

It is not easy to say what part of this book is best, for it is all good; but the matters upon which the most additional light is thrown seem to us to be the movements of our troops which left our lines to attack the rear of the column supposed to be retreating, but proved to be Jackson's turning column, and Sedgwick's movements at and near Fredericksburg. The book is the production of a man with a clear military head, who seems to have possessed himself completely of his subject. The student of military history will find it very valuable, and the general reader will find it interesting in the extreme. It may be added that the contents of this book are an enlargement of papers read by the author before the Military Historical Society of Massachusetts, of which he is a member.

Scotland in Early Christian Times. By Joseph Anderson. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1881.

This volume comprises the Rhind Lectures in Archæology for 1879. The author is the Keeper of the National Museum of the Antiquaries of Scotland, and he is, therefore, thoroughly conversant with his subject. The lectures throughout combine exhaustive knowledge with a scientific method of treatment. Mr. Anderson does not group his facts round pet theories. He is singularly free from hasty generalizations of the kind illustrated by the A. D. L. L. of Scott's famous antiquary. At the same time he makes the most of his material, deducing all the information possible in the circumstances. His work, so far as it goes, contains a lucid summary of the present state of knowledge regarding the subjects treated. The lectures are restricted in their scope, however. They deal only with those remains of early Scottish history which are strictly ecclesiastical in their nature and use, and belong to the Celtic period of the Scottish Church.

In his introduction the author defends the study of archæology as necessary to an understanding of the complex civilization of the present, into the structure of which the past has been built up; and he protests against the utilitarian vandalism which is rapidly destroying many interesting historical monuments. Two lectures are devoted to a consideration of the structural remains of the early Celtic Church. Taking the twelfth century as his starting-point, "that border-land where the historic and the non-historic meet," the author works his way backwards as far as the light reflected from the present will guide him; and the primitive type of church—"one chamber, one doorway, and one window"—he concludes is an extension into Scotland of the monastic system which prevailed in Ireland from an early period, and of which the most characteristic features are "that they exist as composite groups comprising one or more churches, placed in association with monastic dwellings which consist of dry-built cells of beehive shape, the whole settlement being enclosed within a cashel or rampart of uncemented stones." The three remaining lectures give an interesting account of the existing relics of the Celtic Church—its illuminated MSS., bells, croziers, and reliquaries respectively—in which many side-lights are thrown upon the civilization of the times. These relics, it is maintained, point to a high degree of literary and artistic culture. They also, the author once and again strongly insists, bear evidence to the existence of features in the Celtic Church which give it a character entirely its own. The *Liberi Scottice Scripti*, known over the whole of Europe, of which one library catalogue of the ninth century enumerates thirty-two, and of which some beautiful examples have come down to the present, point to a striking individuality in Celtic art and in Celtic life and civilization as a whole. The volume is tastefully illustrated throughout, thus adding considerably to its interest and value.

The Philosophy of Carlyle. By Edwin D. Mead. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1881. Pp. 140.

There is little in this book to justify the title. Had Carlyle written in any language but the English he would never have passed for a philosopher at all. He was a popular preacher of righteousness to the young men of a particular generation and nationality—none the less preacher because his themes, duties, and sanctions are broadly conceived and interpreted and his rhetoric really effective. Nor is Mr. Mead's discussion of the sources from which Carlyle drew so much of his inspiration philosophic. Something is said about Kant's moral conceptions, and, by reason of his absorption in the ethical aspect of things, Carlyle is said to resemble Fichte, etc.; but writing *about* philosophy is not philosophy. Carlylean cadences, moreover, are unmistakable in Mr. Mead's style throughout, and the incessant change from quotations, often extended and generally very judicious to remarks by the author, is again unfortunate for the latter. This is the more to be regretted because Mr. Mead is brimful of his subject and all the recent literature about it, has long been a student and enthusiastic admirer of Carlyle, and is qualified by years of study in England and Germany, and considerable knowledge of recent social, political, and literary European history, to write comprehensively—as, indeed, he has done. While there is no special pleading, we think his interesting *causerie* will tend to confirm the wavering faith in Carlyle's bottom integrity and in the general effectiveness of his work. The most emphatic dissent is expressed from Mr. Henry James's charge of insincerity, which is declared to be "precisely the dreadfullest of all possible mistakes." The statement so commonly heard in one form or another, that Carlyle saw no divine ends in human nature or in the social sentiment, but only in persons, the author characterizes as "extraordinary vilification." The appendix, it should be added, contains a few judicious paragraphs on Carlyle by Professor C. E. Norton, printed from the advance sheets of the forthcoming annual report of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.

Fly-fishing in Maine Lakes; or, Camp-Life in the Wilderness. By Chas. W. Stevens. Boston: A. Williams & Co.

It seems strange that so few books on fishing and shooting have been produced in this country that either give valuable information on the subject, or have sufficient literary merit to atone at all for the lack of knowledge which their authors have of the subject. Mr. Stevens's book is, perhaps, slightly above the average, though the elision of one-half to two-thirds of it would be a very manifest improvement. He expends the usual amount of sentiment over the trout he pursues, which on one occasion he terms "the brightest jewel in Undine's crown," and on another "little brooklet"; and the volume teems with exceedingly bad puns, the production of the author and his companions. There is also a "Retrospect" in verse, and a "Supplement" which is free from the objectionable features that pervade the rest of the book, as it is restricted to the subject under discussion and gives such information as Mr. Stevens has to offer about fishing outfits and how to fish. The waters visited by him were among the best in Maine, and he was at Grand Lake Stream when the fishing for land-locked salmon was in its glory. He gives, as a frontispiece to his book, colored pictures of a number of flies, all of which are tied with loops instead of on single pieces of gut. If they are all meant for salmon flies this may do, but if for trout flies it is incorrect, and, besides, we think any one going to Maine in June, when fishing is really the best, would frighten many more trout than he would kill with this assortment. The largest of the Maine trout are taken late in the season, and at that time will rise to the large, gaudy flies; but, earlier, smaller-sized and more sober-colored flies are very much more effective.

Berkeley. By A. Campbell Fraser, LL.D., Professor of Logic and Metaphysics in the University of Edinburgh. Philadelphia: Lippincott; Edinburgh: Blackwood. 1881. Pp. 234.

THIS volume, we are told, is the "first attempt to present Berkeley's philosophic thought in its organic unity." New biographical material, and an original portrait from an oil-painting when Berkeley was in Rome, and thus taken at a much earlier period of his life than those hitherto published, his relations to contemporary scientific and theological interest, etc., are among the attractions of this little book, which makes an admirable introduction to the study of Berkeley's works. Different as are the arguments of the two great idealists, we are struck more forcibly than ever before in reading this book with the analogies in the life and thought of Berkeley and Fichte. The enthusiasm and the genius of both were essentially ethical. Both saw in a new educational departure a means of moral regeneration, one for the state and the other for society. The interest of the one in the plan of the Bermuda university was not much more practical than that of the other in the plan of the new university of Berlin. The essential difference between the two was that the German was so supremely in love with freedom that the ego must posit even the objective world freely, while the Irishman sought, not without success, to make philosophic materialism thenceforth impossible. The value of Professor Fraser's book does not consist in anything new, but in the clearness and attractiveness of his style, and the judiciousness of his selections. Otherwise the author accomplishes all he professes to do, if not more.

Sir William Hamilton. By W. H. S. Monck, M.A., Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Dublin. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. 192. 1881.

THIS book, one of the "English Philosophers" series, is a digest of the Hamiltonian metaphysics and logic, and contains nothing whatever that is new except a brief notice of the literature to which Hamilton's opinions gave rise, and a convenient glossary of philosophical terms, of more than twenty pages, at the end. Like so many philosophers, Hamilton's life was by no means fortunate, and the final verdict concerning the value of his thought has not yet been spoken. He was released from the practice of the law and enabled to devote his time to his department only after obtaining his professorship, at the age of forty-eight. Most of his writing, and even reading, was done during the interval of fourteen years between his appointment and the stroke of paralysis in 1844, twelve years before his death. The fullest presentation of his views is to be found, not in his semi-popular and somewhat fragmentary lectures, but in his comments on the system of Reid, who of all philosophers was second only to Aristotle in his esteem; and even his edition of Reid is incomplete. Monck asserts that "his philosophical erudition has never been equalled," and that "no philosophical writer of the present century has had the same influence in cultivating metaphysical speculation." Professor Monck writes in a spirit of ardent discipleship which, if we are not mistaken, few philosophical minds of his own country would now fully share, but which is the best guarantee for both insight and conscientiousness in presenting his master's views.

General Physiology of Muscles and Nerves. By Dr. I. Rosenthal, Professor of Physiology in the University of Erlangen. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Pp. 324.

THE writer attempts to be "intelligible to those who are not specialists," and with this purpose has omitted the more recondite parts of his subject. When this work was written in German, four years ago, it was the only connected account of the general physiology of muscles and nerves, and is now superseded only in German, by Hermann's elaborate text-book. Professor Rosenthal is a pupil of Du Bois-Reymond, and presents only his master's side of the long controversy with Hermann concerning the electrical phenomena of muscles. The work is illustrated with seventy-five woodcuts, and ends with a practical appendix on the graphic method and the idea of mathematical functions. The writer concludes with broad generalizations concerning the specific energy of nerves. Like an increasing number of German physiological writers, he is especially interested in the psychological aspect of his subject. His book contains nothing whatever that is new, but presents the facts of the department clearly and well.

The Liturgy and Ritual of the Celtic Church. By F. E. Warren, B.D. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1881.

COMPILED from scattered notices in the works of contemporary writers and in Celtic MSS., from the surviving fragments of the ancient Celtic Liturgy, and from the architectural remains of churches, etc., this volume contains in brief compass an exhaustive and trustworthy summary of the discoveries already made in regard to its obscure subject. In his introductory chapter the author deals with the special characteristics of the Celtic Church. The theory of its Eastern origin, in common with the best authorities, he rejects as no longer tenable, "the most probable hypothesis being that Christianity reached the British Isles through Gaul" about the close of the second century. Though orthodox, the Celtic Church was, he maintains, for centuries absolutely independent of the Roman Church, from which it differed widely on many important points. The facts of history, he argues, "present to our view a vast Celtic communion existing in Great Britain and Ireland, and sending its missions among the Teutonic tribes on the Continent, and to distant islands like Iceland; Catholic in doctrine and practice, and yet with its claims to Catholicity ignored or impugned by the Church of Rome; with a long roll of saints, every name of note on which is either that of one, like St. Columbanus, taking a line wholly independent of Rome, or, like Bishop Colman at the Synod of Whitby, directly in collision with her; having its own Liturgy, its own translation of the Bible, its own mode of chanting, its own monastic rule, its own cycle for the calculation of Easter; and presenting both internal and external evidence of a complete autonomy." The second chapter is devoted to a detailed consideration of the Celtic Ritual, in which much curious and interesting information is communicated. The third and last chapter is wholly composed of *Reliquiæ Celticæ Liturgicæ*, together with certain Missæ and Collects, which, though not portions of the original Celtic Liturgy, were used in the later Celtic Church, or are associated with the names of Celtic saints, or refer to incidents in their lives, or have relicts of the ancient Liturgy interwoven in their structure or contents.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Boulnois, H. P. Dirty Dustbins and Sloppy Streets. New York: E. & F. N. Spon. $1 40.
Bulwer-Lytton, E. Leila: a Tale. New York: I. K. Funk & Co. 50 cents.
Bushnell, Rev. H. Building Eras in Religion. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1 50.
Cabie, G. W. Madame Delphine: a Tale. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. 75 cents.
Chatard, Rev. F. S. Christian Truths. New York: Cath. Pub. Soc. $1 50.
Coburn's Almanacs for 3,000 Years. Boston: Coburn Bros.
Conant, Mrs. H. C. Popular History of the Translation of the Holy Scriptures, revised ed. New York: I. K. Funk & Co.
Conway, M. D. Thomas Carlyle. New York: Harper & Bros. $1.
Ebers, Prof. G. The Emperor: a Tale. 2 vols. New York: W. S. Gottsberger. $1 50.
Feuillet, O. History of a Parisienne. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1.
Harland, Marion. Handicapped: a Tale. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1 50.
Houghton, G. Legend of St. Olaf's Kirk, 2d ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Howells, W. D. A Fearful Responsibility, and Other Stories. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Huntington, Rev. G. P., and Metcalf, Rev. H. A. Treasury of the Psalter. Boston: A. Williams & Co.
Littell's Living Age. Vol. 34. Boston: Littell & Co.
Mallock, W. H. A Romance of the Nineteenth Century. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Marbury, M. Theory of Gravitation, Heat, and Electricity. Baltimore: John B. Piet.
Mead, Edwin D. The Philosophy of Carlyle. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
New Testament, Revised Version. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 14, 1881.

The Week.

THE steady improvement of the President ever since Sunday, in spite of the rather gloomy forebodings of the doctors, is a medical fact which has not been adequately discussed. There has been a great deal of medical opinion collected by the reporters, but it has necessarily been presented to the public in a very confused shape, and, having been reported by laymen, probably contains much inaccuracy. Some doctors, for instance, confidently expected peritonitis, and were reported to anticipate it in company with a rising pulse, while others say that peritonitis is always accompanied by a falling pulse. It seems to be pretty evident, anyhow, that there was a serious but not sad mistake in the diagnosis, and that the bullet has probably not touched any vital part.

The *Pall Mall Gazette* has published an article on the condition and prospects of the American money market, which has been telegraphed to this country and has been giving the Wall Street bears some comfort. It predicts a financial crisis here before long, and thinks the autumn would be the proper time for it, as American exports will then begin to fall off under the influence of European good harvests. The stability of the New York money market, it argues, depends upon its power to continue drawing gold from Europe, and this power must cease to be effective in the presence of a bountiful European harvest, of which there is now a fair prospect. The stability of the New York money market is a phrase standing much in need of definition. There are other places besides Europe from which New York can draw gold in case of need. The interior of the United States is one such place. As regards the question of stability, we can recall many times and seasons when the New York money market remained stable while not only drawing no gold from Europe but exporting large sums thither. If the *Pall Mall Gazette* discerns any reasons why the present time is so peculiar that we must continue to draw $70,000,000 gold per annum from abroad in addition to our own production of the metal, we confess our inability to discover them. It is one of the settled doctrines of political economy that importations of gold beyond the needs of circulation are of no advantage to a country, and while no one can say exactly what those needs are, it is the opinion of good judges that they have been already overpassed in this country, and that the excess of gold lies dormant like other unused capital. The advance in general prices has not been sufficient to account for its presence among us in a state of active circulation. We know that it has come, for it has been counted and weighed at the Assay Office, but it has seemed to sink into the sand rather than remain upon the surface of trade. It has replaced the capital represented by our excess of exports, but has not yet acted upon prices to any great extent. Undoubtedly prices have risen somewhat from their lowest level after the panic of 1873, but the advance is not sufficiently marked as yet to awaken uneasiness.

A bountiful European harvest is not, in our judgment, an event calculated to produce a financial crisis in this country. We cannot conceive how it should cause our people to owe more than they can pay. If we have already contracted debts abroad, or to each other, based upon the expectation that all future European harvests were to be bad and all of our own good, the occurrence of a bountiful crop abroad might put us in the predicament of being unable to pay such obligations; and that would be a financial crisis, greater or less, according to the amount of indebtedness in default. But mere inability to sell our surplus abroad would have no other tendency than to lessen our ability to buy—that is, to make us economical. A year or two of economy and "close rubbing" would perhaps be good for us, although uncomfortable. It would certainly postpone rather than hasten the oncoming of a financial crisis. If the *Pall Mall Gazette* means, by its allusions to the stability of the New York money market, that circumstances may arise which will cause a tumble in American railway stocks for want of money to "carry" them at present prices, we can readily see the drift of its argument; but this is a very different thing from a financial crisis as that phenomenon is known in the financial world. The one certain consequence of the loss of our gold by European drafts on it would be that we should have to drop down on our silver, but there is no other. This would be very unfortunate, but it would not necessarily bring about a financial collapse.

It has been a dull week in Wall Street. The attack on the President at first caused a sharp decline in prices at the Stock Exchange; it also influenced money-lenders to call for the payment of their loans. From the decline in prices there was a quick recovery; but this was only temporary, as other influences of a depressing character soon sent prices downwards. The chief of these was the renewal of rate-cutting by the trunk-line railroads, and this continued up to the close of the week, and extended to westward as well as eastward bound freight, and to passenger traffic. The impression in Wall Street is that this whole trunk-line disturbance has been fostered by Mr. Vanderbilt for his own purposes in the stock market, and that it will suddenly cease when these purposes are accomplished. This may be unjust to Mr. Vanderbilt, but his "operations" in stocks in the last few months have been such that it is by no means incredible, as it would have been if it had been said of his father. Railroad traffic continues heavy. A few roads are not carrying as much as last year, but nearly all show an important gain, and some a most surprising one. The volume of domestic mercantile business continues large; foreign trade, as reflected by the returns of the New York Custom-house, is not so large as a year ago, but much exceeds that of the corresponding season in 1879. The New York money market has not yet returned to the extremely easy condition it was in early in June, but rates for loans have hardly been above 4 per cent. The foreign capital lent here, which was called in on the first and second business days after the attack on the President, is returning to the loan market for employment. There has been a profit neither in importing nor exporting gold during the week, but the tendency is rather to the importing point. The price of silver bullion in London fell from 52¼*d.* to 50⅞*d.* per ounce as the result of the adjournment without results of the International Monetary Conference; here the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar fell to $0.8585.

The discussion as to the Presidential succession makes it important to call attention to the fact that we owe the non-election of a *pro tempore* President of the Senate altogether to Messrs. Conkling and Arthur. At the last session of the Senate, as is well known to all the leading Washington politicians, when in consequence of the resignation of Messrs. Conkling and Platt the Democrats had a majority, it was suggested to Mr. Arthur that he should, in accordance with the practice invariably followed, vacate the chair for the purpose of permitting the election of a President *pro tempore*. He enquired who would be the Senator selected by the Democrats, and on learning that Mr. Bayard was their candidate retained the chair and thus prevented an election. Mr. Conkling at the same time is said to have made the same enquiry and received the same reply. This does not appear to have been the result of a determination to prevent a Democrat from being chosen, for the *Republican*, Mr. Conkling's organ at Washington, suggested that if Mr. Harris, of Tennessee, should be elected the opportunity would be afforded. Mr. Harris had paired against Judge Robertson's confirmation, and was therefore believed to be in sympathy with the anti-Administration cabal. Mr. Conkling, through Mr. Arthur, in fact, deliberately refused to allow the constitutional means to be taken to provide for the Presidential succession, solely in order to keep out of the chair of the Senate anybody who had not favored him in his effort to keep the control of the New York offices, thus giving one more alarming indication of the complete contempt in which he holds all general

considerations of the public interest when these seem to conflict with those of the unscrupulous faction at whose head he stands or stood.

Mr. Conkling wrote a letter to Attorney-General MacVeagh on the 5th, conveying his condolences to the President and Mrs. Garfield, and suggesting a change in the law to increase the certainty and severity of punishment for attacks on "high executive officers." The proposal has been very effectively treated by a correspondent on another page. His expressions of sympathy sound a little stiff and constrained, particularly as they are preceded by a discussion of a poor law point, but it is not easy to seem simple and natural in condoling with a man whom you have a few days previously been savagely denouncing as a liar and cheat, and whose household arrangements you have been ridiculing to the newspaper reporters. Generous or magnanimous talk to or about an enemy, too, is not the least in Mr. Conkling's line. His ideal of a happy retreat in his old age is probably very like Heine's—a pretty cottage embowered in flowers, with a smooth lawn sloping to the water's edge, and a wide-spreading chestnut-tree in front of the door, with about half a dozen of his enemies hanging to the boughs. Mr. Conkling has, on the whole, borne himself well in a trying situation, and so has Mr. Arthur. The attack on the President did the latter the inestimable service of taking him to Washington, where a few days of seclusion and quiet have made people begin to think kindly of him again.

The probabilities are, at this writing, that within a day or two Mr. Conkling's political career will be closed, for the present at least, by the election of successors to him and Platt. The Administration or "Half-Breed" Republicans have succeeded in having a caucus called by a Republican majority, and having it nominate for the Senatorships. The Conklingites refused to take part in it, but on no defensible grounds, and a fatal break in their ranks is now looked for every day. The President's recovery has doubtless done much to hasten this result. It seems a long time since Conkling and Platt were in the zenith of their insolence at Rochester in 1877, but the end has come, and when one thinks that it has been wrought out by themselves, or, in other words, that Conkling has literally ruined his own machine, his late madness has a providential air. The press could probably never have destroyed him.

General Grant has been having another "talk"—this time with a reporter of the *World*—on the attempted assassination and its possible results. Of the possible results he takes the same cheerful view as Mr. Conkling. He says nothing would happen, "that he could see, except to disappoint—seriously disappoint—some men who want office. The places they want will be filled by men equally as competent." This is a thought which, doubtless, during the last ten days has cheered many a Stalwart heart. General Grant, of course, does not share in the widespread foreboding about Mr. Arthur's administration of the Government, in case of the President's death. In fact, he evidently thinks he is just the man for the place. Mr. Arthur's language at the Dorsey dinner does not affect him unfavorably, because he presided at the dinner himself. The popular impression about Mr. Arthur's unfitness he ascribes to the "shameless and villanous manner in which he has been slandered by the bitter newspapers known as the Half-Breed press," which have painted him as "a monster"; whereas he (Grant) knows him to be "a man of common sense and clear-headed, with good associates—a man of integrity."

Nobody of the "Grant crowd," in fact, seems to be at all cast down by the crisis, except the Rev. Dr. Newman, who was General Grant's chaplain in Washington, and afterward his travelling "inspector of consulates." This gentleman delivered a terrible sermon on the Fourth, in which he demanded the disfranchisement of all persons of foreign birth and the suppression of infidel lecturers like Colonel "Bob" Ingersoll. The disfranchisement of all foreign-born citizens would, as it seems to us, be a very harsh measure, and we trust that the Doctor will not insist on it, even if the Stalwarts do come into power. Guiteau is not a foreigner, and, even if he were, why punish whole classes of citizens for the crime of one man? Besides, the foreigners are not as bad as they seem. Wilkes Booth was a native; so was Bill Tweed; so is Jim McDonald, the leading whiskey thief of the West; so was Jim Fisk; and so is his late partner, Jay Gould; and so is Bob Ingersoll, the eminent infidel; and so were Babcock and Casey. Andrew Johnson, who was well known for a while as the "greatest criminal of the age," was a native. The "rebel brigadiers," too, are all natives. In fact, in the matter of wickedness the natives hold their own manfully with the bad fellows who come over in the emigrant ships. We therefore propose as an amendment to Dr. Newman's suggestion that the wicked and atheistic natives be disfranchised along with the foreigners. We shall then be a happy and prosperous people. The "Half-Breed" consuls all over the world must by this time be trembling in their boots lest the Doctor should come round again to "inspect" them.

The London *Times* thought there was some probability that the Paris Monetary Conference might accomplish its objects in part through the help of the Bank of England, which agreed to take and hold a limited quantity of silver against its note circulation as authorized by the Bank Act of 1844. With the co-operation of the Bank to this extent, and the co-operation of Germany to the extent of stopping sales of silver for a certain period, and enlarging her circulation of subsidiary coins, the *Times* thought it would be possible for France and the United States to adopt bi-metallism, and that they would probably do so. Mr. Thurman hastened to disabuse men's minds on this subject, by saying that the United States would not be satisfied with half-way measures on the part of England and Germany, and would not permit the free coinage of silver unless those countries do likewise. There is a further obstacle in the way of bi-metallism which neither the *Times* nor Mr. Thurman, so far as appears, has made mention of—namely, the difficulty of agreeing upon a ratio. The United States are committed to the "dollar of the fathers"—that is, to the ratio of 16 to 1. This commitment is no light fantastic choice based upon the value of the metals, but rests upon solid ancestral grounds. Sixteen to one appeals to the heart; patriotic emotions are stirred by it; it is the only ratio for us. With 15½ or 18½, or any other ratio, bi-metallism will go overboard in a trice, so far as we are concerned. It could not last a year.

Dr. Woolsey, of New Haven, in an interview with a *Herald* reporter, insists upon the desirability of securing uniform laws on the subject of marriage and divorce throughout the country. The statistics on the subject are very meagre, and thus far chiefly go to show the great popularity of divorce as an "institution." In 1878, for instance, there were more divorces granted in Massachusetts and Connecticut than in England and Wales together. Connecticut down to that year permitted divorce for "any such misconduct as permanently destroys the happiness of the petitioner and defeats the purpose of the marriage relation," a provision which practically made the matter one of judicial discretion; but in Massachusetts, where no such law has ever existed, and with a population of 1,783,000, six hundred divorces were granted in 1878, against eight hundred in England and Wales, with a population of 24,000,000. Dr. Woolsey thinks that divorce lawyers are the most bitter opponents of divorce-law reform, and of course they can hardly be expected to favor it; but behind them there is a laxity of public sentiment which makes permanent improvement of the law difficult. In this State, for instance, the sole ground for absolute divorce is adultery; yet the Legislature a year or two since passed an act permitting the guilty party to remarry, on producing satisfactory proof of "good behavior" since his divorce; and this extraordinary statute was got through the Legislature by a divorced husband for the simple purpose of enabling him to contract a new marriage.

The *Maritime Register* calls attention to a phase of railway monopoly which is not altogether new, but which seems to have had a late revival. Two or three years ago the merchants of San Francisco were invited, or rather constrained, by the Pacific railways to abandon the Isthmus route for the transportation of goods from the Atlantic coast. The process by which this monopolizing scheme was enforced was substantially this: The

railways would offer freight contracts to merchants and shippers at very low rates on condition that they would send all their goods by rail, not merely light, costly, and perishable articles requiring promptness of delivery, but heavy and bulky freight as well. If the merchant declined to make such a contract he was required to pay high rates for everything—that is, the railways had two different rates for the same service for two different customers. The man who wished to send pianos by rail and pig-iron by water paid a high rate on pianos; while another who would agree to send both by rail paid a low rate. The duty of the common carrier at common law to carry for all alike was openly disregarded. There was great complaint against these arbitrary proceedings, and the obnoxious rule of the railway companies was finally rescinded, but not until arrangements had been effected with the Pacific Mail Steamship Company which rendered it no longer useful for the purposes for which it was designed.

Now the *Maritime Register* informs us that the practice has been revived and the rule again put in force as against the sailing vessels which go around Cape Horn. An improved method, as we are informed, has been adopted for enforcing it against the commercial public. All shippers are charged the same rates, but after a certain lapse of time, if it is found that a particular merchant has neither received nor handled any goods carried by the way of Cape Horn, he receives back from the railway company a portion of the freight-money already paid. Whether this roundabout proceeding is adopted in order to evade legal penalties, or merely to keep the whip in the hands of the railway companies, is immaterial. It amounts to unlawful and aggravated discrimination, and should be proceeded against as such with all vigor by the parties injured and by the public authorities. These railway companies are still subject to the control of Congress, notwithstanding the partial settlement effected with them under the Thurman bill. One of the provisions of their original charter requires them to operate their roads, as regards the Government, the public, and their connecting lines, "without any discrimination whatever." This provision is perhaps the most important one in their act of incorporation, and it is one which should be promptly enforced whenever departed from.

The accident to the *Britannic*, of the White Star line, is another singular illustration of the good luck of the Cunard line. During the last thirty years the Cunarders have had little if any superiority to boast over some competing lines, except in safety. Every now and then it has seemed as if they were likely to lose this by the prolonged immunity from accident of some of their competitors. People were beginning to think that, after all, one was just as secure on board some other boats, besides being more comfortable, but this confidence has never long shown itself before it was ruined by a wreck or disappearance, followed by another rush of the timid to the Cunard gangways. The theory, too, that "it was all luck," which long helped some rival lines, is being rapidly sapped by time. Good luck never lasts very long, and the people begin to suspect that that of the Cunarders cannot be a genuine article. There is apparently something more behind it, at all events, even than efficiency or watchfulness. There must be extreme caution. It is curious how little is known, after all, by the public about the internal economy of the great steamship lines—that is, how small its materials are for judging of the safety of a line beyond the number of its accidents. Who knows, for instance, whether there is any difference, and, if so, what, between the policy of the different lines in dealing with prolonged fogs? That there is some difference is quite clear, but it is kept very close.

The Irish Land Bill will probably pass the House of Commons during the coming week. Opposition to it has all but completely died out, and there is little expectation that it will even be subjected to severe criticism in the Lords. Attention has been called to the fact that it does nothing directly for a very large and wretched class—the Irish farm-laborers—by the arrival in London of a deputation from them to lay their woes before the Government. Cardinal Manning, whom they went to see, consoled them by saying that the Land Bill once passed, their turn would come next, but that any importunate agitation on their part just now might impede the bill without doing them any good. What can be done for them by legislation it is somewhat difficult to see, beyond giving their children compulsory education or compelling farmers to give them small plots of ground with fixity of tenure, but this would be going much further in interference with freedom of contract than the Land Bill has ventured on. A farmer must be at liberty to discharge his laborers in his discretion, and if he had to give a cottage and plot with a lease to all laborers he employed he would soon be eaten up by them. What bears hardest on the Irish farm-laborers, besides the farmer's poverty and insecurity, is the climate. The number of wet days for which he gets no pay is very great, and if he is hired by the year they count in keeping down his wages.

The question, What will the Land League leaders do when the Land Bill is passed, should the farmers be satisfied with it? of course becomes more interesting as the speedy passage of the bill becomes more certain. Mr. Parnell and his followers say they look forward to a political separation of Ireland from England, either total or partial, and they even have a plan for the resolution of the British Empire into a federal union, with a common parliament for common interests and local parliaments for Ireland and the colonies. There is not the least probability that any such scheme will ever be carried out, or that any of the colonies would like it, or that it would work for five years if tried, or that Englishmen would submit to it, except in despair about the Empire. The colonies want to go alone, and they will be allowed to do so in all but the name. The Irish difficulty will probably be solved by the creation in Ireland, as in England, of elective county governments, and by the gradual surrender of Irish affairs in the Imperial Parliament to Irish members, as those of Scotland have been surrendered to the Scotch members. From this will come inevitably more care in the selection of members by Irish constituencies. As long as the chief duty of an Irish member is to agitate or "stir up" the Ministry and the Englishmen, any sort of blatant, loud-mouthed man, like Biggar or Healy, answers the purpose. If the Irish members were charged with real responsibility, and the Irish Secretary were an Irishman and stood in the same relation to them that the Lord Advocate stands to the Scotch members, Irish constituencies would soon tire of the type of political adventurer now so successful among them.

The English National Liberal Federation Association adopted at its late meeting in Birmingham a very strong circular address to the various associations of which it is composed, severely censuring the conduct of the Liberal members of the House of Commons who, either by absenting themselves or by voting in the affirmative on Mr. Heneage's amendment to the Irish Land Bill a fortnight ago, brought the ministerial majority down to twenty-five. The delinquents in this case are mostly men of Whig antecedents, but they might more properly be called "Society" Liberals—that is, they are men whose social and business relations incline them to highly conservative views of all questions relating to property, and who find it hard work to follow Mr. Gladstone in the teeth of the detestation with which a large portion of London society regards him. The tone of the circular indicates clearly enough that at his death a serious split in the Liberal party, which the Tories have been so long predicting and expecting, will be no longer delayed. The Radicals have set their hearts on getting rid of government by landlords and restoring the old representative or popular government of counties, which would, if carried out, involve something like a reconstruction of English society, and there are not many of the old Whigs or Society Liberals who would be trusted, even if they were willing, to lead in such a movement. In other words, there is probably impending in English politics some such change as has occurred in France since the overthrow of MacMahon, namely, the passage of the Government into the hands of men who do not form part of "Society," and whom Society tries to despise. There are signs of this in the case of the Gladstone Ministry, but still Mr. Gladstone and many of his colleagues are really members of the aristocracy by antecedents, education, or position.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT GARFIELD has been steadily improving during the week which has now elapsed since the physicians began to entertain strong hopes of his recovery. The excessive heat has been unfortunate, though not seriously retarding, and various devices to cool the air of the sick-chamber have been tried, with some success. The newspapers have interviewed physicians right and left upon every point conceivably connected with the case. Dr. Hamilton, one of the consulting surgeons, now thinks it possible that the ball has no more than grazed the liver. Professor Weisse, of the New York University Medical School, has been making experiments upon a cadaver with a pistol of the same calibre as Guiteau's, and is "very nearly convinced" that the liver has not been touched, and confident that the ball is in the sacral plexus. The papers report details of numerous similar cases all over the country. Telegrams of sympathy and enquiry have continued to pour in from every direction at home and abroad, and resolutions to be adopted by different commercial and political organizations. The most important of the various meetings held was that of the Chamber of Commerce on Thursday last, at which Mr. Cyrus W. Field started a subscription, which speedily reached a very large amount, for a fund, the income to be given to Mrs. Garfield during her life, and the principal to be divided among her children after her death. The attempted outrage is also still a pulpit theme, and was the subject of President Hinsdale, of Hiram College, at Washington on Sunday.

Scraps of Guiteau's history come to light from day to day and witness an unsavory record, social and domestic. The District Attorney has intimated the possibility of procuring his indictment for each "attempt" on the President's life in case of the latter's recovery—for each of the two shots fired, that is—which would permit an imprisonment of sixteen years upon conviction. The Executive Committee of the Board of Transportation of this city call for such amendments to existing laws as will make a similar attempt treason and punishable with death. An escaped lunatic named McNamara, inspired by God to kill Secretary Blaine, or perhaps Vice-President Arthur, appeared in Washington last week and was sent to the insane asylum. Several persons have been reported who expressed gratification at Guiteau's crime; they were hardly used by bystanders, one being fatally beaten. Another was expelled from the Dayton, Ohio, Soldiers' Home.

Wednesday of last week the "feather-head" call for a conference of Republican members of the Legislature had received sixty-five signatures, and a meeting was held at which sixty-three members were present. No Conklingites attended. It resulted in the call for another on Thursday evening. On this occasion a caucus was called for the next afternoon, and when this met, fifteen Senators and fifty Assemblymen responded to their names. A letter was read from Mr. Depew which is described as having had the effect of a great surprise. In it Mr. Depew withdrew his candidacy, and gave as his reasons the advice of trusted friends, "who fully concur that at the present juncture sacrifices and concessions ought to be made on all sides"; the embittered nature of the contest; the propriety, under the present circumstances of national grief, of ending it speedily; and the necessity of electing representatives to Congress in view of "a contingency not contemplated when the State left the Senate." A ballot, taken after the reading of this letter and after Senator Pitts and Mr. Husted had expressed the emotions it excited in them, resulted in Mr. Warner Miller's heading the list. Fifty-four votes were necessary, the Republican membership in the Legislature being 106, and on the fourth ballot Mr. Miller secured this number and was nominated for the long term to succeed Platt. Mr. Elbridge G. Lapham was nominated for the long term to succeed Conkling. The following day the vote in joint session stood: Lapham, 67; Conkling, 31; Wheeler, 1; Potter, 50; and Miller, 68; Wheeler, 19; Kernan, 50; the rest scattering.

The conduct of each side is inconsistent from the point of view of the other. The Administration men censure the Conklingites for not participating in a caucus when it was called, having been at first so anxious to have one called. The latter reply that the thing is as broad as it is long, and that the time for a fair caucus went by long ago. Both the caucus candidates are present Congressmen, and are objected to because their election to the Senate might endanger the Republican majority in the House. Their districts are, however, both strongly Republican. Mr. Miller is from Herkimer County, served in the war, and is now engaged in the manufacture of paper, to which business is ascribed his advocacy of the duty on wood-pulp by which he has been chiefly known in Congress, to which he was elected in 1878 and in 1880. Mr. Lapham is from Ontario, where he was born and studied law, being admitted to the bar in 1844. He was a member of the Constitutional Convention of 1867, and has represented his district in Congress since 1874. On the first day of the balloting Mr. Miller got eight votes. Mr. Lapham's name appeared on the second day with one.

The Senate has occupied itself, in the intervals of balloting, with desultory discussion. The Governor sent in on the 7th his veto of Bill 408, known as the Water Bill, and providing for the construction of an additional aqueduct for conveying water from the Croton Dam to this city. The veto was laid on the table, notwithstanding a speech by Senator Forster in reply to the Governor's objections, which were economical. Last Wednesday and Thursday, the Railroad Commission Bill was attacked by Senators Fowler, Madden, and McCarthy, and defended by Senators Pitts and Forster. Friday, the Governor transmitted a veto of the bill for the relief of John Foley, who claims salary due as supervisor of the County of New York from 1869 to 1874, during which time he rendered valuable services in the Tweed Ring prosecution. The objections to its enactment assigned by the Governor consisted wholly in its unconstitutionality.

The Legislative Committee on the Bradley-Sessions case rendered three reports, Stalwart, Half-Breed, and Democratic, last week, which the indictment of Sessions robs of all but a subjective interest.

The bondholders' suits against the Manhattan Railway Company have been before the courts during the week, but the hearings were postponed to the 21st inst. A counter suit has been brought by the New York Company against the plaintiff in one of the foregoing, charging conspiracy. The election of directors of the Metropolitan road was held on Friday, and the ticket containing the names of Gould, Dillon, Sage, and others received a large majority—a result which is thought to argue friendly relations with the New York Company and a "speculative" future for Manhattan stock. On the same day Judge Blatchford denied the application of the French Cable Company for an injunction against the Western Union consolidation. The commissioners appointed by the Supreme Court to determine whether Broadway should be tunnelled despite the protests of property-owners, held their first meeting on the 6th inst. and heard favorable testimony.

Sir Edward Thornton, for thirteen years British Minister to the United States, and recently transferred to St. Petersburg, sailed for Liverpool on the 6th, and just before his departure a deputation of British residents of New York and representatives of the St. George's, St. Andrew's, St. David's, and Albion societies, the British Provident Association, and the New York Caledonian Club, presented him with an engrossed copy of testimonial resolutions. In replying to the presentation speech of Mr. Archibald, the British Consul-General, Sir Edward expressed his belief that the welfare of his countrymen here was "intimately connected with that of this great country," whose hopes of peace and prosperity, he said, seemed never more promising.

A centennial celebration of the publication of Kant's 'Critique of Pure Reason' was held last week at Saratoga Springs, at which President Seelye, of Amherst, presided. Letters were read from eight other college presidents, and a number of addresses made by different professors of metaphysics. A committee was appointed to arrange for similar meetings at Saratoga. Still another rival to the Concord School opened at Greenwood Lake this week. It owes its origin mainly to the Rev. Dr. Charles F. Deems, the late Commodore Vanderbilt's favorite divine, and is called "The Summer School of Christian Philosophy." Both these undertakings probably differ somewhat in scope from the Concord School (which itself opened on Monday), and may follow more purely practical aims, such as the reconciliation of science and philosophy with the current orthodox theology

—without, however, shrinking from the results of a speculativeness as daring as that of Mr. Alcott and Professor Harris.

Among the later college commencements are those of the University of Alabama, of Bowdoin College, and of Williams, which last the President was to have attended. In an address before the Adelphi Society at Williams ex-Senator Ingalls took occasion to express the opinion that the civil-service reform was "un-American." The remark has attracted some attention to his oration, the circumstances under which this was delivered being unusual.

Bishop Stevens (Protestant Episcopal), of Eastern Pennsylvania, has enjoined the continued use of the authorized version of the New Testament in his diocese. Bishop Stevens is an advanced Low-Churchman.

Ex-Senator Hitchcock, of Nebraska, and the Rt. Rev. Bishop Kerfoot (Protestant Episcopal), of Western Pennsylvania, died last week.

FOREIGN.

Mr. Gladstone announced on Thursday, in reply to a question as to the Paris Silver Conference, that "there was no intention to alter the present currency laws, and the British delegates had no authority to make any other representations." The question as to why Great Britain was represented at all he did not touch upon. The Bank of England had agreed, he said, to the proposal of the Conference that the Bank should keep part of its reserve in silver, provided a union should be formed without the concurrence of England for the unlimited coinage of that metal. The Government had only been the medium of communication between the Conference and the Bank. At the Saturday's session of the Conference Mr. Evarts read a declaration of the French and American delegates' views, which was a mere epitome of the often-stated objects of the Convention. As to the ratio between the metals to be fixed by international agreement, any one "now or lately in use" would do, he declared, but fifteen and one-half to one was the best. The Conference, after arranging for correspondence between the participating states and a Conference April 22, 1882, adjourned on Friday.

A long correspondence between Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Bradlaugh, just published, concludes with a letter from the latter regretting that the Government was either unable or unwilling to enforce the law in his case. He has also written the Speaker of the House of Commons threatening to present himself at the table again to take the oath.

The Land Bill progresses in the British House of Commons, but not so rapidly as to promise adjournment by August 6, as Mr. Gladstone has hoped. Clauses 7 (as amended), 8, 9, 10, and 11 were adopted on the 5th inst. On the following day clause 12 was postponed, and clause 13 adopted after amendment without a division. Clauses 14, 16, 17, and 18 were adopted on Thursday, clause 15 being postponed; and the 20th, 21st, 22d, 23d, and 24th on Friday, the first two with slight amendments. On the same day Mr. Forster received a deputation of Irish farm-laborers accompanied by about eighty members of Parliament, including English and Scotch members and several Conservatives. In reply to their suggestions and criticisms he observed that if the Government could do any more than it was now attempting it would try—"if not this year they would do it as soon as possible." The same deputation called on Cardinal Manning on Sunday and got from the prelate a good deal of sympathy. No outrages are reported, and the efforts of the police have been confined to the seizure of a box of revolvers in Roscommon, and the arrest of seven persons under the Coercion act. The Land League, at its weekly meeting on the 5th, reported £1,587 received since its last meeting, £1,200 of which came from this country.

The largest body of volunteer troops ever assembled from all parts of the kingdom, and composed of 114 regiments of all arms, numbering over 50,000 men, was reviewed by the Queen on Saturday in the Great Park at Windsor.

The London *Sportsman*, which indignantly protested against the treatment of the Cornell crew at Henley, is equally outspoken in condemnation of the scandalous hustling of the American contestants in the athletic sports of the Moseley Harriers' Club at Birmingham on Saturday, where the races were stopped on its becoming evident that an American would win a walking handicap. This is no better than the French sense of fair play exhibited in the Vignaux-Slosson billiard-match.

Lord Dufferin has informed the Turkish authorities unofficially that clemency towards Midhat Pasha will be appreciated by Englishmen, though he has made no formal appeal to the Porte.

Lefroy, the English railway murderer, was arrested in London Friday, and remanded after arraignment the following day. He had made no effort at flight beyond concealing himself in Stepney, and his only disguise was a clean-shaven face. He is said to have been suffering from hunger and felt relieved at his arrest, though he observed that he was not guilty.

A Melbourne despatch of the 10th inst. reports the formation of a new Victorian Ministry with Sir Bryan O'Loghlen as Premier, Colonial Treasurer, and Attorney-General.

The French Compulsory Education Bill has been endangered by the passage in the Senate by a vote of 139 to 126, and in spite of M. Ferry's active opposition, of an amendment offered by M. Jules Simon, providing that elementary schoolmasters shall teach pupils their duties to God and their country. The Chamber will reject the amendment, but will be dissolved, probably, before the bill can pass.

The deaths are announced by cable of the Count Paul de Saint-Victor, journalist and author, and a candidate for the French Academy; M. Henri Sainte-Claire Deville, chemist and member of the Institut; A. D. Jessup, merchant, of this city (in London); Lord Hatherley (Sir William Page Wood), ex-Chancellor of England under the Gladstone Government from 1868 to 1872; James Starley, the inventor of the modern bicycle and tricycle (at Coventry); Dr. Cumming, the Apocalypse interpreter; and Dr. Hillebrandt, the German explorer (at Madagascar), May 29.

What is called "the aggressive policy" of France in North Africa has been carried still further during the week, but from the disturbed condition of the district concerned it is difficult to get at precisely what is happening. Despatches announced early in the week that the French consul at Tripoli had begun "the same kind of agitation" which M. Roustan employed to bring about the Tunisian protectorate. The Porte had already sent troops and men-of-war thither, however, and their operations were severely censured by Gambetta's organs. "Strained relations" between France and the Porte were thought to have ensued, and a tiff between the Sultan and M. Tissot, the French ambassador at Constantinople, was reported. On the 5th inst. the French shelled Sfax, and speedily secured an unopposed landing for their troops. M. Roustan has advised the Government to prepare for a prolonged occupation of Sfax, Gabes, and probably the island of Djerba, points which dominate the Tripolitan frontier. The Mediterranean squadron of ten vessels left Toulon for Sfax Sunday, and the presence of a French iron-clad is said to have had a quieting effect on the excitement in Tripoli. When all these matters are settled, the *Débats* announces, Count de Lesseps "will complete in Algeria and Tunis the task commenced by politics and the army by creating an inland sea" between these countries and the Sahara. Whether the Panama and Corinth canals will have been dug meanwhile is not explained, but the quieting of Algeria seems a work likely to require some time and force. The insurrection there is reported to be increasing, and the mobilization of a large number of troops has been seriously considered.

It is reported from China that an expedition for the definite annexation of Anam, after the Tunisian manner, is planned by the French in Cochin-China, and that the whole country of Tonquin will be brought under French protection.

Of 307 newly-elected Bulgarian deputies 301 have accepted Prince Alexander's proposals. The late Ministers will be charged with malversation, the present Finance Minister having reported various deficits. Some notion of the value of the election is conveyed by the London *Daily News* correspondent, who reports that even Bulgarian newspapers published by American missionaries at Constantinople were prohibited.

The Oberammergau actors have proved a failure in secular drama, to their own exclusive surprise.

The mountaineers of the Bocche di Cattaro have rebelled against the Austrian conscription and set up a provisional government.

The Danish Folkething, having failed to pass the ordinary budget, has been dissolved by the King.

THE MORAL OF IT.

It is very seldom that an event of any kind is accepted by the public as a lesson or source of instruction on any definite point to the degree to which the attempt on President Garfield's life has been. Hardly any one who has spoken or written about it has confined himself to a simple expression of horror or sympathy. Nearly every one finds a moral in it, and the moral is that our system of appointment to office must be changed. We do not think we have taken up a newspaper during the last ten days which has not in some manner made the crime the product of "the spoils system." There has hardly been an allusion to it in the pulpit which has not pointed to the spoils system as the *fons et origo mali*. In fact, the crime seems to have acted on public opinion very like a spark on a powder-magazine. It has fallen on a mass of popular indignation all ready to explode. It did not, we now plainly see, find the public ignorant or indifferent regarding the abuses of the civil service. The attempt on the President's life has not been treated as *proof* that there is something grievously wrong with our mode of appointing to office, because it is nothing of the kind. A crazy fellow might conceive himself aggrieved by the working of the best conceivable mode of appointment to office, and proceed to avenge himself by assassination. He might, for instance, think himself unjustly dismissed for gross incompetency or misconduct, or he might think that promotion had been withheld from him which he had fairly earned, or that in a competitive examination he had been unjustly marked. The act of a madman or a weak-minded man never proves anything except that the man is mad or weak-minded.

Guiteau's offence has, therefore, not been accepted as evidence of something which people doubted or did not know, but as a striking and dreadful illustration of the working of an evil of which they had known for a long time. The extraordinary unanimity of the expressions of opinion about the origin of the crime, and the wideness of the area over which they have been uttered, and the almost complete absence of any counter opinion, show very clearly how small and uninfluential that portion of the public which is interested in the perpetuation of the spoils system really is. Nobody, so far as our observation has gone, has come forward in its defence. No man or newspaper has ventured to deny the connection of Guiteau's crime with the system. All the other inferences from it have been a good deal gainsaid; but nobody has risen up to maintain that as "it was the best civil service on this planet," it was absurd to condemn it because a man who had unsuccessfully tried to enter it had sought to avenge himself by an attempt on the President's life. Nor has any one come forward and declared that, inasmuch as it is "as good as the civil service of any European country," Guiteau's crime no more suggested the need of alteration in it than in that of Great Britain or France. Nor do any of the philosophers who used to declare that the spoils system was a useful, original, and purely American system, peculiarly adapted to the needs of a democratic country, now proclaim that it would be as silly to propose changing it because a disappointed office-seeker had tried to murder the President, as it would be to propose abolishing universal suffrage because there were occasional frauds at the elections. These various classes of defenders of the spoils system undoubtedly exist: we have heard from them frequently within the last five years through one channel or another; but they are now silent. Not one of them has lifted up his voice to protest against the gross perversion of the popular indignation which must to them certainly seem involved in the use now made of Guiteau's crime by the civil-service reformers.

This shows two things: one is that they are conscious of their numerical weakness, and the other is that, though they love the spoils system as much as ever, they will never venture to defend it before an aroused and attentive public. Their speeches and articles on its behalf are all addressed to a public which they suppose to be apathetic or indifferent.

If we are right in assuming that Guiteau's crime has satisfied the American people not that the civil service needs reforming—for that they knew already—but that something must now be done to reform it, the question, "what they are going to do about it," is one that must by this time be suggesting itself to thousands. It is hardly possible that the excitement about the President's condition will be allowed to die out without doing something toward turning away the attention of the whole class to which Guiteau belongs—the class of shiftless, crack-brained adventurers—from the public service as a means of livelihood. It ought to be so organized and administered that the Guiteaus, when "down on their luck," or "clean broke," would no more think of a Government office as a last resource than of the pastorate of an up-town church. But no such change will be effected in it—no change of any kind will be effected in it—if the people content themselves with dolorous denunciation. We must have action that will result in legislation. Those, then, who are most impressed by the bearing of the Washington tragedy on the question of civil-service reform should, now that their minds are beginning to be relieved of anxiety about the President's condition, make action of some sort an expression of their thankfulness for his recovery. To prepare for action they must ask themselves what they seek; and when they have found out, they ought to seek it with all their might.

Two bills were introduced into the last Congress dealing with the whole question of appointments and removals from office and promotions in office, and with the assessments of officeholders. They were carefully drawn. No objection, so far as we know, has been made to their constitutionality or to their practicability. In fact, they have not been opposed by anybody in Congress, but they will never be passed as long as Congressmen do not believe that the public wants them passed. Probably ninety-nine hundredths of those who during the past six weeks have been inveighing against the spoils system have no knowledge whatever either of this or of any other attempt to abolish the spoils system, and have never sought, and are not now seeking, any information on the subject. Had these rules been in force during the last year President Garfield would during the last four months have had all his time for the real duties of his office, as would the members of his Cabinet. The rows within the party about offices would never have occurred. There would have been no "Stalwarts" or "Half-Breeds," and no Guiteau. There would have been no deadlock at Albany. There would have been no Platt and no Conkling such as we now see them. There would have been none of the scandal and disgrace which the crime of July 2 has brought on popular government. The popular interest which has ever since the inauguration been mainly centred on a series of degrading personal quarrels would have been bestowed on the score of questions of the highest national interest which are now vainly awaiting solution.

THE FUND FOR MRS. GARFIELD.

The profound sympathy universally felt for the President and his family makes any criticism of a movement to give that feeling a substantial expression seem at the first blush a little ungracious. Nevertheless, the suggestions as to the proposed fund for the benefit of Mrs. Garfield made in the letter, from a prominent member of the Chamber of Commerce, published in the *Evening Post* last Saturday, contain food for reflection on the part of the gentlemen engaged in promoting the subscription. As the writer says:

"Every man of generous feeling has had his emotions gratefully quickened by the movement started in the Chamber to raise a liberal fund to be given to the wife and children of the President of the United States under the impending danger which threatens them, and no one wishes to say a word that may tend to repress so benevolent a purpose."

But the movement, which appeared a natural and spontaneous outburst as long as the chances seemed to be that the President would die, begins to wear a somewhat different aspect now that his recovery has become probable. The correspondent suggests an objection to the proposed fund, derived from the constitutional prohibition of any increase of the President's salary during the period for which he was elected, and the denial to him of all right to receive "any other emolument from the United States or any of them." He points out that it was the intention of these clauses to secure the President from all sinister exterior influence (and, we may add, from the suspicion of any such influence), and asks whether we may not, under the effect of the generous impulse inspired by the calamity, and by the suffering of the President and his family, be in danger of violating at least the spirit of this law. He suggests that a private agreement ought to have been made between the donors of the money that, in case of a fatal

termination, the proposed sum should be given to the family of the President, and that this intention might have been communicated to him "without giving names that could embarrass him in the future, or impair his official or personal independence." But even this, he thinks, "might give the President serious trouble hereafter, and prove a curse rather than a blessing."

It is, in fact, clear that the President's recovery will make his relation to the fund a very peculiar and delicate one, and on many accounts it is for his interest and that of the public that this should be frankly discussed by the press in advance. In the event of the President's death the whole matter would become one exclusively of taste and sentiment. If Congress should neglect to make a suitable provision for the President's widow, there can be no doubt that a call for a popular subscription would be heartily responded to; and even if it should not neglect to do this, the question of making her a substantial gift, which, in our opinion, could not be too large, would be one entirely between the donors and herself. No public interests of any kind would be affected. The differences between this and the case of the President's recovery have seemed so obvious to one or two of the subscribers that they have made their subscriptions conditional upon his death. In case of his recovery it will, of course, be very difficult to distinguish between a gift to the President and a gift to the President's wife. The plan of putting the money in trust does not remove this difficulty. A substantial addition to the resources of the one is practically a substantial addition to the resources of the other.

The change in its form from a private to a national subscription can have little or no effect upon this. It necessarily remains, as it originated, a fund set on foot by a number of well-known capitalists. That these gentlemen are simply animated by a generous sympathy does not alter this fact; it is just this association that renders it the duty of the President's friends to point out the inferences that will be drawn from it hereafter. Among the subscribers are men interested in the promotion by legislation at Washington of private enterprises of all sorts. This legislation must come before the President for approval or disapproval, and it is of the utmost importance not merely that he should be subject to no private bias in favor of the promoters of such enterprises, but that he should not be open to any suspicion of such bias. The general sympathy with him in his present critical condition should not blind us to the fact that his acts will hereafter be criticised with all the fierceness and ingenuity that party spirit can supply, and that the acceptance of money by his wife at the hands of men who are knocking every year at the doors of Congress for favors will be a handle for his enemies which they will not neglect to use. Human nature being what it is, no matter how high the reputation of a President for integrity may be, it is impossible to prove to the satisfaction of one who doubts it that his signature or veto of a bill is unaffected by the recollection of a pecuniary benefit derived from its promoters; and it is this impossibility which made all the Presidents who had occupied the White House down to General Grant's time so sensitive on the subject of gifts. It is safe to say that the admirers and well-wishers of the President will do well to proceed very cautiously in the matter. While they can afford to disregard all criticism of their own motives in starting the subscription, they certainly cannot afford to disregard the criticisms to which the scheme, if carried out, is sure to subject the President. If he recovers, the necessity and duty of making a pecuniary provision for his family will not seem so obvious as it did when he appeared to be lying at the point of death, and the objections to such a provision by means of a fund such as is now proposed will seem every day more clear and distinct. It would be a very serious embarrassment to him.

END OF THE BI-METALLIC CONFERENCE.

THE Paris Monetary Conference has adjourned *sine die*. So far as accounts have yet reached us it came to no resolution even upon points of abstract doctrine, and was therefore more inconclusive than the Conference of 1878. The latter resolved that bi-metallism was a question for each nation or group of nations to decide for itself, according to its own circumstances. This formula was presented to the Convention by M. Léon Say on behalf of France, and it received the votes of all the countries represented except those of the United States. Two years signalized by bad harvests and the ravages of the phylloxera have caused a heavy drain of gold from France, and left her national bank with a glacier of silver growing on her hands, which had reached, at the latest returns, the sum of twelve hundred and forty millions of francs. The metallic reserve of the bank, which was two-thirds gold and one-third silver in 1878, is now one-third gold and two-thirds silver. Ordinarily the Bank of France holds more gold than the Bank of England and the Imperial Bank of Germany together. It now holds less than either. This important and threatening change has brought with it, if not a change of views on the part of French statesmen, an earnest desire to secure foreign help in dealing with the silver problem. To this is to be attributed the leading part taken by that country in calling the Conference of the present year.

The position of the United States as a holder of gold is much stronger than it was two years ago. If not the strongest of all nations in this regard, we are not much behind Great Britain, and our prospects are favorable for still further gains. We have nothing to fear from the course of international trade. The only danger confronting us arises from our own action in coining great quantities of silver which we do not want and cannot use. We joined France in calling the new Conference simply because we had "put our foot in it" two years ago, and were not willing even yet to acknowledge that we had committed a blunder. Our representation in the Conference had much political and sentimental significance, but no financial aspect, except perhaps that, as we are a silver-producing country, we desire to sell our product at the best possible price. This latter phase of our situation has been somewhat exaggerated abroad. Although silver-mining is one of our national industries, it is not sufficiently important to account for our interest in bi-metallism. A few years ago, when we were in some business perplexity, we were seized with a rage for "cheap money" and made fools of ourselves in a rather conspicuous manner, and we are not willing to confess our error. We would rather pay two million dollars a month than do so.

It is very clear that England and Germany accepted the invitation to the Conference only to avoid the appearance of churlishness. Both governments caused it to be understood at the outset that they would not change their monetary standard, and that they would not send representatives if their presence should be understood as holding out any false hopes in that behalf. They were, however, willing to do some things and abstain from doing other things in the interest of silver—in a friendly way and as a matter of good-neighborhood. The minor governments and the non-specie-paying countries were present rather as spectators than as active participants. Virtually the Conference consisted of France and the United States, the former having a real and the latter an imaginary interest in the question under consideration.

Nothing was accomplished by the sittings, except, perhaps, further to convince people of the futility of attempts to impart by joint resolution a higher value to substances than they actually possess. The Conference never reached the crucial difficulty of fixing a ratio for the universal coinage of the two metals. France with her ratio of 15½, and the United States with their ratio of 16, never confronted each other on that issue, and never confronted the fact that the real ratio between silver and gold is 18 to 1, or thereabouts. The nearest approach to the consideration of this question is embodied in a paragraph of the joint declaration of the French and American delegates that any ratio now or lately in use by any commercial nation, if adopted by "an important group of states," could be maintained, and that the ratio of 15½ would produce less disturbance in existing monetary systems than any other. This postulate a large and probably controlling portion of the civilized world deny *in toto*, and contend that no group of states, by mere governmental action, can make gold, silver, tin, or iron worth one cent more or less than it is worth.

The declaration of the French and American delegates, which is the sole net product of the Conference, sets forth in its first paragraph that "the depreciation and great fluctuations in the value of silver relatively to gold, which of late years have shown themselves and which continue to exist, have been and are injurious to commerce and general prosperity, and the

establishment and maintenance of a fixed relation of value between silver and gold would produce the most important benefits to the commerce of the world." This statement also is denied by most economists and is controverted by the experience of the greater portion of mankind. Taking our own experience as a test, what is there at the present time to indicate that commerce is injured or general prosperity impaired either by the fluctuations of silver or by any other known or unknown agency? All the commercial journals and commercial bodies testify that business is active and prosperous. All the immigrants from foreign countries find speedy and remunerative employment. One of our large corporations has been advertising lately for ten thousand laborers in Great Britain. It is evident that we must seek elsewhere for evidence to support the statement that commerce is in trouble by reason of the fluctuations in silver. What is true here is true also in Great Britain. The mischief exists only where silver is held in large quantities, and even in those countries it is not found universally. Late accounts from India report that the country is prosperous as compared with her condition during several preceding years. A good wheat and wine harvest would put France in a condition of renewed prosperity—if a country which is investing millions of dollars in Panama canals and other foreign enterprises can be said to be otherwise than prosperous.

The undertaking of the Bi-metallic Conference was purely quixotic, and it has ended as such undertakings usually do, with a flavor of ridicule cast upon the chief actors. Assembled together to relieve a suffering world, the world has been stolidly indifferent to its proceedings from the start, and now reads without a pang that nothing has been done. The declaration that commerce is depressed and prosperity is retarded for the want of bi-metallism must be taken as the apology of the delegates for coming together at all. A useful lesson has been imparted to this country, however, if we can humble ourselves sufficiently to take it in. This is the third effort and failure on our part to persuade the world to follow our example in the matter of coining silver—not of using it, for we do not do that, but of stamping it and hiding it away in underground receptacles for our own future perplexity. We have paid two million dollars per month for this diversion for about four years, latterly in the hope that other nations would join us and share the expense. That hope is now utterly dashed, for although the Conference makes the suggestion that something may be done next year, it is evident that the failure resulted from the nature of things and not from adventitious circumstances peculiar to the present year. Mr. Cernuschi cannot be more enthusiastic, or Mr. Horton more discursive, or Mr. Evarts more metaphysical and ornate in 1882 than now, while there is every reason to believe that England will be as unfeeling and Germany as disobliging next year as ever. Our future course as to silver must be taken with reference to our own conditions exclusively.

AN OPPORTUNITY FOR ANGLOMANIACS.

THE rumor that Mr. Oscar Wylde, the London Æsthete, is coming over here to lecture this autumn lends a new interest to the teachings and tendency of the remarkable school to which he belongs. *Punch* is not so generally read in this country that there is a wide familiarity in the United States with either Postlethwaite, Maudle, or Mr. Wylde himself; but there will be a considerable amount of curiosity as to the lecturer as well as to the subject which he will lecture upon. Anglomania has made rapid strides in "society" in the United States within the last few years; but our Anglomaniacs have thus far not been of the æsthete school. Their ingenuity has been chiefly devoted to the imitation in the New World of a number of English sports, and the development of an easy freedom in manners and conversation such as used to be considered peculiarly un-American. Like other reformers, they have exposed themselves to a great deal of ridicule, for in certain portions of their work they have allowed their zeal to outrun their discretion.

In the importation of sports, for example, they have neglected to observe certain differences of circumstances, customs, and social conditions between the two countries which, as innovators having social progress at heart, they should have studied more carefully. The attempt to introduce coaching here, for instance, though it cannot but have the approval of all who desire that the rapidly increasing rich and idle class should have harmless occupations provided for them whenever that is possible, has broken down, owing to the general absence of good roads. This difficulty was by far-sighted social observers foreseen, and it is a nearly insurmountable obstacle. An occasional "parade" and one irregularly sustained coach-route are the principal features of amateur coaching as exhibited in this city, and in contrast with London coaching it can hardly be called more than a sham sport as yet. Of fox-hunting, whether pursued with the aid of the anise-seed bag or even with prepared live foxes, the same must candidly be said. Long Island, where the sport is most actively pursued, is found to be an extremely "difficult country" to hunt, in more senses than one. Fox-hunting is based, of course, upon the right to trespass, which in England immemorial custom and the national love of the sport have created. But on Long Island there has been no such custom and no such love, and the dread of the pitchfork, the weapon which the Long Island farmer is known to resort to against mounted trespassers, introduces a novel element into the sport which robs it of a great part of its charm. The occasional introduction of "hunt-balls" and hunting costumes has not thus far relieved the sport of its air of "unveracity" in our atmosphere.

It is really in dress that the Anglomaniacs have had their greatest success; for as the anatomical structure of the American man is very similar to that of his English congener, and the necessity of wearing clothes is equally recognized in both countries, there is no reason why the manner and fashion in dress prevalent in England should not be generally introduced here, as, in fact, to a great extent it has been. The reformatory movement of the æsthetes, however, is of a very different character and purpose from any which Anglomania has had to work upon hitherto. The attempt to introduce English sports and English clothes and manners have been attempts to introduce real things. The æsthete, however, is even in England an unreality. His object, as far as it can be understood and intelligibly expressed, is to substitute an internal standard of taste for all the external standards of life and conduct now generally in vogue. An æsthete is a person who pretends to derive the same moral satisfaction from a certain pattern or color in china that other people do from the contemplation of an heroic or virtuous action; who declines to have his hair cut by a barber because it is "part of himself"; with whom an ill-assorted marriage does not mean incompatibility of temper, but of complexion, and who orders a restaurant waiter to bring him, not roast-beef and potatoes, but the all-satisfying lily.

It is needless to say that this fantastic view of life is the product of a highly artificial condition of society; it is, in fact, so incredibly absurd that it is difficult to know whether it is a genuine natural growth, or whether it is not in great part a product of the very caricatures which seemed to satirize it. It is as far removed from the sphere of American life and manners as the *Macaroni* or *Merveilleuses* of the last century would be. A leading æsthete on the lecture platform in Chicago or Omaha would probably seem to the rationalistic Western mind a *lusus naturæ*. Whether he would at first, as has happened in the case of so many other reforms, be mobbed, no one can say. As a reformer he cannot but desire it, and the only way to find out is to make the experiment. While it will undoubtedly prove difficult to naturalize the principles of the æsthete here, Anglomaniacs ought not to neglect the new opportunity which is afforded them. In the case of fox-hunting and coaching the difficulties have been mainly external. The æsthetes, of course, have psychological obstacles to overcome. This type is absolutely unknown in this country, and the type cannot be produced without a previous diffusion of the principles of thought and feeling out of which it grows. If Mr. Wylde succeeds in developing an Anglomania of a new order—a mock æstheticism of the Postlethwaite and Maudle kind—he will put to the blush even the veteran Anglomaniacs who have been wasting their time in attempts to naturalize fox-hunting and coaching.

GAMBETTA'S CHECK.

PARIS, June 24, 1881.

THE rejection by the French Senate of the new electoral bill, passed by the Chamber of Deputies, is an event of unusual importance. This bill embodied the principle of what we call the *scrutin de liste*—that is to say, in the system advocated by the Chamber of Deputies each elector had to vote for all the deputies of his department, he had to make or choose a ticket of several names (five or six on the average); while under the present system he votes only for the deputy of the arrondissement (the arrondissement is a section of the department) in which he lives. It is clear that the *scrutin de liste* gives more importance to the wire-pullers, to the politicians who reside in the principal city of the department, and indirectly to the politicians of Paris who are in correspondence with them; while the *scrutin d'arrondissement* gives more importance to local influences. You must never lose sight of the fact that the peasants are by far the most numerous class of electors in France; they are the real motive power in the machinery of universal suffrage. It is always easy to foresee in what direction the efforts of the work-

ingmen of the cities will go; it is not so easy to prophesy what will be the vote of the peasantry. The peasants hold no meetings; they live on the soil; their instincts are deep and mysterious; they seem to be the instruments of an unknown fatality. In 1848 they voted as one man for Prince Louis Napoleon, when everybody expected that they would vote for General Cavaignac; in 1871 they elected a Chamber full of Monarchists, though the Republic had been proclaimed in Paris.

When the peasant has only one deputy to choose he is generally inclined to vote for the most important man of his district; his vote cannot be easily directed or controlled. When he has to make a ticket he votes in ignorance; he sees a name he likes on the list, and he gives the accompanying names the benefit of his indifference or his doubts. Some *big* name in each department acts like the little steamer which, on a river, drags a long series of heavy boats. Each party has a certain number of such steam-tugs, who are expected to transport a large fleet of heavy nullities. The present Chamber was elected under the system of the *scrutin d'arrondissement*, but in very peculiar circumstances. There was no hesitation, no choice, so to speak, for the Republican electors, after the dissolution of May 16. A compact was made in virtue of which the three hundred and sixty-three deputies who formed the majority of the Chamber dismissed by Marshal MacMahon were made the only candidates of the Republican party. As soon as M. Grévy became President of the Republic Gambetta was elected Speaker of the Chamber of Deputies, and he has had complete sway over it during the last few years. His influence, in fact, was so great that he became a sort of new power in the State; he could make and unmake cabinets, the ministers seemed to be his ministers, the administration was his administration. The President of the Republic presided over the Cabinet meetings, but Gambetta sat invisible beside him. It is strange that in such a state of things M. Gambetta should have been moved with a desire to alter the electoral law. Did he find the present Chamber too subservient, too mediocre, too incapable of originating great measures? He certainly cannot complain of the Chamber being unmanageable; he had but to speak and he was obeyed. Perhaps he thought that many of the men who had been elected in virtue of the compact of the 16th of May would not be returned; he feared a Chamber elected under purely local influences, without any crystallizing influence. His enemies say that he urged the "general ticket" because he himself could make it for all the departments, and so become a sort of Great Elector. His flatterers told him that his name at the head of any departmental ticket would guarantee the success of the whole ticket.

In the debates which took place in the Senate it was distinctly asserted that the new electoral law would give to an ambitious leader the means of making a sort of plébiscite. The Republican Senators asked themselves what would be the position of the President of the Republic if Gambetta were elected in thirty, in forty departments, and came back to the new Chamber surrounded by a court of deputies the greater part of whom would have owed their election to him. These fears may have been exaggerated. There is such a natural inclination in France towards a personal government that it would have been difficult for the most modest of men not to be somewhat carried away by the popularity which attended the President of the Chamber of Deputies. His name was in everybody's mouth; his words were sent by the electric wire to every corner of the world. The reporters lived in his ante-rooms, waiting anxiously for the alms of some communication. Kings and princes were almost as anxious to see him. The Greek question arose from a few words which he exchanged at breakfast with King George. "Comment en un plomb vil l'or pur s'est-il changé?" How is it that in a few days all this has been changed? The journey to Cahors was the turning-point. Gambetta made a visit to his native town, less in the character of a private citizen than of the representative of a state. All the authorities came to salute him; the Minister of War ordered that two sentries should remain at the door of his hotel; the school-girls, dressed in white, came to offer him bouquets of flowers. There was a time when Gambetta would have laughed with his friends at such demonstrations; he may have done what he could to prevent them, but it is difficult, in an old centralized country where the ministers have an immense patronage, to prevent the outburst of calculated enthusiasm which begins with a cheer and ends with a petition. Gambetta thought that he had really made for himself a place in the hearts of the people. His southern nature does not abhor noisy demonstrations; he is not a puritan, and his sensational and emotional eloquence has finally alarmed the puritans of the Republican party—I mean men of the Laboulaye type, who would like the French Republic to resemble the American Republic, and to have as little resemblance as possible to the Directory and the Consulate of Napoleon.

The rejection of the new electoral law and of the *scrutin de liste* is a blow aimed directly at Gambetta; nobody denies it and everybody sees it. After the rejection of the *scrutin de liste* the friends of Gambetta proposed that the present Chamber should immediately cease its functions and that new elections should take place. The powers of the Chamber expire this year, and a general election must naturally take place in the autumn. The Chamber did not accept the proposition of an immediate dissolution, and decided by an immense majority that the elections should only take place at the natural end of the session. This was a new blow for Gambetta; he had not the Senate with him, and now his majority in the Chamber of Deputies abandoned him. This majority had voted for the general ticket only with much reluctance. The President of the Chamber had been obliged himself to canvass for this measure; he made many promises, he used his influence with many members individually. The revolt of the Senate gave heart to the most timid, and now Gambetta, though he remains in the chair, cannot be said to command any majority in the Chamber which has followed him so long and cheered him so often.

There never was a more striking illustration of the famous verse,

"La roche Tarpéienne est près du Capitole";

the changing character of popularity was, perhaps, never better illustrated. Gambetta will now be obliged, at the general election, to do like all the other deputies: he will have to choose an arrondissement—he has already chosen it. He has said that, whatever offers are made to him, he will remain faithful to his faithful Belleville; he has already gone there, and has visited a school and sat at a small banquet. He will certainly be re-elected, though the Radicals of Paris are making constant war upon him. Rochefort has undertaken to ruin him in the eyes of the people; he will never forgive Gambetta the publication of a letter which he wrote after the Commune when he appeared before a council of war. How this letter, left with Rochefort's lawyer and addressed to M. Thiers, came into the hands of Gambetta, remains a mystery; but it appeared some time ago in the *République Française*, and Rochefort has declared war to the knife on Gambetta. The editor of the famous *Lanterne* seems to have now but a small following; still, he may be considered a dangerous adversary, as he uses that terrible arm of irony which often becomes fatal in France. He ridicules every day the President of the Chamber, and it is said that in France "le ridicule tue."

Gambetta, however, has great resources: his popularity with the most military part of the nation is still untouched; he is still considered by many as the personification of the national defence and of the future revenge; he has created the word "opportunism," which is a programme in itself, as it is the absence of any programme. Opportunism can bide its time, it can lie low, it can wait for better times, for a happy occasion; it is a sort of force in reserve, an accumulator of political strength. Those who consider the rôle of Gambetta as almost finished underrate too much his great elasticity of mind, his recuperative powers, the persistence of his views, hidden under a constant flow of easy eloquence. At any rate, his rôle must now become a little different from what it has been during the past four years. He is not yet an enemy of M. Grévy, but, in the eyes of M. Grévy's supporters, he is getting to be a rival.

ENGLAND'S OBLIGATIONS UNDER THE TURKISH CONVENTION.

LONDON, June 30, 1881.

IT is a curious instance of the rapid oscillations of public interest in this country, and of the way in which Irish affairs have recently excluded all others, that during the six months of the present session we have had but one regular debate on the Eastern Question, which three years ago was almost the only subject people or Parliament talked about. Of course, if the difficulties of that question had passed away, and the sky were now free from clouds, it would be natural enough that nothing should be said about it. But the state of Turkey shows no signs of improvement. The Asiatic provinces, and especially Armenia; the European provinces, and especially Macedonia, are in a condition of permanent anarchy. None of the promised reforms have been carried out, or even begun; brigands, savage tribes, corrupt officials have it all their own way everywhere. In Constantinople itself, the emptiness of the public treasury and the dangers thence arising; the complaints of the army, which has received no pay for many months; the disorganization of the civil service, become constantly more serious. Such evils must, before long, result in the fall of the Turkish Empire; though whether that catastrophe will be brought about by an insurrection within or by the action of some of the neighboring Powers, it is at present impossible to predict. Such being the state of things, it is plain that England, both as being one of the Powers which signed the Treaty of Berlin and from the general interest which she has for the last century taken in the affairs of the East, will certainly be called upon, and probably at no distant date, to interpose; and it might, therefore, have been ex-

pected that she should keep a watchful eye on the progress of events, so as not to be taken by surprise when a crisis arrives. However, for the moment it is impossible to draw public attention to these matters; the Government might do almost what it pleased, might even withdraw altogether from diplomatic action in the East, without having anything worse to fear than the criticisms of a few political quidnuncs in Parliament and a stray journalist or two.

Under these circumstances the debate which took place in the House of Commons on Friday, the 24th, was a comparatively languid one, although the issues involved were of the highest moment. Some of your readers may remember that in June, 1878, just before the conclusion of the Treaty of Berlin, Lord Beaconsfield's Government (which was then in power) entered into a secret agreement with the Sultan, by which they bound England to defend his whole Asiatic dominion by force of arms in case it should be attacked by any foreign power. By the same instrument the Sultan assigned the island of Cyprus to England, to enable her the better to fulfil her engagement to defend his territories, and also undertook to introduce reforms in the administration of those Asiatic provinces. This was, of course, an engagement of a very bold and large character, involving for England the liability of protecting an immense frontier which it was easy for Russia to invade and very difficult for England, with her small army, to guard. The Liberal party, accordingly, at once protested against it, and Mr. Gladstone in particular denounced it with the utmost vehemence as "an insane covenant." He was then, however, in a minority in Parliament, so the Anglo-Turkish Convention, as it has since been usually called, was approved by the legislature. Even without such approval it would have been binding upon us, for by the constitution of England the sovereign still retains the power of concluding engagements with foreign states by her own sole authority. When the Liberals came into office they could not venture to repudiate this Convention, much as they professed to dislike it, and as a matter of *law* it is unquestionably binding upon us at this moment, although no action has been taken under it, except, of course, the handing over to us of Cyprus and its administration by Englishmen. The Sultan has not introduced any reforms into his Asiatic provinces, and the contingency of their being invaded by Russia has not yet occurred. But questions of much difficulty have arisen as to the true meaning and effect of the Convention. Is the English guaranty of the Sultan's frontier to be taken as conditional on his introducing the stipulated reforms, and, if so, within what time ought he to execute those reforms in order to entitle England to avail herself of their non-execution as a ground for retiring from her engagement? Moreover, since the occupation of Cyprus was granted to her for the purposes of the guaranty, is she not bound, if she withdraws from that guaranty, to withdraw from Cyprus also, and to hand it back to the Sultan? She would find it hard to recover from him any compensation for the improvements she has effected on the island; and, indeed, the idea of restoring it to Turkish rule, after having given the people a taste of better things, is treated here as quite inadmissible. Besides, although the Turks have, by their conduct during the last three years, shown that there is no chance of their making any reforms, it is always an unpleasant thing, even when you have a technically sufficient ground, to repudiate a formal international engagement.

The object of the motion made in the House of Commons was to elicit from the Government some declaration of their intentions. It was easy for the mover, himself a Liberal of the Manchester school, to show the perplexities in which the Convention has involved us, and the extreme difficulty of fulfilling it. The representatives of the Opposition could not suggest any solution, although they endeavored to defend their conduct in concluding the Convention by pointing to the helplessness in which Turkey lay at the end of the Russian war. The Government repeated their original condemnation of the agreement, but declined to say what they would do if required to carry it out, hoping, no doubt, that the case would not arise, and that the progress of events would ultimately make it a dead letter. They stated that no communications had taken place respecting it with the Turkish Government since it was originally concluded; but they would not say that they either considered it already abrogated or that they would give notice to the Turks that they withdrew from it. It was pointed out, however, that there was one contingency under which the question might soon take a practical form. The condition of Armenia has been growing steadily worse. The famine which has been desolating that country during two years past has reduced the inhabitants to unparalleled misery. The outrages of the Kurdish robber tribes continue, and there is too much reason to think that the Turkish Government has used both the famine and the Kurds as means towards the extermination of the Christian inhabitants of the country, hoping that when oppression has further reduced their numbers their complaints will cease to be heard and the Armenian question disappear with the Armenians. In such a state of things an insurrection might naturally be expected, especially as there is a large Armenian population in the Asiatic provinces of Russia which sympathizes with its co-religionists under Turkish rule and would supply them with arms and leaders. An insurrection would probably be followed by massacres similar to those of 1876 in Bulgaria; and, as in the case of Bulgaria, the entrance of Russian troops might follow. Thus the case contemplated by the Anglo-Turkish Convention would arise. Russia would have invaded Asiatic Turkey, and England would have been forced either to recede from the terms of the Convention or else to resist Russia in a cause which the judgment and moral feeling of the people of England would condemn—not to say that the acquisition by Russia of fresh territories in Asia would re-awaken our old jealousy and alarms at the progress of that Power.

In reply to the appeals addressed to him on this point, Mr. Gladstone stated in a very emphatic manner that he regarded the Armenian question as one of the utmost importance, and that Lord Dufferin, who has now gone to Constantinople as English ambassador, has been instructed to press upon the Porte the duty of carrying out with the least possible delay the reforms in Armenia stipulated for by the sixty-first article of the Treaty of Berlin. I have thought it worth while to refer specially to this point, because many of your readers must be interested in the welfare of a country which has owed almost all such progress as it has made of late years to the exertions of American missionaries. They have not only formed a Protestant Armenian Church, which numbers some forty thousand members, but have promoted in many ways the intellectual development of its people, establishing schools, and introducing among them the civilization and ideas of the West. It will be sad if the results of such efforts should be lost, but the prospect at present is far from cheering. England is the only European power which really cares for the Asiatic subjects of Turkey, and her regard for them is more of a philanthropic character than due to any definite material interest which she has in those regions. Germany, Austria, and France look upon Asia Minor and Armenia with distant indifference. Russia probably expects that the dissolution of the Turkish Empire will at some time or other throw them, or a large part of them, into her hands, and is, therefore, not much concerned to retard that dissolution or to remove the justifications for her own advance. However, it is something to know that the present English Government considers itself bound to urge on the action of the other Powers for the benefit of the Christians of the East, and this is the phase of the perpetual Eastern Question which will probably engage the European diplomatists at Constantinople for the next few months. Y.

THE NEW RÉGIME IN EGYPT.

CAIRO, June 2, 1881.

A COUNTERPART of the form of government which the Egypt of to-day offers to the political observer is, I believe, nowhere to be met with in ancient or modern history. To that autocratic foreign rule—the rule of the Ptolemies, Arab Khalifs, Mamelukes, and Turkish Pashas—to which the fellah has been so irrevocably moulded, there has succeeded a nicely-adjusted, delicately-balanced machinery, the component parts of which are solely kept together by strong external pressure. This mechanism has been in operation for over two years, not long enough to furnish a thorough test, but still sufficient to permit conclusions to be drawn as to its immediate utility.

It is a notorious fact that the deposition of the ex-Khedive was directly brought about, not by England nor France, but by Germany, who interfered on the technical ground that her rights, established by the treaty creating the international tribunal, had been trespassed upon. Why Germany should have taken this step, which was at the time a complete surprise both for London and Paris, has never yet been explained. Her action may have arisen from Prince Bismarck's desire to egg on France to assume fresh Oriental responsibilities, an instance of which may to-day be seen in the occupation of Tunis, which in the event of a European war must neutralize at least two *corps d'armée* of the military strength of France. The fall of Ismaïl Pasha made European intervention a necessity. England was reluctant to act at all; yet she could not allow any other Power to assume a forcible solution of the Egyptian question. France, by threatening to act alone, compelled England to join her. Austria and Italy were only too eager to increase their powers already obtained by the treaty establishing the international tribunals. Hence England and France were pressed into an alliance to exclude the interference of other European Powers in Egyptian affairs. The outcome of this alliance is the present triumvirate, composed of the Khedive, the Council of Ministers, and the English and French Controllers. Besides their important administrative functions, the powers of the Controllers are very much the same as those which in England are wielded by

the House of Commons and by the public press. No measure of any importance can be passed until the Controllers have expressed their opinion upon it. They can recommend for appointment any person they please; they can suggest the creation of any office that seems to them useful; they can press for the dismissal of any official or the abolition of any post. Ministers and all public officials of every rank are bound to furnish the Controllers with all documents the latter think fit to require. The Minister of Finance is bound to furnish them weekly with a statement of receipts and expenditure. Other administrations must furnish the same every month. The Controllers can only be removed from their posts by their own Governments, but Egypt has the privilege of paying their salaries. Greater power could hardly have been devised short of military occupation.

The Anglo-French protectorate requires for its successful working a perfect accord of persons as well as of principles. M. de Blignières and Mr. Colvin—the French and English Controllers—have always been able to compromise any differences of opinion, and to act together as one man. Mr. Colvin and the British consul-general also pull well together, but this is not the case with M. de Blignières and the French consul-general. During the past two years France has been represented in Egypt by no less than five consuls-general, and yet both M. Waddington and M. Barthélemy-St.-Hilaire have steadily maintained the Anglo-French alliance and the Control system. The difficulty has been caused by the excessive *individuality* of the French representatives. They have been all able men; but, influenced by Chauvinism, they have each striven to identify themselves with French predominance, and hence have produced temporary confusion only remedied by their recall.

Under the Control system Egyptian finance has been put on a tolerably sure footing. The bondholders feel sure of their coupons, and the price of the stock makes them equally sure of their capital. The land tax in the old days was paid at odd times, whenever the Government wanted money, and the fellaheen had no security that they would not have to pay just as often as they were known to have any money. Now the fellah pays his tax, and no more than his tax, by monthly instalments, the amount of which is regulated by the importance and season of the crops. Formerly the tax-gatherers were paid merely nominal salaries, which had to be made up by a percentage on the collection. They are now paid adequately and regularly, and inspectors are appointed to check error and fraud. The collection of taxes in kind has been abolished, and greater facility is given for the legal recovery of the arrears of taxation.

The public debt of Egypt amounts to-day to $450,000,000. The revenue of Egypt is barely $42,500,000, and out of this $20,000,000 has to be paid away to the creditors, and $3,500,000 goes to the Sultan. Thus a comparatively small sum is left for other purposes. Nevertheless, Egypt seems to prosper in spite of her heavy burdens, and last year she not only paid what she was bound to pay, but she also paid $1,500,000 in *amortissement*. The improved credit has caused universal hopefulness as to the future of Egypt. Capital is pouring into the country; and a great number of companies for sugar-refining, irrigation, land-cultivation, jute-growing, and building purposes have been established. The money rate of interest has fallen from 12 per cent. to about 5 per cent., and land which sold three years ago for $50 per acre is now sought in vain for $150. During three years the value of the unified-debt bonds alone has increased by $75,000,000; and during the year 1880 the value of the consolidated-debt bonds rose from $330,000,000 to $400,000,000.

The fiscal and financial reforms have been most thoroughly and energetically carried out, but beyond this very little has been accomplished. Commissions have been appointed to introduce reforms in the departments of War and Public Instruction. The ex-Khedive left behind him in Egypt an army of nearly 100,000 men. Under the new régime this force was reduced to about 6,000 men; but provision for the supernumerary officers, who consider that they have a vested right to receive bed and board from the Government, still continues to be a serious embarrassment for the authorities. The only present use for an Egyptian army is to create internal commotions and émeutes. The men are of fine physique, well behaved, and uncomplaining. The men from Nubia and the Sudan are warlike, but the pure Egyptians have all the elements of good soldiers *except personal courage*. The experience of the past six thousand years seems to have conclusively proved that the Egyptians are utterly incapable of self-government. They have been successively ruled by Persians, Greeks, Romans, Arabs, and Turks; and if during the present summer any "national feeling" or "constitutional party" raises its head, with or without the aid of the discontented discharged officers, your readers may feel assured that such a state of affairs is a mere phantasmagoria, created by the wire-pulling of some unspeakable Turk or intriguing European.

The educational department in Egypt has suffered more on account of the financial disorder from which we are now emerging than has any other branch of the public service. Public instruction in Egypt has an importance which can scarcely be overrated, for the administration and judicial reforms already instituted must depend for their ultimate success upon the public schools of the land. Egypt, in proportion to her annual expenses, allows less money to public instruction than does any European country except Turkey and Greece. After deducting the amount yearly set apart for the payment of the public debt, Egypt, for every 1,000 francs of the general expenses of the state, only spends 15 francs for purposes of education, while the United States spends 257 francs. Only $400,000 is allowed for public instruction, while nearly $2,000,000 is allowed to the War Department. The number of schools in Egypt is 5,370. If the native population be reckoned at 5,500,000, the result is that there is only one school for 1,000 inhabitants. The total number of pupils is supposed to be 137,553—that is, an average of 25 for each school, or 1 pupil for 40 inhabitants. If the number of male children of school-going age be reckoned at 334,000, it will be seen that 41 per cent. receive some rudiments of instruction, while 59 per cent. are totally deprived of any instruction whatever. It should, however, be remembered that of these 137,500 pupils only 4,000 receive such instruction as is imparted by the primary schools in the United States, and the remainder frequent schools which were established by the Fatemite khalifs, and whose condition has remained unchanged ever since. Verses of the Koran are learnt by heart, and there the instruction ends. A permanent *Conseil Supérieur de l'Instruction Publique* has, however, been established (upon which, by the way, are two Americans), and reforms of a serious nature are about to be undertaken.

The International Commission for Judicial Reform has not been able to accomplish much of anything, owing to the Chauvinism of the ex-consul-general of France, whose strong individuality prevented the proper working of the Control System and threw its nicely-adjusted machinery out of gear. The commission began their sittings last December. They have now adjourned for the summer vacation, and will commence work again in November. There are also two United States representatives upon this Commission—Mr. Consul-General Farman and Mr. Batcheller, Judge of the Egyptian Tribunal of First Instance. The English representatives are striving to introduce, as far as possible, into Egypt the principles of the commercial law of England. The existing system is slavishly copied from the French and Italian codes. The commercial law of the United States and England is the best that the world has produced, and yet the Egyptian courts only know a code compiled in France many years ago, and admitted by French critics themselves to be open to the charge of over-rigidity. England's demand is, to say the least, reasonable, for the majority of cases tried are of a commercial nature, and of the total commerce of Egypt over sixty-one per cent. is with England. Efforts have also been made to establish English as one of the official languages of the tribunals; at present the pleadings, language spoken, and documentary evidence must be in Arabic, French, or Italian.

To sum up, the Dual Control System has worked better than was at first anticipated. All reform necessarily begins with the finances, and this part of the programme has already been brought to a most happy conclusion. Whether equal success shall crown the efforts of the Controllers in other and more difficult tasks, time alone can determine. Under the "pasha system" the best-intentioned labors of individuals were utterly unavailing. The lamentable and ludicrous failure of some forty American officers to "regenerate" Egypt and develop her resources is conspicuously shown by a book recently published by Colonel Dye, who was himself a prominent member of that quixotic band. Things are now otherwise. The real power of the Egyptian Government is no longer with the Khedive nor his ministers, but is with the Controllers, just as the real power of the British Government is with the House of Commons. The "pasha system" is reduced to a minimum; and, in spite of some errors of judgment and misapprehension of facts on the part of the Controllers, I believe that Egypt is better governed to-day than she ever has been since the days of the Pharaohs. Turkish rule has been replaced by European rule as represented by the Control System; but should this Control System break down, international jealousy would leave no alternative but a relapse to the Turkish pashas. Our representatives in Egypt need to be reminded that *any* European rule is better than the best Turkish rule. Our interests in Egypt are at present purely sentimental ones, but as far as they go they coincide with the interests of England—that is, we wish to see our language and our system of law prevail as against those of Latin countries. No matter what the personal prejudices of our representatives in Egypt may be—be those representatives Greek or Ottoman subjects, as at present, or otherwise—they should bear in mind that the true interest of the United States is to *help* rather than *oppose* England

in Egyptian affairs; and that if any European Power is to predominate in the Nile valley it is on the whole better for the United States that that Power should be England rather than France, and either or both rather than the Turkish pashas.

To descend from the regions of *la haute politique*, it may interest many of your readers to learn that M. Maspero, the new Director of the Boulak Museum, leaves by the same steamer which carries this letter for France, where he will publish the texts of the five recently-opened pyramids of the Fifth and Sixth dynasties. M. Maspero tells me that these texts will "revolutionize" many preconceived ideas on the ancient Egyptian religion. By means of pyramids opened last April at Saccara, M. Maspero has found that not only pyramids, but groups of pyramids, in the vast fields of Saccara, Dashur, and Ghizeh, are placed at certain mathematically determined relative positions and distances apart. The pyramid fields represent a vast historical map of Egypt chronologically arranged. This symmetrical arrangement enables the student at once to determine the dynasty of any pyramid as soon as its position be known, and to determine its position if its dynasty be known. This latter is of great importance, for it is often impossible to distinguish some of the older pyramids from mere mastaba, or from natural irregularities or undulations of the desert. If M. Maspero wishes to find *n* pyramid of *n* dynasty, he has only to take a donkey ride with a prismatic compass and the key to the "system" which has been disclosed by the newly opened pyramids. Next winter will probably mark an epoch in Egyptology, for M. Maspero intends to open as quickly as possible all the pyramids at Saccara—some sixty in number—and publish their texts. It is to be hoped that he will come across some pyramid that has not been already opened by the monks of the Roman period or by the Bedouin robbers. All the pyramids hitherto opened in Egypt had been previously ransacked by these ruthless destroyers.

Correspondence.

THE CRIME AGAINST THE PRESIDENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In last week's *Nation* it was mentioned without comment that special legislation, looking towards the better protection of the life of the President, had been proposed; since then Mr. Conkling has written a letter calling the attention of the Attorney-General to the subject. The amendment to the "Criminal Code," as Mr. Conkling suggests, is virtually an amendment to our Constitution, and is, we apprehend, in opposition to its spirit and contrary to the fundamental principles of our Republic. Mr. Conkling mentions with dissatisfaction that "our Criminal Code treats premeditated homicide in all cases alike, irrespective of the victim." That this is true has been the great boast of the American nation; she alone of all the governments of the world has recognized as a self-evident truth "that all men are created equal," and has hitherto shown in theory and in practice that the life of the toiling peasant who lives in the humblest hut among her mountains is as well protected by her laws as that of the man who is great because of wealth, of high position, or of any other of the circumstances of life. This is what it is proposed to amend; and in order to do so a first principle must be destroyed!

The framers of our Constitution had before them the laws of other countries, making an attempt upon the life of the ruler treason, and consequently punishing it more severely than an attack upon a subject, and yet they refused to embody such a provision in our Constitution, and declare positively that "treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort." Madison, in adverting to this point, commends the Convention for inserting this definition of treason and for their limiting it, and recognizes the peculiar danger to our Government in having it in any wise extended. Nor can we suppose that by calling this crime something else than treason we shall thus escape doing violence to the Constitution.

Ideal Justice is represented as being blindfolded, so that in civil matters she may not see either the plaintiff or defendant, and in criminal prosecutions may know no difference between persons because of their position—even though the victim be a murdered President himself.

It seems to us, therefore, that this special legislation is objectionable because it is unconstitutional, because it ill accords with justice; and furthermore it is a dangerous precedent to establish, and will be, we can with tolerable safety say, of no practical value. This present proposal may be innocent enough, yet we know not to what ends ambition may use the principle upon which the law would be founded, nor where special legislation, the precedent once established, will stop. The years may be many before any ill effect is seen, but it is a step in the wrong direction, and followed by others we may find one day that in thus fortifying our chief Executive we have unwittingly

"——put a sting in him,
That at his will he may do danger with."

Special legislation would not accomplish the end desired, we think, and the "high executive officers" (Mr. Conkling uses the plural number) would be no safer with it than without it. When Dives wished a special messenger to be sent to his brethren he was told: "They have Moses and the prophets." When he again urged his plea he was answered: "If they hear not Moses and the prophets neither will they be persuaded though one rose from the dead." And so we can say that would-be assassins have the ordinary laws and the ordinary penalties; and if they fear not them neither will they fear though the laws of Russia be enacted in this land. An assassin is desperate and reckless, and takes his life in his hand when he goes to commit the deed. What does he care for the severity of penalties?

What, then, is necessary? *Let the cause be removed;* and in this Mr. Conkling can make himself useful without troubling himself to take up the rôle of legislator again. Let the fierce malignity of faction give place to a dignified and reasonable opposition, and weak-minded persons, admirers of his, will not be inspired to undertake the work of an assassin; and let our legislature turn their attention to remodelling the system of Government patronage, which otherwise may be as fruitful a source of danger to the Executive as it has hitherto been of impurity to politics.—I am your obedient servant, S. B. W.

Charlottesville, Va., July 8.

THE GIFT TO THE PRESIDENT'S WIFE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The last clause of Section ix. of Article I. of the Constitution of the United States provides that—

"No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States; and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title of any kind whatever from any king, prince, or foreign state."

Without examining the debates on this clause of the Constitution, it may be inferred that the fathers of the Republic, in the early days of its poverty and simplicity, desired to guard the officials of the nation from any form of bribery or corruption from wealthy foreign powers. The danger which now threatens the country is not from gifts from without, but gifts from within. The present of $250,000 which the wealthy citizens of New York proposed to raise for Mrs. Garfield was no doubt dictated by high motives of patriotism as a touching tribute of the sympathy felt by the persons who subscribed; but are our foremost citizens and soldiers such paupers that they have to live off of the overflowing coffers of the rich? If the President died it is reasonable to suppose that Congress would provide for his family by paying them his salary in full for the remainder of his official term, which would be a sum of money that would raise them far above want, and above many families moving in well-to-do circles of society, and could be received by them with eminent propriety.

The system of railroad corporations presenting members of Congress and members of State legislatures with passes is one of the simplest forms of corruption nowadays, for even such a gratuity enlists to a certain extent the good-will of the receiver. The recipient of any present, even as harmless and disinterested as a milch cow in time of sickness, must feel under certain obligations to the donor.

"Timeo Danaos et dona ferentes."

—Yours truly, Talbot J. Albert.

Baltimore, Md., July 11, 1881.

Notes.

Charles Scribner's Sons announce that Mr. Sidney Lanier will add to his juvenile series of the 'Boy's Froissart' and 'Boy's King Arthur' a Welsh companion to the latter volume—the 'Boy's Mabinogion.'——The thirteenth volume of Mrs. Oliphant's "Foreign Classics for English Readers," 'Madame de Sévigné,' by Miss Thackeray, is in the press of J. B. Lippincott & Co.——'Random Rambles,' by Louise Chandler Moulton (Boston: Roberts Brothers), is certainly, as a prefatory note declares, nothing "so formidable or so dignified as a book of travels," but is rather a series of newspaper letters of a light and gossipy character about different places and social experiences abroad. They make very agreeable "railway reading," and probably the author would agree with the critic who should question the necessity of giving them book-form for any loftier purpose.——'A Journal of a Farmer's Daughter' (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons) is precisely what would be expected of a prose work with this title by Miss Elaine Goodale. Incidents of farm-life are described with affectionate detail and a manner at times a little sentimental, but in the main in excellent taste. Of course, to give this sort of thing interest, experience of life in general, wide reading, and a distinct seasoning of humor are imperatively required; and what made the Goodale young ladies remarkable was not the

individual character of their qualities but the unusually early development of them. It seems possible now that they reached maturity at once.——Part 3 of Reiss and Stübel's 'Necropolis of Ancon in Peru' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) maintains the beauty and interest of the work in a great variety of elegant colored plates. The one landscape represents the curiously terraced and formerly cultivated hills to the south of Ancon, protecting the roadstead. There are sections of graves of many types; mummy bales unwrapped by degrees to the squatting body within; ornamented skulls and limbs—a ghastly array; charming specimens of painted cotton and other stuffs, also headgear with feathered ornaments of great delicacy; a sunken *chicha* vessel *in situ* (heart-shaped earthenware some five feet high); finally, a highly artistic vase, with an enlargement of the decoration on the belly to show the costumes of the Inca period. The figures resemble wrangling knaves of clubs from different packs, wearing helmets, ponchos, and pouches with straps, and carrying shields and lances.——We have received from Clark & Maynard a series of English "School Classics," edited abroad, and answering well by their cheap and handy form the purposes of flexible instruction. ——The next two numbers of the *Library Journal* will be mainly devoted to a bibliography of the pre-Columbian discovery of America, by P. B. Watson.——No. 10 of the Harvard "Bibliographical Contributions" is Mr. Justin Winsor's "Halliwelliana," largely but by no means exclusively a list of publications relating to Shakspere. ——The *American Architect* has undertaken the useful task of establishing an architectural intelligence office for draughtsmen and employers.—— The Supplement to Stratmann's 'Dictionary of the English Language of the 12th, 13th, 14th, and 15th Centuries,' 3d ed., is now obtainable of the author at 6, Karlsplatz, Krefeld, Germany, for 3*s.* 6*d.*——Nos. 3 and 4 of the current *L'Art de la Mode* (J. W. Bouton) are chiefly remarkable for the illustrated articles on French women artists and the Salon of 1881.

—With singular unanimity the reports of all our libraries for the year 1880 show a falling-off in circulation. Not one, so far as we can remember, can boast of an increase. Sometimes the loss is confined to fiction, as in the library of the Odd Fellows' Association at San Francisco; sometimes it is evenly distributed through all the classes, as at the Peabody Institute at Baltimore. Naturally the minds of librarians are exercised to account for the change, which with the present ideas about circulation is felt to be somewhat disappointing. Library committees had for years regarded with much complacency the steady increase in the number of their readers—a steadiness which seemed to show that the sudden leap taken by the lists of library card-holders in 1873 was not due merely to the panic; and now they cannot see the process reversed without regret, and some anxiety lest city governments which have been cutting down appropriations even below the limit at which efficiency is possible, because times were bad and the people could not afford a library, may cut them down still lower because times are good and the people do not need a library. For the main reason of the decline in circulation is undoubtedly that business has revived. To some their new work is too interesting to allow a thought for anything else; with others it takes up all the time which, when out of work, they tried to while away with reading; others are too tired after their day's work for anything but a newspaper. For it ought not to be forgotten (and yet it is continually overlooked by critics on the supply of books at public libraries) that, to those who are accustomed to study, the reading of very simple books demands serious effort and causes a mental strain to which they are not equal, or at any rate not prone, after ten or twelve hours' muscular exertion, or when subject to the effect of some of the less laborious but more harassing occupations. These are not the only causes of the decline in reading. Plenty of work gives more money to spend in other kinds of amusement; those who want to read buy their books in the Franklin Square, or the Seaside, or some other of the cheap collections, instead of waiting with problematical success till the work they want shall be "in" at the public library; many of the purchasing committees have been intentionally diminishing the supply of fiction; the old novels as they disappear have not been replaced; fewer copies of new ones have been bought, and the selection has been more careful; on account of diminished appropriations fewer books of all sorts have been purchased, and the attendance has not been so good; finally, 1880 was the Presidential year, and though there was the least possible excitement, there was enough to have some slight effect. We do not think that the present tendency will continue long. Business will not be less absorbing, or work less tiring; but, after a time, the people may feel strongly the need of some counterpoise; the very changeableness which leads them to desert the libraries now may lead them back there. If the present phenomenon meant that we are to cease to be a reading people, it would indeed be worthy of serious consideration; if, on the other hand, it only shows a temporary eddy in the current—if it points in some classes to a greater attention to art, in others to a growing inclination toward out-of-door amusements; if it means that our people are buying the books which they read; and if, to some extent, it means that they are reading books which demand more time to be read profitably—then certainly it is no evil.

—The position occupied by the family in the modern world presents many points of interest to science; and anthropologists will therefore not need to have their attention called to the approaching "Reunion of the Palmer Family," which is to take place at Stonington next month, and to which General Grant has received an invitation. The letter sent to him calls his attention to the fact that he is one of the descendants of Walter Palmer, who was one of the "first settlers" at Stonington; that his co-descendants number "many thousands," scattered "from Maine to California"; that they propose to have a "Palmer reunion" on the 10th and 11th of August at Stonington; that the ex-President is therefore specially invited to allow a thousand or more "Palmers" on those days to pay their respects to him as a kinsman; that the palace-car "Palmer" will be placed at his disposal for the occasion; and that "a solicitous and appreciative array" of his co-descendants are longing to have him join them on that day in "the social and fraternal festivities of a real Anglo-American reunion." The invitation bears the well-known Palmer motto: *Palmam qui meruit ferat.* Communal reunions of this kind are peculiar, we believe, to the United States, and have become of late years a noticeable feature of social life here. In older countries, where the family exists as a sort of private corporation, such meetings of the entire body of the descendants of a common ancestor are unknown, and would probably be considered undesirable, as calculated to bring together in an enforced and therefore unpleasant intercourse people widely separated by birth, wealth, social position, and breeding. It might, perhaps, also be urged that these reunions would be chiefly useful and profitable to such members of the family as had been unsuccessful in their struggle with the world, and needed external support and recognition, and would therefore be likely to "run" the reunion in their own interest. None of these objections—to judge by the growing popularity of the custom—seem to be applicable to the circumstances of this country, and such reunions afford interesting proof of the survival of a primitive sentiment which carries us back to the times when the Aryan or Pelasgian ancestors of "the Palmers" and other families gathered together not once in two hundred years, but three times a day, for purposes of commensal enjoyment. Thus far on all like occasions perfect harmony has prevailed, and the rigid exclusion of "politics" has greatly tended to promote this end. General Grant will, we presume, recollect that he is invited simply as a co-descendant "Palmer," and refrain from saying anything of a political nature calculated to eclipse the gayety of the reunion, or to stir up passions which, even in the most closely united families, often produce such unhappy consequences.

—The Albany *Law Journal* and Judge Countryman have been carrying on an ethical controversy, more curious than edifying, we fear, to the laity, on the subject of taking cases on "speculation." The judge says that the practice is perfectly right, and even praiseworthy; that poor suitors, if they could make no arrangements to retain counsel out of the proceeds of the suit, would often find themselves unable to prosecute their rights, and that such arrangements are sanctioned by the courts. The *Law Journal*, on the other hand, strongly reprobates this view; insists that, though the courts may tolerate the practice, that does not settle the matter, since many things are tolerated in courts —such as the use of decoys and informers, pleas of infancy, usury, etc.—which no one thinks are in themselves fine or laudable. But, at the same time, it admits that cases must occasionally be taken on "speculation," and states the difference between the judge and itself to be that "we would take just as few cases of this kind as possible, he would get just as many of them as he could." If this could be taken as a fair statement of the position of the two disputants, we should say that the *Law Journal* was undoubtedly right. The strong feeling which still exists among conservative members of the bar on the subject grows out of the dangerous tendency of the practice, and this is not affected by the fact that now and then it may be for the interest of litigants to resort to it. In new countries, and in countries where the bar has long ceased to be a close corporation, and law is carried on like any other business, the inherited tradition with regard to taking cases on "speculation" is pretty sure to be supplanted in a measure by the feeling that such a practice is often for the mutual advantage of lawyer and client. The story of the eminent Western lawyer who, on being asked to what branches of the profession he had chiefly devoted himself, replied, "Champerty and Maintenance," illustrates a condition of professional sentiment which it would still hardly be possible to imagine existing in New York, but toward which some years ago the bar seemed to be making rapid

progress. Until very recently, will-contests on a speculative basis were positively encouraged by a statute (now, we believe, repealed) permitting large allowances out of the estate to the unsuccessful party's counsel, and it was out of the practice founded upon this that the unscrupulous rapacity and ferocity that used to distinguish such contests in this city chiefly grew.

—The evil tendency of speculative lawsuits is reason enough for discouraging the practice wherever it can be done; but the question of how far it can be done is very like that other question of legal ethics which every few years or so comes up for discussion—how far a lawyer may go in defending a client. Many moralists, from the time of Dr. Johnson down, have undertaken to settle this, but with so little success that Lord Brougham's suggestion, that when a lawyer undertakes his client's case his duty is to throw overboard all moral principles, is still regarded in many quarters as being the prevailing professional view of the subject. The question is one of those which cannot be decided one way or the other abstractly. It is necessary to know the facts in each particular case before deciding whether a breach of professional ethics has been committed; but it is certainly safe to agree with the *Law Journal* that any one who tries to get as many "speculative" cases as he can will not earn the approval of the conservative part of the bar.

—The statistics of the cotton crop in 1879 have been published in outline by the Census Office, accompanied by brief notes regarding the condition of the culture of that staple, by Prof. E. W. Hilgard, formerly of the Louisiana State University. The following table, condensed from the *Bulletin*, presents an abstract of most of the important points:

States in order of production in 1880.	Acres, 1880.	Bales, 1880.	Bales per acre.	Per cent. increase, 1879 to 1880.	Ratio of increase between population and cotton.
Mississippi	3,003,230	955,808	0.46	69.2	1 to 1.89
Georgia	2,615,568	813,065	0.31	71.7	1 to 2.39
Texas	2,168,136	801,090	0.37	128.5	1 to 1.36
Alabama	2,329,577	696,576	0.30	62.9	1 to 2.36
Arkansas	1,040,701	606,980	0.58	144.8	1 to 2.21
South Carolina	1,364,249	522,548	0.38	132.8	1 to 3.23
Louisiana	801,862	506,704	0.69	44.4	1 to 1.52
North Carolina	892,982	369,516	0.44	168.7	1 to 5.48
Tennessee	722,501	330,624	0.46	81.8	1 to 3.62
Florida	245,595	54,997	0.22	38.2	1 to 0.99
Missouri	32,711	19,733	0.60	1,483.7	1 to 57.07
Indian Territory	35,000	17,000	0.49	.....	.....
Virginia	24,000	11,000	0.46	5,010.9	1 to 251.53
Kentucky	2,667	1,367	0.51	26.6	1 to 1.07
Total	14,423,879	5,730,968	0.40	89.7	1 to 2.63

The principal points brought out by a study of the above table are as follows: The production of cotton has nearly doubled during the decade; its increase has outstripped the increase of population, in the cotton States proper, in a ratio approaching that of three to one; the highest specific increase has taken place in the Atlantic States, where the average product per acre has become nearly equal to that of Mississippi. This is due to better tillage and the use of manures. An "area of low production," due to soil-exhaustion, is moving westward, and is now central in Alabama and Florida. Farther westward, in Louisiana, Mississippi, and Arkansas, where the natural fertility of the soil is not yet exhausted, the production is greater. The lesson here indicated, that it *does* pay to manure, is one that cannot be too strongly impressed upon the cotton-planters of the Gulf States.

—Mississippi is, *par excellence*, a cotton State. While only about one-fourth of its product is raised in the Yazoo bottom, which is popularly regarded as the greatest cotton region of the country, one-half is grown on the table-land bordering the Mississippi bluffs and the prairie belts. The remainder is scattered over the sandy pine region. Its high rank as a cotton State is due to the natural fertility of the soil and the fact that cotton-planting is almost the sole industry of the inhabitants. In Georgia, which ranks next, the case is quite different. The soil is much less fertile, and its large product is due in part to its greater area and population, but largely to the extensive use of fertilizers and to careful tillage. Some portions of Alabama possess soils originally extremely rich, and the State would naturally be expected to make even a better showing than it does. The reason which Prof. Hilgard assigns for its comparatively small product per acre is that the natural fertility of its soils has been largely abstracted, and has not been returned by manuring. The case is similar in the northern part of Florida, to which part of the State cotton culture is at present confined. In Tennessee the cultivation of cotton is mainly confined to the western part between the Mississippi and Tennessee rivers. Here the soil is extremely well adapted to the crop and the yield is large. The greater portion of the cotton of Arkansas comes from the eastern and southern counties, where the majority of the land is alluvial. It appears that the alluvial regions of Arkansas and Louisiana produce about twice as much cotton per acre as the uplands. The coast belt of Louisiana is given over to the culture of sugar-cane, little or no cotton being raised there. About two-thirds of the crop of the State is raised in the alluvial regions, the remainder being produced upon the uplands. In Texas the season appears to have been unfavorable, the supply of rain not having been sufficient, which may explain the low average yield. More than half the crop was produced in the northeastern section. The coast counties produced but little, and on the south and west the Nueces River practically limited its culture. In the Carolinas the culture of the staple has been much extended and improved during the past decade, particularly by the application of manures to the worn-out soils, so that the average production is now as great as for the new rich soils of Mississippi. The cotton region of Missouri is limited to the cotton-lands in the extreme southeastern corner, where, apparently, the soils are of great fertility, as shown by the high product per acre. Nearly all the cotton raised in Kentucky comes from the extreme southwest corner adjacent to Tennessee and the Mississippi River.

—The spread of malaria in New England and other parts of the country where it has been hitherto unknown is a subject which possesses much public interest, especially at this time of year, when thousands of persons are leaving the cities to search for places where they can be absolutely guarantied against all danger of this kind during the summer. A letter recently written by President Chadbourne, of Williams College, shows that very little progress has as yet been made in solving the mystery. Dr. Chadbourne refers to the common opinion that malaria is the result of vegetable decomposition, especially the decomposition produced by stirring up soils rich in organic materials, admits that when a lecturer on the subject in New England he shared this opinion, but states that he has since had occasion to modify his views, owing to his "observations in Wisconsin and the Rocky Mountains," and "the increased prevalence of the disease in New England in places where the conditions are quite different from those formerly considered essential for the production of the miasm." He adds that "all the facts now known" cannot be explained consistently with any theory yet advanced. Malaria, it is true, abounds in wet places, but so it also does in places which are dry. It is found in valleys and it is found on the tops of mountains. It appears where it has before been unknown, "without any change of conditions that can be seen." It seems also in New England to "move on" from year to year, like the pear-blight, the potato-rot, the epizootic, or the Texan cattle-fever. As to vegetable decomposition, malaria is to be found in the Rocky Mountains "where the few streams flowing from melting snow are as pure as our New England trout-books, while most of the soil is poor in organic matter." He points out that water of itself does not necessarily favor decomposition, which is produced by alternations of wet and dry, or mere dampness. Of the increased prevalence of malaria in New England, and "what seems to be its yearly progress eastward and northward," he thinks no satisfactory explanation has been brought forward, and all that can be done at present is to collect the facts carefully, in the hope that we may be able to arrive at a solution of the mystery hereafter.

—Mr. Hamerton's art periodical, the *Portfolio* (Bouton), has lately been giving some specially good examples of native English work with the etching-needle, and thus assuming a really important place as patron of an art in which the British school is peculiarly fitted to excel. We do not say that a designer like Mr. Jacomb Hood, who has found in the *Portfolio* a free outlet for his sketches, is a better artist than the ordinary throng who illustrate the *Graphic* with their woodcuts; but he finds in etchings, as ordinarily printed, a better expression of color, through the two mediums of a tinted ground of fine quality and of retroussage. He is therefore tempted to seek higher refinements of technic and dig deeper into the sources of ability that are in him than he would do if drawing for cuts where the whites between the lines are all alike. This artist's Lancashire series has many elements of power: his glass-blowing sketch in the June number shows a fine mastery over difficult light; while, in May, his canal scene was an able reminiscence of Decamps's "Halage"; and, in March, his cotton-mill showed types of character worthy of Fildes. It is a curious and promising experiment, this encouragement of sketchers, who in the usual course of things would be offering their studies to the illustrated newspapers, to pour the contents of their albums upon etching-plates, and bite them out with acid; the process is not necessarily harder than boxwood drawing, while the stimulus to good work is everywhere greater. Mr. Hamerton keeps a monitor always running by the side of these ambitious novices, in the form of a specimen of what the great men of the past have really and practically achieved; these examples or paradigms, repeated with confounding accuracy by the French process of Amand Durand, are never without a sharp lesson, whether for modern practitioners or modern spectators. From Rembrandt's "Burgomaster Six," in the June number, the contemporary etcher can try to learn the judicious use of mystery; from Lucas van Leyden's "Abraham with the Angels," in April, the defining and almost architectural strength of precision. The editor's personal opinions are always valuable

from their catholicity and repose, and the articles signed by him entirely outweigh the collection of others differently originated; his definition of "style," however, in the last number introduces a new and misleading shade into art nomenclature. Style, by a useful ellipsis, now means noble or achieved style, and to define it is to investigate the elements of nobility and supremacy; to represent style as merely idiosyncrasy, and illustrate it by Rubens or Hogarth, is to confuse language and degrade terminology.

—*L'Art* (Paris: J. Rouam; New York: J. W. Bouton) opens its twenty-fourth quarterly volume with a striking selection from the illustrations to the "Tile Club" papers, a little less delicately printed than in the habitual style of *Scribner's*, but gaining some lustre from the advantages of ample margins and tinted paper. The critical text by J. Comyns Carr is timid and indefinite, declining to enter far into the merits of close-line cutting as practised by the modern Americans, but plucking up courage to say that the engravers succeed in reproducing almost every effect which is expressed by the various kinds of art. The etchings of the volume include many test-works. Rajon tries his lance with Waltner in copying Gainsborough's portrait of Master Buttall, known as the Blue Boy. The sense of clearness and color is very perfect, and the triumph over Waltner's larger plate is manifest. Borrowings from the catalogue of the late Wilson sale are: "The Sleeping Servant," etched by Courtry, after Van der Meer of Delft, a specimen in which the singular purity of interior light in a shaded room is caught with the highest felicity; A. Maas's "Infant Eating a Waffle," etched by Milius with much spirit; Holbein's "Bishop Gardiner," very minutely copied by Gaujean, and Diaz's "Under the Trees," a difficult work about half done, by Lalauze. Rembrandt's "Man-at-Arms," by Leenhoff, is heavy with characteristic color and impasto, and his "Crucifixion," from the late San Donato collection, is copied by Gaucherel so as to give a strange and dreamy light of eclipse suitable to the subject and the master. The kneeling donataire and his family of an altar-piece by Sir Anthony More—the artist who was disgraced by Philip II. for daubing the royal hand with carmine—are reproduced with painful and demonstrative fidelity in the largest etching introduced. The details of the Château of Montal, lately picked to pieces and carried stone by stone to Paris, are represented in an interesting series of illustrations, and the lost genius of Jacquemart is perpetuated in some of his sketches, among them a wonderful crayon drawing of a crystal flagon, and a photograph-like sketch of the "Road to Mentone," singular for its impression of near hills, made to look nearer by the sudden shading of a darkening cloud. The publication continues to be the best repository of modern etching extant, and the most valuable art periodical ever produced.

—King George of Greece has recently signed a concession giving permission to General Türr to cut a canal through the Isthmus of Corinth. The work will be undertaken by a company established under the patronage of the indefatigable M. de Lesseps, who, it seems, has long had his eye upon the Isthmus of Corinth as affording him another opportunity of gratifying his passion for great canal enterprises. The company will begin work upon the canal in the spring of 1882, and expects to finish it in five years. M. Violet d'Aoust, who took part in the French expedition of 1826 which was sent to assist in expelling Ibrahim Pasha from the Morea during the Greek War of Independence, and who became at that time very much interested in this canal project, has just read a paper before the Geographical Society of Paris giving an account of the previous attempts to make the canal. A canal across the Isthmus of Corinth was a pet scheme of Demetrius Poliorcetes; Julius Cæsar, Caligula, and Nero all wished to undertake it. In the Middle Ages the Venetians hoped by piercing the isthmus to secure a quicker passage to Syria and the East. The canal is, in conception at least, an old one; but it has remained for modern engineering to make it an accomplished fact. The isthmus of Corinth is about nine miles in width, and the expense of building the canal is estimated at about $12,600,000. The question is where the ships which by passing through the canal are going to make it a profitable undertaking, are coming from. Ships plying between the Adriatic and the Eastern ports situated north of Smyrna would save from about eight to twelve hours by passing through the canal. Ships plying between other ports west of the Grecian peninsula and the shores of Asia Minor would not save enough time to make it worth their while to submit to the canal toll. It is, therefore, extremely improbable that the Corinthian canal can be made a profitable enterprise. However this may be, the undertaking will be watched with considerable interest, both from the historical character of the ground and from the fact that interest in the canal question has been aroused of late in consequence of the success of the Suez Canal and the scheme for cutting the Isthmus of Panama.

—The dialect of the Abruzzi has hitherto been almost completely neglected. No dictionary of it exists, and Dr. Gennaro Finamore, in order to render accessible to others the texts he proposes to publish, was obliged to begin his labors with the compilation of a vocabulary, 'Vocabolario dell' Uso Abruzzese' (Lanciano, 1880). A rapid examination of the grammar and phonology of the dialect is followed by the vocabulary, filling over one hundred and eighty octavo pages, and supplemented by a list of proper names and a selection of the principal etymologies previously given. The literary portion of the work consists of proverbs and popular songs, with parallels from the rest of Italy. The collector intends to issue the popular tales separately, and we trust he may receive sufficient encouragement to continue his arduous labors in a sparsely-worked field. Before long there will be little popular literature left to collect in Italy.

JEFFERSON DAVIS AND THE CONFEDERACY.—II.

The Rise and Fall of the Confederate Government. By Jefferson Davis. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. 707, 808.

EXCEPT in the chapter devoted to the finances of the Confederate Government Mr. Davis gives us very little information about its civil affairs. It is well known that the government founded upon the ultra doctrine of State rights felt obliged to resort to absolute centralization as a matter of military necessity. When every able-bodied man was by one legislative act enrolled in the Confederate army, and not only the physicians and mechanics had to be "detailed" by army orders, or "furloughed" to serve the absolute necessities of local communities, but the very officers of state were only exempted by similar exception under Federal law, the autonomy of the separate States was, of course, annihilated. That this, in fact, led to great dissatisfaction and caused serious dissensions and troubles is also generally believed. We can understand that Mr. Davis should avoid this subject, and strive to leave the impression that within the Confederate lines all was harmonious devotion to one settled purpose; but too much is known to make it possible to ignore the facts without making the silence itself more significant than speech. The volumes before us are certainly not the history of the Confederacy in this respect.

In what we are told of military and naval operations there are some very interesting passages, though there is very little proportion of parts. It is made apparent that immediately after the first battle of Bull Run, or Manassas, Mr. Davis and the two leading officers on that field became estranged, and complete confidence was never re-established. We read between the lines that friends of General Beauregard in the Confederate Congress represented the President as jealous of his renown, and showed the usual tendency of men in war-time to exalt a successful general above the civil power. Mr. Davis thought, and with appearance of reason, that Beauregard was more than willing to have it understood that he would have entered Washington triumphantly had he not been held back by the President. The language of formal courtesy in their correspondence does not conceal the fact that Mr. Davis regarded the general's conduct as dishonorable, and formed a resolution, to which he adhered, to give Beauregard as little actual power and responsibility in military affairs as possible. That officer was too well backed by political friends to make it quite practicable even for the President of the Confederacy to ignore him, but his commands were mostly administrative, and the commander-in-chief at Richmond evidently looked with a severely critical eye at his conduct when, by the death of Sidney Johnston, he was temporarily left in actual command of an army.

A similar coldness grew up between Davis and General Joseph E. Johnston, but no personal cause of complaint is indicated. It would seem that General Johnston did not communicate as freely and confidentially with the Executive as the latter deemed due to his position and his own military knowledge and experience. Mr. Davis was himself educated at West Point, and had held a commission for some years in the Army. He had served as colonel of a Mississippi regiment in the Mexican War, as Secretary of War under President Pierce, and as chairman of the Committee on Military Affairs in the Senate. He tells us that his own wish had been to be the actual general in command of the Confederate army, rather than the titular commander-in-chief as President. In this condition of things there was a natural tendency to misunderstanding with the generals at the head of armies. They would object to a too minute enquiry into and criticism of their plans and purposes, and would wish for more freedom than would, perhaps, be accorded. On the other part, the President would chafe at any reticence, and be likely to assume that no plan existed if it was not fully confided to him. Officers in the field would attribute publicity of what ought to be secret to the disposition of a political officer to be careless in his confidences. Something of this sort seems to have occurred, and the relations between Mr.

Davis and General J. E. Johnston evidently became stiff and unsympathetic in the first year of the war. General Gustavus W. Smith seems to have been involved in the same distrust by reason of his connection with Generals Johnston and Beauregard, and in this way may possibly be explained what was often a subject of enquiry among officers of our Army, viz., why General Smith played no more prominent *rôle* in the war. He was one of those officers who resigned to enter the Confederate service, and concerning whom expectation was high.

The references to General J. E. Johnston in Mr. Davis's book seem more plainly tinged with prejudice than his treatment of any other officer. It is impossible to read the narrative without feeling that Johnston's wound at Seven Pines only gave a desired opportunity of relieving him of the command in Virginia. When Mr. Davis comes to tell the story of the Atlanta campaign the reader may look in vain for any indication of serious fighting whilst Johnston was in command. Whoever may form his opinion of that campaign from this book must necessarily believe that Johnston retreated without any collision with our forces except trifling skirmishing, unless it were at New Hope Church. Officers on the side of the Union do not so understand that history. At Tunnel Hill and before Dalton there was severe fighting. Resaca was an important battle. After Resaca nearly every day had its engagement. At Kennesaw Mountain the casualties counted by thousands, and every foot of ground from Pumpkin Vine Creek to Marietta had been won only by fighting. When, therefore, Mr. Davis sums it up by saying (vol. ii. 555): "Thus, from Dalton to Resaca, from Resaca to Adairsville, from Adairsville to Alatoona, from Alatoona to Kennesaw, from Kennesaw to the Chattahoochee, and then to Atlanta, retreat followed retreat during seventy-four days of anxious hope and bitter disappointment, until at last the Army of Tennessee fell back within the fortifications of Atlanta," he is grievously unjust to his subordinate by the complete omission to describe the resistance that was made. One is tempted to contrast this silence with his full description of the defence of a petty fort at another place by a single company of soldiers, where he finds room even for the complete list of the names of the men in the ranks. In Gen. Johnston's case Mr. Davis will be justly judged by the application of the maxim *suppressio veri, suggestio falsi*.

In the description of the seven days' fight before Richmond Mr. Davis writes as an eye-witness, and intimates that he accompanied and assisted General Lee. This is the most valuable part of the military narrative. In other places he has accepted as indubitable the most extravagant claims put forth in Confederate reports, and pays no attention to subsequent criticism or to the facts presented from our own side. There is no pretence of summing up the evidence in a thorough manner, and, with the exception mentioned, the reader will look in vain for any new light upon the military history of the war, save in a few points where controversy had arisen between the Confederate President and his army commanders. His friendship for A. S. Johnston was of long standing and no doubt sincere, and for him and for General Lee his praise is unstinted, and the more noticeable by reason of the contrast with his tone toward J. E. Johnston and Beauregard. He puts upon Hood the responsibility for the great disasters of the Franklin and Nashville campaign, whilst praising him for his courage, energy, and devotion. Subordinates are generally spoken of with warm appreciation, and political differences with Gen. Longstreet have not prevented him from speaking with admiration of that officer's calm intrepidity and great abilities as a corps commander.

When Mr. Davis alludes to Northern officers his tone is similar to that which he systematically uses in regard to Northern statesmen, and, indeed, the Northern people. It is so exact a reproduction of the well-known "plantation style" in vogue among Southern Congressmen before the war that one can hardly repress a smile at seeing how perfectly he has preserved the old fashion. The effect is much like that produced by the appearance in public of an antiquated garb, well preserved, which some one long out of society wears with an air of thinking it is still the *ton*. By far the larger part of the people who were lately in deadly strife with each other have by this time learned that men on the opposite sides of Mason and Dixon's line are not greatly different. The honorable and the knavish, the merciful and the cruel, the refined and the coarse, are not separated by a geographical division; but Mr. Davis has not yet learned this, and in his book the old illusion reappears that civilization or humanity is hardly to be looked for north of the Ohio. General Sherman has distinctly stated in his memoirs not only that he did not direct the burning of Columbia in South Carolina, but that he ordered the protection of the town and the putting out of the cotton-fires, which were in fact burning when the Federal troops entered the city. There might be room for debate over the fact of obedience to these orders, but none for disputing the truth of the statement that they were given. When Mr. Davis, therefore, treats the matter as if so explicit a statement from such a man had no important weight, he will find himself judged in the opinion of men who know the world, everywhere, as being guilty of a very offensive disregard of the *convenances* of life, which will seem greatest to those who are most familiar with what courtesy and refinement are among people of eminence.

The orders in regard to the inhabitants which were issued by General Pope on assuming the command of the Army of Virginia are admitted to have been unexecuted, yet Mr. Davis returns to them again and again as the proof of the barbarity of the Union Army. His method of dealing with them is a fair sample of the candor with which he treats such subjects. He said in a letter of instructions to General Lee, dated July 31, 1862: "The general order issued by Major-General Pope on the 23d of July, the day after the signing of the cartel, directs the murder of our peaceful inhabitants as spies, if found quietly tilling their farms in his rear, even outside of his lines" (vol. ii. 316). This might pass for the sensational exaggeration of facts in time of war, intended to key up the flagging zeal of his people, were it not quoted in full after twenty years as a true statement "of the atrocities which he (Pope) threatened to perpetrate upon our defenceless citizens." What, then, was the order which is thus travestied? It was that, in consequence of the "bushwhacking" and systematic spying which was constantly going on and was notorious, an oath of allegiance and security for its observance should be required of those who desired to remain at home, in rear of our army, and pursue their ordinary avocations: "Those who refuse shall be conducted south beyond the extreme pickets of the army, and be notified that if found again anywhere within our lines or at any point in the rear they will be considered spies and subjected to the extreme rigor of the military law." We will not discuss the policy of the order or the feasibility of enforcing it. Mr. Davis does not pretend that an execution took place under it. Our question is simply as to the fairness of his statement of its contents. When men considered dangerous had been sent beyond the lines with notification that they would be considered spies if again found within them, the case is one clearly within the ordinary power and practice of military commanders within the theatre of operations. Harsh it may be, but war is harsh. To represent this as the "murder of peaceful inhabitants found quietly tilling their farms," is so exactly the contrary of the fact that it was properly ranked, at the time, among the unscrupulous methods by which the Southern Government sought to prevent the growth of feelings in favor of peace; and to repeat it now is to show a significant absence of the essential qualities of a historian. Extravagance generally defeats itself, and the oft-repeated declaration that the conduct of the Northern troops was that of "barbarians," exceeding the wickedness of Alva in the Netherlands or Wallenstein in Germany, and the like, passes for mere sound and fury. A fair examination of facts in detail would show that no war has ever been waged with more humanity and less cruelty. To any one who followed in the track of military operations from Wörth to Sedan and to Paris, or in the more recent campaign in Turkey, Mr. Davis's assertions will seem so reckless as to lose all character except that of rhetorical flourish.

To the younger men of the South, who have learned to rejoice at the extinction of slavery, and who see that the hire of free laborers is more profitable as well as more humane than slavery, Mr. Davis's apotheosis of the obsolete wrong and folly will be curious reading.

"Generally," he says, "they [the bondmen of the South] were born the slaves of barbarian masters, untaught in all the useful arts and occupations, reared in heathen darkness and sold by heathen masters. They were transferred to shores enlightened by the rays of Christianity. There, put to servitude, they were trained in the gentle arts of peace and order and civilization; they increased from a few unprofitable savages to millions of efficient Christian laborers. Their servile instincts rendered them contented with their lot, and their patient toil blessed the land of their abode with unmeasured riches. . . . Never was there happier dependence of labor and capital on each other. The tempter came, like the serpent in Eden, and decoyed them with the magic word of 'freedom.'"

He who can speak thus of the disgrace to civilization which no government of Europe or America now pretends to uphold (Spain and Brazil having entered upon the process of emancipation) is so far behind his time that his opinions will have no weight with any who have learned to take satisfaction in being abreast with the world's progress. What he says will be regarded only as the echo of a former period of illusion and of ignorance, now so far away in the swift current of later events that his words have as little relation to the present as those of the sleepers of Ephesus awaking in those slower times after centuries of oblivion. For his own sake we could wish that his book showed some appreciation of the real meaning of the great crisis in which he was so prominent for a time, and of the better future which awaits the whole country, South and North, now that the only cause of strife has been abolished. It would be far happier for him if he could grasp the truth that, in the Providential development of human institutions, the

great civil war in our country was a purifying storm, terrific in its phenomena, but ensuring a purer air and a better climate for moral and political health. Then he could understand that a man like Lincoln could sternly employ war measures in the service of freedom, and that a people jealous of their liberties could bow to military rule for a while and for the sake of great results, and yet resume their personal independence when the exigency was over. All this he confesses himself incapable of learning, and has taken infinite pains to prove that he must end as he began—the narrow advocate of a false system which for a century barred the path of progress appointed for America.

JOHN DE WITT.

History of the Administration of John De Witt, Grand Pensionary of Holland. By James Geddes. Vol. i. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1880.

A PERIOD of thirty years lies between the fall of Olden Barneveldt, Grand Pensionary of Holland, in his struggle against the encroachments and designs of the House of Orange, and the beginning of the leadership of John de Witt, who, in early manhood, avenged the blood of the hoary Olden by bringing about the abolition of the stadtholdership, but, finally, like him, fell a victim to the Orange party. The intervening period is that of the Thirty Years' War, and embraces, in the history of the United Provinces, the last years of the career of Maurice of Nassau and the stadtholdership of his brother and successor, Frederic Henry—a time of vigorous contests with Spain by land and sea, which secured independence and maritime power, and doomed the political foes of the war-like stadtholders to silence or useless opposition. The general peace of 1648, following closely upon the death of Frederic Henry, opened a new era of Dutch politics, and John de Witt, even before he was chosen Grand Pensionary of Holland, became the direct successor of Barneveldt in leading statesmanship. His English biographer is thus, in a measure, the continuator of the political history of the Dutch Republic, as concluded by Motley with the life of Barneveldt. The war period of 1618–1648 forms a gap between the two biographical histories, but the severance is not complete; and could the American writer see the work of his life thus continued by Mr. Geddes, he would surely rejoice at the thoroughness and ability with which the Englishman has applied himself to his task, though he might view with displeasure his lack of enthusiasm for his subject, and the coldness both of his judgment and diction.

Mr. Geddes himself seems to have felt that he was presenting to the English public comparatively dry and unattractive narratives. He rather modestly says in his preface: "The period comprehended in the following book is not a heroic period, and John de Witt is in no sense a hero. His age has little in common with the noble epoch described with so much graphic force by Mr. Motley, and in studying it we are moving in altogether a lower world of human interest, passion, duty, and activity." What made it the more difficult for him to create a picture both faithful and stirring was "the extreme difficulty, and the ever-recurring impossibility, of getting at the precise measure of De Witt's personal work and influence." The Grand Pensionary's public history lies entombed, beneath mountains of documents, in numberless archives—national, provincial, municipal, and private. "The lifetime of half a dozen men would not suffice to exhaust these, and, until they are sifted and made public, anything like a final history of this period, or a final life of De Witt, is impossible. The man De Witt, as he lived and moved, we do not expect ever to see much of. His contemporaries did not write memoirs, and the social, non-political, non-official side of him—the human side of him, in short—we have no hope of ever discovering." This is expressed still more strongly elsewhere, in reference to a special period in De Witt's life, when he was equally young and prominent:

"The man and his doings, the real biography and life of him, at this time are buried in thick darkness. To get at the man as he lived and walked and worked in that Hague life of his is an impossibility. To ascertain such a thing as how he clothed or fed himself is a vain endeavor; to discover that he relished good beer and drank French wine is, in the barren wilderness, like finding a treasure. What we know of him, in his actual, practical doings, has all to be painfully pieced together out of mountains of letters, printed and unprinted; and when the patchwork is done we find that hardly a lineament of the man and his work has been set forth. We have no Boswell, or homely Dutch gossip, to light up his figure for us; and his letters, while throwing no inconsiderable light on the history of the Republic, throw little upon himself. There is scarcely one single reference to his own personal pursuits or tastes. Even to his father and brother there is the stiffest, stateliest reserve. His letters are the mere notes of a chronicler. He is the baldest, the most meagre, though he is also a clear enough, annalist."

It is by a careful examination of these letters—of which the unprinted fill a large section of the Record Office in the Hague—and of the letters addressed to De Witt that the author, enlightened also by documents in the State Records of England and the unpublished correspondence of the French ambassadors, has been enabled to form an estimate of the great Dutch statesman's real and personal achievement in the Republic, to exhibit the sphere, the scope, and the aims of his activity, and to pass judgment on its methods and character. Thus the book before us is more than a history of an administration, of a period, though it is mainly that, as its title correctly indicates. And both the period and its leading statesman—though neither be heroic compared with the time and the men that brought forth the Dutch Republic—are interesting enough to students of history, and especially to those to whom the various phases of Dutch federal and state life, in alternating ascendency, present instructive analogies to the more recent history of their own country. Parallels between the internal contests of the United Provinces and those of the United States can easily be drawn, though we must never forget that in the United Provinces State sovereignty meant oligarchy, and Federal power the sway of the house of Orange.

Mr. Geddes very impartially sums up the great questions underlying De Witt's political activity, the methods which he applied to his work, and the results obtained. The principles of autonomy in various degrees for which he contended were not established by De Witt. He found them at work around him, confirmed their supremacy, and secured for them a long triumph. "What he did was done with great talent, singular fertility of resource, unshrinking boldness, iron inflexibility, and marvellous reticence; that is, the *manner* of doing the thing was admirable." He moved on the very edge of statesmanlike integrity in working for his cause; though punctiliously honest, strong, and proud, he intrigued, tricked, and deceived for it: was it, at least, the best of causes? The answer is: "We think it was a crime against the future to resplit this little territory into seven cantonal atoms after the work of fusion among them had begun, and to bequeath to posterity perpetually enduring legacies of provincial jealousies and strife." The smaller these cantons were the more needful was real union; the more so as "Jesuit-ridden Spain," which held Brabant and Flanders, and "land-hungry France, which lay beyond, were ever ready to foment internal discords, and rend for their own objects the little confederation into hostile camps." And it was only through the House of Orange that unity, harmony, power, and security could be created and maintained. For this unity, with its natural results, not wise and unselfish but "blind and passionate strivings" were active, and against these De Witt was laboriously fighting. The tide of centuries, which had been creating nations everywhere in Europe, "he was sweeping out with his little broom. His aim was to prop up tiny autonomies, each flaring its parchment in the face of the other, . . . and in the eyes of all Europe." It is "pitiful to contemplate him toiling with all his keen ingenuity, and sharp legal processes of intellect and cunning, to invest every town with inviolable sovereign rights; nay, not so much the town as the small clique of leading families who held the monopoly of administration, looked scornfully down upon the people, and fattened themselves upon the communal revenues. This surely was poor work, even taking it at its best." That it yet agrees with a public character on which there is hardly a blemish lies chiefly in the circumstance that the "House of Orange itself had become false to its traditions, gone a royal marriage-hunting, and had been selling the people for that wretched end. And, further, he was not constructing a new political edifice; he had to deal with one whose foundations lay deeply bedded in an immemorial past. . . . Dutch life and institutions were not plastic." To work a change meant to surrender the provinces to "an ignorant and Orange-worshipping populace," who would have instantly enthroned the dreaded house with rapturous acclaim. De Witt could not but prefer the old order of things, the predominance of Holland—his own province—and the safety of republican institutions under his own virtuous leadership.

OUTWORN MODES OF PUNISHMENT.

Punishments in the Olden Time. By William Andrews, F.R.H.S. London: W. Stewart & Co. 1881.

IT cannot be said that a spirit of humanity tempered conspicuously the wisdom with which so many are wont to credit our progenitors. In bygone centuries much the same disparity no doubt obtained between the high and the low, intellectually and as to material well-being, that is now observable. Yet for a long time the cruelty, even in its grossest phases, of our forefathers seems to have been largely irrespective of social position. Gentle and simple, in past ages, were, in many essentials, alike barbarians. To pass from generalities to particulars, the extent to which, abstraction made of racking, thumbscrewing, and kindred enormities, the hideous practice of legalized torture in its various forms has prevailed in England, is brought into painful relief by Mr. Andrews's instructive little monograph.

Ludicrous though its associations are, the ducking stool was an instrument worthy of very savages; and we hope there is warrant for the author's belief that few offenders have been committed to it since the Elizabethan period. The amiable Vincent Bourne sang, to be sure:

> "Astride it set but a Xanthippe,
> Then twice or thrice virago dip ye;
> And not a lambkin on the lea
> Will leave the stream more meek than she";

and he ought to have blushed at his singing. Besides being employed for the correction of scolds and other unquiet women, it is on record that it was occasionally occupied by brewers of undrinkable beer, bakers of bad bread, and millers who pilfered corn. That its use sometimes proved fatal is not to be wondered at. In 1731 its remedial efficacy was tried, by order of the Mayor of Nottingham, on a courtesan of that place, with the result that she died soon afterward. According to an old chap-book, of uncertain date, another unfortunate woman at Ratcliff Highway was dipped until, on being released from durance, life was found to be extinct. As has been attested by a person still living, Jenny Pipes, in 1809, was carried about Leominster on a ducking-stool, and then immersed in the Lug, near Kenwater Bridge, at the instance of the magistrates. Sarah Leeke, of the same town, would have been served similarly, in 1817, if the river had not just then been too low, luckily for her. Mr. Andrews gives several engravings of ducking-stools, specimens of which are still preserved, as at Sandwich, Leominster, Ipswich, Scarborough, and Leicester. There was one, it is said, at Retford as early as 1279.

Ducking-stools may or may not have been a flower of British inventiveness, but one must needs feel gratified by the probability that the brank was borrowed from the Continent. Though, apparently, this imported abomination first won favor in Scotland, the native land of the boot, it was destined to become disgracefully popular in England. Mr. Llewellynn Jewitt's description of this atrocious piece of mechanism merits transcription, for all its faults of style:

"It consisted of a kind of crown, or framework of iron, which was locked upon the head, and was armed in front with a gag, a plate, or a sharp-cutting knife or point, which was placed in the poor woman's mouth, so as to prevent her moving her tongue; or was so placed that if she moved it, or attempted to speak, the tongue was cut in a most frightful manner. With this cage upon her head, and with the gag firmly pressed and locked against her tongue, the miserable creature, whose sole offence, perhaps, was that she had raised her voice in defence of her social rights against a brutal and besotted husband, or had spoken honest truth of some one high in office in the town, she [*sic*] was paraded through the streets, led by a chain held in the hands of the bellman, the beadle, or the constable; or, chained to the pillory, the whipping-post, or market cross, she was subjected to every conceivable insult and degradation, without even the power left her of asking for mercy, or of promising amendment for the future; and, when the punishment was over, she was turned out from the Town Hall or other place where the brutal punishment had been inflicted, maimed, disfigured, faint, and degraded, to be the subject of comment and jeering amongst her neighbors, and to be reviled by her persecutors."

Among the twelve patterns of branks, differing more or less in construction, depicted in the pages before us, those represented at pages 46 and 48, truly fiendish devices, could hardly have been applied without causing extreme suffering. The second of these, which was still to be seen a few years ago at Forfar, was stamped with the date of 1661. If reserved for a single class of victims, still that class, it should be borne in mind, was deplorably numerous in the benighted days of the seventeenth-century superstition. "The object aimed at, in applying so dreadful a gag to those who were condemned to the stake as guilty of witchcraft and dealing with the devil, was not so much the purposed cruelty which its use necessarily involved as to prevent the supposed possessors of such unearthly gifts from pronouncing the potent formula by means of which it was implicitly believed they could transform themselves at will to other shapes, or transport themselves where they pleased, and thus effectually outwit their tormentors."

The brank, it is stated, was publicly used at Chester, by order of the mayor and justices of that city, as late as 1824. On the assertion that "the use of the instrument was not sanctioned by law, but was altogether illegal," it is obvious to observe that immemorial and uncontested custom, existent at any given time, is, in a practical aspect, as good as undistinguishable from what is expressly authorized by legislation.

The cucking-stool or cuckstool, the tumbrell, gumstool or scolding-cart, the drunkard's cloak and riding the stang, we can only indicate as among the topics which Mr. Andrews includes in the scope of his interesting treatise. It will be news to many to learn, as we do from his pages, that Cardinal Wolsey, in his younger days, when rector of Lymington, was placed in the stocks for tippling by Sir Amias Poulett. He tells also of a man who, being condemned to stand in a certain pillory, proved too heavy for its fragile footboard, and was all but left hanging by the neck, and subsequently recovered damages from the town which had undertaken to punish him, for the untrustworthiness of its penal accommodation.

At page 60, by an odd oversight, the *North Briton* is spoken of as a work in "forty-five *volumes*." Nor is *quean*, in old English, otherwise than very rarely synonymous with "scold," the definition of it given at page 28.

CONWAY'S CARLYLE.

Thomas Carlyle. By Moncure D. Conway. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1881.

MR. CONWAY'S book has been in a measure anticipated by his *Harper* article and his newspaper correspondence, which are included in it, and to a less extent by the various publications that have appeared since Carlyle's death. The 'Reminiscences' especially are calculated to take the edge off whatever follows them in the way of intimate personal gossip. Indeed, judging from the narrative of Mr. Conway, who had unusual advantages in learning all about his subject, one is induced to reflect that the 'Reminiscences,' whatever the circumstances under which they were written, and however superficially distorted the view of Carlyle presented by them may be, leave little to be said concerning him. To many people they were a surprise and to some a shock, unrelieved by the consideration that they were possibly not intended for publication. Mr. Conway declines to "admit that the outcries of a broken heart should be accepted as the man's true voice, or that measurements of men and memories as seen through burning tears should be recorded as characteristic of his heart or judgment." But really he does not himself contribute anything to show that "the man's true voice" was essentially different from the exhibition of it in the 'Reminiscences.' Quite the contrary. He shows, and we take it that any one who gives us authentic *ana* about Carlyle must show, that his "true voice" was thoroughly elusive, and his utterances, to a larger extent than any man we know, of anything like the same parts, dependent upon his own feelings at the time. There is certainly no gainsaying that the 'Reminiscences' themselves prove this; and in the very thing that his apologists plead in extenuation—namely, the effect of his suffering on his judgments—consists the fatality of the blow with which Mr. Froude is said to have stabbed his fame. Mr. Conway only confirms what most of Carlyle's later readers have long felt—that his readiness to say, within certain limits, whatever came into his head, and to color it with his own feeling, of elation or depression, at the moment, fatally impaired his title to the reliance which apostles are fain to place upon the deliverances of a master. To relate, as Mr. Conway does, that he was roused to denunciation that attracted the passer-by upon hearing of some negro outrage; that he sympathized with Bishop Colenso's "wronged African Langahelele"; that he "helped arrest schemes" to obtain English aid for "the unspeakable Turk"; that the Harvard Memorial volumes moved him to say, "even with tears," "I doubt I have been mistaken"; that he was a hater of tyranny, opposed to all the wars England has begun, "from the Crimean to the Afghan"; that he defended Mazzini, and protested against the proposed Westminster memorial to the Prince Imperial—only confirms this. It is merely excellent testimony—not needed, surely, by any one who has read Carlyle with discernment—to the keen and broad nature of his sympathies. It is wholly possible to agree with Mr. Conway when he says that "those who have regarded Carlyle as a mere worshipper of brute force have formed a superficial judgment"—a notion originally promulgated, we believe, by the late Margaret Fuller, in whose presence one can fancy the conversational license which Carlyle, restrained before no one, permitted himself. Whether or no one shares Mr. Henry James's belief that ideas are too divine to derive any authority from the persons who hold them, it is clear that the first step to an appreciation of Carlyle's is to bear in mind that they are, if anything, to be scrutinized somewhat carefully on account of being his.

In this and in other respects the early letters appended to Mr. Conway's narrative confirm the 'Reminiscences.' These letters are the most interesting portion of his book, though we cannot agree with Mr. Conway, who says they contain passages "not surpassed by anything he [Carlyle] has since written"; who, when he got hold of them, "finished them in the early hours of the morning"; and who, to make extracts from them, sat up "through the best part of a couple of nights." They were written to two friends during the days of Carlyle's pedagogy, when he was about twenty years old. They contain no promise of his powers, literary or otherwise; but they disclose with perfect clearness the germs of character afterward developed. The main surprise of the 'Reminiscences'—if not indeed, to many readers, their only surprise—was the revelation of a character far more completely occupied with itself than Carlyle had ever revealed elsewhere. Nothing that is not to be called laudable ambition is to be discovered in the following extract, but it is safe to say that before the 'Reminiscences' appeared it would have sur-

prised people to find it in an early letter by the author of the 'Latter-Day Pamphlets' or of the Edinburgh address:

"Heaven knows that ever since I have been able to form a wish, the wish of being known has been the foremost. O Fortune! thou that givest unto each his portion in this dirty planet, bestow (if it shall please thee) coronets and crowns, and principalities and purses, and pudding and power upon the great and noble and fat ones of the earth; grant me that with a heart of independence, unyielding to thy favors and unbending to thy frowns, I may attain to literary fame."

Such a wish as that in the son of James Carlyle of Ecclefechan is significant. Elsewhere he says, with the contrition of a true native of Ecclefechan: "When I review my past conduct it seems to have been guided by narrow or defective views, and (worst of all) by lurking, deeply lurking, affectation." There is some excellent criticism of Gibbon in a letter of 1818, the writer being then twenty-three, but it is not precocious, and at the end there is a sufficient intimation that Carlyle's unteachability was ingrained: "I wonder what benefit is derived from reading all this stuff. . . . It is vain to tell us that our knowledge of human nature is increased by the operation. Useful knowledge of that sort is acquired not by reading but by experience." He refers often to Epictetus with admiration, saying in one place, evidently after reading Gibbon, that the 'Encheiridion' "may fortify the souls of the latest inhabitants of the earth." Homer pleased him little. "In fact, Mæonides has had his day. . . . Though some of the affections which Homer delineates are coexistent with the race, yet in the progress of refinement (or change) his mode of delineating them will appear trivial or disgusting, and the very twilight of his fame will have an end." In 1824 there was this excellent anticipation of his portraiture of Coleridge: "Coleridge is a steam-engine of a hundred horses' power, with the boiler burst." Ten years later he wrote to Leigh Hunt: "I am writing *nothing*; reading, above all things, my old Homer and Prolegomena enough; the old song itself with a most singular delight." A remark of Emerson's after visiting Carlyle which Mr. Conway gives is worth quoting: "Mirabeau, he said, interested him; and, I suppose, whoever has given himself with all his heart to a leading instinct, and has not *calculated* too much." That is precisely the philosophy of 'Heroes and Hero-Worship.' Mr. Conway gives also several new anecdotes and bits of Carlyle's discourse, of which we can only find room for the following:

"'Those Dutch are a strong people. They raised their land out of a marsh, and went on for a long time breeding cows and making cheese, and might have gone on with their cows and cheese till doomsday. But Spain comes over and says, 'We want you to believe in St. Ignatius.' 'Very sorry,' replied the Dutch, 'but we can't.' 'God! but you *must*,' says Spain; and they went about with swords and guns to make the Dutch believe in St. Ignatius; never made them believe in him, but did succeed in breaking their own vertebral column for ever and raising the Dutch into a great nation.'"

Illustrations of the Earth's Surface. Glaciers. By Nathaniel Southgate Shaler, Professor of Palæontology, and William Morris Davis, Instructor in Geology, in Harvard University. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1881.

THIS is the first volume of a proposed series designed to illustrate the prominent features of the earth's surface by means of photographs and other pictorial or graphic representation, with the view of conveying to the student a clearer conception of the subject than can be given by words and diagrams only. The plan contemplates a number of volumes, each independent of the others, devoted severally to Glaciers, Mountains, Volcanoes and Earthquakes, Lakes and Plains, Rivers and Valleys, the Sea and its Shores, Structure of Rocks, and the Effects of Life. It is intended that the illustrations shall be accompanied with descriptive text; and, moreover, each of the several volumes will present some statement or discussion of the essential facts and theories that belong to its special subject. In the volume now at hand Professor Shaler, the senior author, discusses, in a series of thirteen chapters, the phenomena of existing glaciers, the distribution of existing and ancient glaciers, the origin and nature of glacial periods, their climatal conditions, the evidences of ancient glacial periods, the effect of glaciers on the altitude of the lands, the effect of glaciation on the life of the earth and its relation to the history of man, and the movement and certain effects of glaciers.

The phenomena of glaciation are deeply interesting to the student of the earth's structure and history. Ice, as a geological agent, has played a most important part in modifying the past or shaping the present features of the earth, and in producing a large portion of the deposits which form its surface. But in considering the relations of glaciation to the history of organic life on the earth and to the early development of man, and in contemplating its possible relations to the career of the human race in the distant future, Prof. Shaler finds the subject invested with an interest greater than that belonging to any other branch of geology. In the light of recently-acquired evidence it is certain that man existed before the last glacial period and survived its trials; and it is equally certain that the earth has been repeatedly subjected to cold periods, which have covered the continents again and again with sheets of ice such as now only occupy a small space of lowlands about the pole and the uppermost levels of the higher mountains. Prof. Shaler believes that there is no reason to expect an early recurrence of such a cold period; nevertheless, one might need such a reassuring belief in considering the peculiarly delicate adjustment which, in his introductory chapter, he points out as existing between the conditions of temperature and moisture and life on our planet. Life here would be impossible if the temperature of the whole earth's surface should, for a considerable period of time, rise above 160 degrees or fall below 32 degrees Fahrenheit, a range of only 128 degrees; yet the range of temperature in the universe around and near us is said to be enormous beyond conception. The surface of the sun cannot have a temperature of less than 100,000 degrees Fahrenheit, while the temperature of some portion of the space between the earth and the sun is probably not less than 250 degrees below zero. It is the vapor of water in the atmosphere which, acting like a blanket, prevents the escape into space of the heat essential to terrestrial life. If a line one hundred feet long be taken to represent the total range of temperature in the solar system, a length of little more than one inch will represent the utmost limits of the range of temperature at which organic life, such as now exists on the earth, can possibly maintain its existence. Under these circumstances one might fear that a fatal change of temperature at the surface of the earth might be too easily brought about by some slight "accident," liable to occur in a much better regulated universe than ours sometimes appears to be.

Professor Shaler's collaborator, Mr. Davis, has contributed what appears to be a very full and valuable chapter on the bibliography of the subject; has prepared the diagrams necessary for the illustration of the text, and has selected and described the plates. The latter, twenty-five in number, make an interesting collection of photographic representations of glaciers and glacial scenery. The larger portion are Swiss, naturally enough, but there are others from Norway, India (by Bourne & Shepard, Calcutta), and the Rocky Mountains (by Jackson, United States Geological Survey of the Territories), besides glacial striæ, slickensides, and drift-sections from New York and Massachusetts. The purpose and arrangement of the collection are such as to show, first, a general view of glacial form; second, detail of structure from greater to lesser altitudes; and, third, effect of glacial action. The subjects are well chosen and adapted to the purpose intended, and the general effect of the pictorial series is very pleasing. The volume is a handsome quarto, containing about two hundred pages of letter-press, followed by the plates, which are generally so arranged that each opens opposite its page of descriptive text.

The Library. By Andrew Lang. With a chapter on Modern English Illustrated Books, by Austin Dobson. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1881.

MR. LANG'S share in this little volume of the "Art at Home" Series consists of three chapters, of which the first and third are entitled respectively "An Apology for the Book-Hunter" and "The Books of the Collector." The second alone treats of the Library, and in a manner neither exhaustive nor particularly regardful of the "home." In fact, there is nothing domestic in the pursuit of the book-hunter and collector, and Mr. Lang's subheading in the second chapter—"Women the natural foes of books"—is but half a jest, considering the class for whom his work is really intended. "The amateur, then," he says (p. 33), "is the person we have in our eye, and especially the bibliophile who has but lately been bitten with this pleasant mania of collecting." And this person "loves to have his study, like Montaigne's, remote from the interruption of servants, wife, and children." We must not look, then, for any dissertation on the family uses of a library, or its essential place in a cultivated household, or its relation in the plan to the other living-rooms, or for much practical advice on library conveniences, as to which five minutes spent at the rooms of the Readers and Writers' Economy Company will be worth vastly more than Mr. Lang's forty pages. In short, what he has written must not be taken seriously, but as something with which he amused himself and hopes to amuse others possessed of a like passion; and in view of the collaboration of Mr. Loftie, who supplies the technical information as to early printed books and illuminated MSS., and of Mr. Dobson, Mr. Lang's part appears to have been mainly to give the literary flavor to the pot-pourri. He does this successfully, albeit with a humor not always kept south of Tweed. Among his book-hunting anecdotes is the first-rate one of M. Tenant de Latour's finding among the leaves of an 'Imitatio Christi' belonging to Rousseau the immortal

periwinkle of the 'Confessions'; and a good one of his own luck in extracting from the vellum covers of an old 'Odyssey' "parts of two copies of a very scarce and curious French dictionary of slang," handy for interpreting the slang *ballades* of the poet Villon. Before taking leave of Mr. Lang we should not omit remarking on the careless and unscholarly proof-reading of the chapters for which he is immediately responsible.

Mr. Dobson's account of illustrated books is of a truly helpful sort for the collector, and is enhanced in value by liberal examples of designs by Bewick, Stothard, Blake, Cruikshank, Doyle, Tenniel, and many other English artists. In some instances we think he might have employed facsimiles to advantage. He praises and defends the American school of engraving associated with *Scribner's Monthly*, from which he borrows the cut of "Infant Joy" after Blake.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, M. Poetry of Byron, chosen and arranged. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. $1 25.
Black, W. The Beautiful Wretch: a Tale. New York: Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Dorchester, Rev. D. Problem of Religious Progress. New York: Phillips & Hunt. $2.
Helper, H. R. The Three Americas Railway. St. Louis: W. S. Bryan & Co. $1 50.
Howells, W. D. A Fearful Responsibility, and Other Stories. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1 50.
Lillie, A. Buddha and Early Buddhism. London: Trübner & Co.
Merrill, Rev. G. E. Story of the Manuscripts. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.
Murphy, Prof. J. G. Commentary on the Book of Exodus. New York: I. K. Funk & Co.
O'Hanlon, Alice. A Costly Heritage: a Tale. New York: Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Pardoe, H. C. Byrne Ransom's Building: a Tale. New York: Phillips & Hunt. 90 cents.
Perry, Nora. A Book of Love Stories. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Pomeroy, J. N. Treaty on Equity Jurisprudence in U. S. Vol. i. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co. 1881.
Poynter, E. Frances. Among the Hills: a Tale. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Qualtrough, E. F. Sailor's Handy Book and Yachtsman's Manual. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. $3 50.
Reiss, W., and Stübel, A. Necropolis of Ancon in Peru. Part 3. New York: Dodd & Mead. $7 50.
Rémusat, P. de. Lettres de Mme. de Rémusat, 2 vols., swd. New York: F. W. Christern.
Rhys Davids, T. W. Buddhist Suttas. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. $2 75.
Russell, W. C. An Ocean Free-Lance: a Tale. New York: Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Scudder, S. H. Butterflies. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $3.
Schopenhauer, A. Select Essays, translated by G. Droppers and C. A. P. Dachsel. Milwaukee.
Serpa Pinto, Major A. de. How I Crossed Africa. 2 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $7.
Sherwood, Mary Neal. Barberine: a Tale. Chicago: Henry A. Sumner & Co. $1.
Sirven, A., and Leverdier, H. Nana's Daughter. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1.
Smyth and Chambers. Cycle of Celestial Objects. 2d ed. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. $5 25.
Taine, H. The French Revolution. Vol. ii. The Jacobin Conquest. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $2 50.
The Georgians: a Tale. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1.
Thompson, J. To the Central African Lakes and Back, 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $6.

TAINE'S

French Revolution, Vol. II.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 21, 1881.

The Week.

THE President has continued to gain during the past week, and it is now almost certain that, unless some unexpected accident occurs, he will entirely recover, and that within a much shorter time than at first seemed possible. The proposal of Governor Foster, of Ohio, that there shall be a national thanksgiving over his recovery has met with general approval. The governors of a large number of States have signified their desire to do what they can to further it. The suggestion that it is to be used to affect the fall elections was sure to be made, but if the President recovers rapidly, as now appears probable, so that the thanksgiving can be held early before the autumn, we shall probably hear no more of it. As the President's complete restoration to health grows more and more certain the subscriptions to the fund for the relief of his wife and family fall off—a pretty clear indication that the public take precisely the same view of the donation that we have expressed in these columns, namely, that with the President restored to health it would be an inappropriate and embarrassing gift.

Mr. Cyrus W. Field has written a letter to the morning papers explaining the origin of the fund which he is raising for the benefit of the President's wife and children. To show the need of it he cites the case of Mrs. Lincoln, for whom Congress, after long delays, only voted a paltry pension of $3,000 a year. As we have already said, we do not think any example or warning is necessary to establish the propriety of a provision by public subscription for Mrs. Garfield and her children in case of the President's death. It could hardly be too large, and rich and poor could hardly make a better use of their money than in contributing to it. But Mr. Field does not make the payment of the money dependent on Mrs. Garfield's being left a widow. He proposes to pay it in any case, and anticipates as the effect of it, in case the President should recover, that he will be "animated to new zeal to serve a country which had remembered him in his hour of sorrow, and anticipated events in caring for him and his." Consequently the fund is really intended to be a gift to the President. Provision for a man's wife and children in his lifetime is of course necessarily provision for him, as it takes the place of drafts he would otherwise have to make on his own income.

Mr. Field further adds that "as it is simply a matter of feeling, of course we do not expect those who do not feel as we do to join." This seems to be an intimation that those who do not subscribe or are not asked to subscribe, do not sympathize with his aims and should not criticise them. But this view of the matter will hardly bear examination. We do sympathize cordially with his undertaking, but the President is the President of the whole people. Those who do not subscribe to the fund, and who disapprove of it, are as much interested in his fame and in his efficiency as those who do, and for our part, it is because we are deeply interested in his fame and efficiency that we object to the shape which Mr. Field's testimonial is taking. We object to it because it will put the President at the very beginning of his term of office under pecuniary obligations to a considerable number of rich men, whose names and the exact amount of whose contributions will be known to him. If it be said that the circumstances of the gift will prevent his feeling this obligation, we answer that it is not enough that he should not feel it; that he ought not to be placed in a position in which he would even be suspected by his enemies of feeling it, and that the existence of grounds for suspecting him, which would justify the suspicion of ordinary men under like circumstances, must inevitably diminish his influence by exposing him to injurious criticism. This is not the time, it seems to us, when it is well to weaken the sensitiveness of American officials about imputations on their official integrity, or to familiarize the public mind more than it has been familiarized already with the practice of gift-taking as a reward for public services. We have gone some distance in that direction already. Is it not time to stop or retrace our steps? We anticipate for President Garfield, after his recovery, a position of remarkable if not unprecedented authority and influence, of which we hope and believe he will make the best use. It is more than likely that he will be nominated for a second term. Is it wise, then, to furnish his opponents with the ready instrument of detraction which they will use against him with more or less effect, and which, in so far as it is effective against him, will be effective against all the good causes he is expected to promote?

On Saturday of last week Mr. Warner Miller was elected Senator in place of Mr. Thomas C. Platt for the "long term," which ends in 1887. This success of one of the caucus nominees was largely due to the desertion of the Conklingites by Mr. Sharpe, whose speech on the occasion caused a profound sensation among the politicians at Albany. According to his own account, he felt "bound by the action of the caucus," and this seems such a simple explanation that we are sorry to see some of our esteemed contemporaries throwing doubts upon it, and suggesting that the Speaker's action is the result of a "deal." Mr. Sharpe now figures in the Conklingite vocabulary as a "Judas," but the election of Mr. Miller has made many politicians indifferent to the odium of this once-dreaded term, and the list of Judases has been swelled every day since by the addition of important names. As we go to press it looks as if the election of Mr. Miller must be followed by that of Mr. Lapham, although Mr. Conkling is still trying to keep "his forces" together.

No one can be expected to feel anything like a fanatical enthusiasm over the election of Mr. Miller, who is an ordinary politician enough; but the news was received by most people with a distinct sense of relief and even positive satisfaction. Among persons connected with politics the galling tyranny and oppression of the Machine, as Mr. Conkling worked it, made the election of any anti-Conkling man seem like a guarantee of the right to a decent independence and freedom of action, while among the rest of the community the disgust produced by the recent performances of the "Boss" was so great that the choice of a poorer candidate than Mr. Miller would have been hailed with pleasure. The principal point of objection to him is that while a member of the House he lobbied a committee on behalf of the "wood-pulp" men, he himself being a "wood-pulp" man, and therefore pecuniarily interested in any measure relating to the industry. He is also charged with having deserted from the army, but his friends have had much more success in dealing with the second accusation than the first, for it appears to have been made out of the whole cloth.

There is something very peculiar about the case of Mr. Silas B. Dutcher. If any one has been instrumental in maintaining the deadlock at Albany it is he. He has, according to the New York *Times*, devoted almost the whole of his time since Platt was elected in January to "political work around the hotels in Albany," and never more actively than during the pending contest. What makes this extraordinary is, not that Dutcher is drawing $6,000 a year as Superintendent of Public Works, but that "the understanding was"—we quote the *Times* correspondence again—"when the Constitution was amended to provide for a Superintendent of Public Works, that this officer, to be appointed by the Governor, was to attend strictly to his business, and not to employ his power at all to control political affairs." In justice to Dutcher, we must say that we do not believe that he shared in this understanding even remotely, and that six thousand dollars would be with him a very paltry consideration for taking office in the spirit of President Hayes's famous executive order, so effectively ridiculed by the Superintendent's friend Conkling. The *Times* also takes Governor Cornell to task for not heeding the intent of the law, and packing Dutcher off about his business of inspection; but the reply must be that such was not the object of his appointment, and that it would be a great hardship to begin civil-service reform with Dutcher, when it is far from being a uni-

versally accepted doctrine that a public servant is chosen simply to discharge the duties of his office. The nominal responsibility of the Superintendent of Public Works to the Governor accordingly avails the public nothing in the presence of such a scandal, for both take exactly the same view of a functionary's obligation to the taxpayers.

During the week the New York banks gained largely in reserve, so that the surplus reserve was increased by $4,650,000 and brought up to about $11,250,000. There was no change meantime in the rates for foreign exchange, although the tone of this market was rather heavy. At the Stock Exchange it was a week of liquidation of "bull accounts" in stocks, induced (1) by a continuance of the railroad war between the trunk-lines, the rates for passenger fares from New York to Chicago having fallen to $8 50, and those for freights to nominal figures; (2) by the reports of the Agricultural Department that the wheat crop would be only about 83 per cent. of last year's yield; and (3), by the reports that the wheat harvests on the Continent would be above the average, and that throughout Great Britain about the average. The condition of the President has ceased to be an important element in Stock Exchange speculation, his recovery being deemed merely a question of time. The improved condition of the New York banks, the heaviness of foreign exchange, and the decline in the price of stocks (which has ranged from 2 to 17½ per cent.—the latter, Milwaukee & St. Paul common stock), have all tended to make the loan market very easy and to depress rates. This condition of the money market is likely to extend further into the autumn than usual because of the proposed redemption of between $30,000,000 and $40,000,000 of bonds called for payment by the Treasury October 1, but which may be prepaid with interest up to the date of presentation. The volume of mercantile transactions, as shown by Clearing-house returns, continues much larger than a year ago; the traffic of the railroads is also, in most cases, larger than a year ago; and the present war of rates, for which Mr. Vanderbilt is largely responsible, is attributed not so much to a deficiency of tonnage on the trunk-lines as to his wish to defeat schemes for rival roads, such as that proposed by the Continental Construction Company, and to promote stock-market interests. The price of silver bullion during the week has been comparatively steady at the recent decline. The closing price in London was 51*d.* per ounce. The bullion value here of the 412½-grain silver dollar was about 85⅝ cents.

On Thursday, thirty-five candidates for clerkships were examined at the Custom-house in this city under the supervision of Mr. N. G. Williams of the Collector's Office, Mr. John M. Comstock of the Naval Office, and Mr. John L. Livingston of the Surveyor's Office, being a commission appointed for that purpose. The detractors of the movement for civil-service reform, who pretend that the spoils system is furnishing "the best service in the world," have been in the habit of ridiculing competitive examinations as an outlandish contrivance by which it is to be ascertained what candidates know about the substance of the moon, or the velocity of light, or the inner chambers of the pyramids, or other things having nothing to do with the practical duties of a public servant. What is the truth? The candidates were first tested as to their ability to write from dictation, their penmanship, orthography, and punctuation. Then they had to write out various sums in numerals, to solve several problems in common and decimal fractions, and to answer some questions in applied arithmetic; next a number of simple questions in geography, history, and the science of government. Then followed an examination in grammar, the candidates being required to correct some examples of false syntax. Finally, they were asked to write a letter of their own composition upon a subject of general interest. It will be seen that all the subjects on which the candidates were examined were of immediate importance in the discharge of clerical duties except, perhaps, those connected with history and governmental science, an examination in which is had only for the purpose of testing the general intelligence and information of the candidate.

Every candid man will admit that this method of ascertaining, before appointments are made, those qualifications of candidates for clerkships which a man should possess in order to be an efficient clerk, is eminently sensible and practical. According to the rule, those who win the best ratings in the examination are to have the appointments. It is frequently objected that, after all, the result of such examinations cannot be depended upon; that some men who are able to pass an examination successfully show little practical ability afterward, and that others who possess considerable practical ability cannot pass an examination. But no intelligent advocate of the system of competitive examinations pretends that it can be depended upon to determine with absolute certainty in every case the practical ability of a candidate for office. They assert, however, that a man who has demonstrated his superiority to his competitors in penmanship, orthography, syntax, arithmetic, composition, and in general intelligence and information, is preferable, when clerkships are to be filled, to a man who is deficient in those things, and that a sufficient opportunity to test the purely practical ability of the man is furnished by the probationary period of six months, which, according to the rules, follows the successful passage of the examination. They further contend that the competitive system, supplemented by the period of probation, furnishes an infinitely more trustworthy test of the business qualifications of applicants for place than is furnished by recommendations from "Jake" Patterson, "Mike" Cregan, Mr. John F. Smyth, or even gentlemen of far more pretentious and potential names. They finally insist that the competitive system is the best, and in fact, as far as known, the only method that can be depended upon to exclude from the subordinate places in the Government the demoralizing element of favoritism and political serfdom, and to lift the service into a higher moral atmosphere. If there is a better method we shall be glad to accept it. But so far we have heard of none.

The proverbial hollowness of party platforms does not interfere with their usefulness as signs of the times. In fact, the greater the inconsistency between their professions and the selfish interests of political managers, the surer we may be that a public sentiment exists which the managers think must be propitiated. There was, accordingly, among the resolutions of the Ohio Democratic Convention at Columbus on Wednesday week none more significant than the very well worded one which committed the party to "a civil-service reform whereby offices shall be held to be a public trust to be administered for the public good, not spoils to be enjoyed as the reward of partisan zeal or service." This reads oddly, no doubt, in connection with the report that the convention was packed by the successful candidate for governor; but even so, it is the homage which political corruption pays to a real or supposed popular conviction on this vital question. Moreover, the more frequent the iteration of such doctrine by such bodies—and it grows more frequent from month to month—the more the edge is insensibly dulled of the reproach that a non-partisan civil service is unpractical and utopian. The more, too, the mind of the common man is made familiar with the mere phraseology of reform, the more his objections to it as a strange invention must be sapped. Let any one consider how many insincere declarations as to woman's suffrage and prohibition have found their way into party platforms, and come to nothing so far as concerned any attempt to carry them out, and yet have undoubtedly fostered both movements by depriving them at least of absurdity in the eyes of the public.

The robbers who "went through" the Chicago, Rock Island, and Pacific train, near Winston, Missouri, on Friday, seem to have accomplished their work with little difficulty. The cars were boarded at Winston about half-past nine in the evening, the conductor and a passenger shot dead, the express car robbed of several thousand dollars, and the train left by the gang, all in the space of a very few minutes, and without any effectual resistance, or, indeed, the apparent possibility of any. According to the statements of a Topeka policeman, who was on the train and seems to have been prepared to defend himself, one of the brakemen was far more alarmed at the sight of his revolver than at the presence of the robbers, no doubt considering the rifling of the express car a more satisfactory alternative than a general fight. It is hard to see how such descents upon trains containing treasure can be prevented unless the money is protected by a guard. Express messengers can hardly be expected to

do much in the way of protecting money unless they have at least some chance of saving their lives at the same time. A gang of determined desperadoes, who are ready to shoot down two or three people in charge of the train if necessary, can always count upon the general non-resistance of the passengers, and of course one successful raid of this kind will always lead to others. The robbers in the present case are believed to have been members of a well-known gang, who have committed many crimes against property and life already.

The King of the Sandwich Islands started some time ago on a tour round the world, the exact purpose of which does not as yet seem to be fully understood. According to the first account, his intention was to sell his kingdom to England or France. The story is, however, now denied as "frivolous and utterly false," and at the same time another explanation is brought forward as having been obtained from "a number of the most prominent planters and merchants from the Sandwich Islands." This explanation is that the King was "at one time induced" to agree to import a million Chinamen to the Sandwich Islands, on whom a capitation tax of $7 a head was to be levied. The Chinamen were then to be made citizens, and the kingdom "to be turned over to the Chinese Empire for this consideration." The scheme was, however, "balked" by the action of "foreign residents and officials." Upon this, "chagrined at the issue and his resulting unpopularity, the King went off on a tour of the world." This would rob the King's trip of all mercantile significance, and would imply a speculative spirit on the part of China which would be a surprise to most people. On the other hand, it is obvious that an intelligent monarch who wanted to sell his kingdom would hardly set off on a tour round the world to "place" it himself. Such a proceeding could not fail to have a bad influence on the market. The employment of a capable and active broker in New York or London, who could bring the property "out" in the regular way, see that it was "stocked" properly, and, if necessary, "wash" it a little, would lead to far more satisfactory results. We could point out a dozen or more well-known operators on Broad Street who would work off the Sandwich or any other available islands if the owners cared to put a price on them.

The Irish Land Bill has passed through another crisis in its course, by the adoption of the emigration clause by a vote of 126 to 23. This clause simply enables the Government to assist emigration with money. It has been strongly opposed by a small set of the Parnellites, now dwindled down to twenty-three, whom Mr. Gladstone denounced bitterly for their obstructiveness. The motive ascribed to them for opposing this clause is a desire to defeat the bill altogether by making it more obnoxious to the Lords, who, like most Englishmen of all parties, attach great importance to emigration as a remedy for Irish woes. In fact, we have very little doubt that, were it possible to carry it out, most Englishmen who have no special connection with Ireland, and take no special interest in Irish questions, would confine themselves to this remedy alone for Irish distress. From the time of Elizabeth down, the idea that the greatest obstacle to the peace and prosperity of Ireland has been the presence on her soil of the native Irish population, has had a firm hold on the English mind. It was the animating idea of King James's Plantations and of the Cromwellian Settlement, and has more or less influenced nearly all recent English opinion about Irish troubles. Lord Lyndhurst's desire that the island might be laid under water for twenty-four hours was simply a grotesque expression of it. It must be admitted, too, that it has been tried on a great scale. The emigration from Ireland since 1846 is probably, all things considered, the greatest exodus which has taken place in the world since the great movements of population which overthrew the Roman Empire. Of the gain to those who have emigrated there is no question. But of the gain to the remaining population of the island there is much reason for doubt. The emigrants have been for the most part hardy, energetic, enterprising, and thrifty, and generally in the prime of life, and their steady outflow during the last forty years cannot but have lowered the average power, both mental and physical, of those who have stayed at home. Moreover, the emigration does not seem to have had the smallest effect, in spite of the scale on which it has been tried, in diminishing Irish discontent, or in reconciling the bulk of the population to the existing political order.

Prince Alexander of Bulgaria has returned from Sistova, where his improvised new National Assembly was held last week, to his capital, Sophia. He was "enthusiastically" received by immense crowds, the city was decked with flags and brilliantly illuminated. Much of this enthusiasm was undoubtedly manufactured by his tools, native and foreign, judging from similar demonstrations during the Prince's late tour, of which fuller accounts have reached the newspapers of western Europe, and from the circumstance that Sophia was considered so hostile to the Prince's *coup d'état* that he did not dare convene his Assembly there, but at a comparatively insignificant border town on the Danube. On the other hand, it is now learned on good authority that the changes in the government of the Principality submitted to a *plébiscite* by the Prince and adopted by acclamation at Sistova, though distasteful to all patriotic Bulgarians as a violation of the constitution, are yet favorably regarded by the Conservative party, or the party of the former notables, for their promise of relief from the intrigues, political and personal, and demagogic agitations with which the Liberals, or former revolutionary party, have so long disgusted the quiet-loving and industrious portions of the people. The Zankoffs, Karaveloffs, and Soloveikoffs had certainly the legal right on their side in vehemently opposing the clothing of the Prince with dictatorial powers, and the latter has, it is known, carried his points by processes of intimidation and bribery, military violence and political jugglery, which make the elections and the Sistova Assembly appear like a farce worthy of Hayti under Soulouque, or of Louisiana under Kellogg. Still, a radical change in the constitution of Bulgaria seems to have been demanded by the necessities both of the Government and of the people; and even the abrogation of the constitution is probably applauded by those with whose private interests it agrees, and to whom it opens chances of influence and emolument formerly monopolized by men of an opposite party. Russian officers and Russian subsidies have finally placed Alexander I. of Bulgaria on a throne almost as autocratic as that of Alexander III. of Russia. It remains to be seen whether his is safer than that of his mighty cousin.

The result of the elections to the Hungarian Diet, held at the close of last month and the beginning of this, is a victory for the Liberal party and the Cabinet presided over, since 1875, by Coloman Tisza. The number of representatives to be elected was 414, and 398 had been elected on or before July 1. Of these, 226 were Liberals; 82 members of the Extreme Left, or Independence party; 66 members of the Moderate Opposition, or Conservatives; 13 Independents, or no-party men; and 11 Nationalists, or Slav and Ruman opposition men. The Liberals gained a number of seats, chiefly from the Extreme Left and the Moderate Opposition. Tisza himself was elected by acclamation in a Transylvanian district, and so was Pauler, the Minister of Justice, in Buda. Some of the Conservative leaders, among them Apponyi, suffered surprising defeats; others, like Paul Somssich, a famous leader in years past, and the editor, Urvári, achieved signal victories. Contrary to its practice three years ago, the Cabinet cast its influence in favor of the Conservative candidates, against those of the Left, wherever it felt too weak to have candidates of its own, and the consequence was an increased loss to the Left, which began the contest with buoyant hopes and carried it on with great activity. The latter party triumphed, among other places, in Klausenburg, where its candidates, two editors, had been made exceedingly popular by insults suffered at the hands of Austrian army officers, and at St. Gothard, where Helfy, an indefatigable parliamentary interpellator, profited by the present unpopularity of his antagonist, the ex-Minister of Finance Széll. Miletics, the stanch and impetuous Serb Nationalist, and Istóczy, notorious as an imitator of the German anti-Semites, are both re-elected. Among those elected without opposition is a son of Francis Pulszky, whom many Americans still remember as the companion of Kossuth on his tour through this country.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

THE President's convalescence continues very slow but uninterrupted. The "danger line," whatever that may precisely mean, is said to have been passed on the 13th. He has begun a diet of solid food, and the increase of fever has been slighter every day. The judgment of his physicians is, as it was last week, that unless something unforeseen, or, more accurately speaking, unexpected, should occur, his substantial recovery is to be counted upon with confidence. The President's mother has suddenly been taken critically ill.

The Albany deadlock was broken on Saturday by the election of Mr. Warner Miller, nominated by the Administration caucus, to fill the unexpired term of ex-Senator Platt. Mr. Miller had three votes to spare, and would have been elected without the defection from the Stalwart ranks of Speaker Sharpe. The latter, however, voted for him and for Mr. Lapham in place of Conkling, explaining in a speech that he regarded the action of the caucus as binding upon him, since he had at first been in favor of just such action. He had, he said, waited after the caucus nominations to see if the objection urged against Messrs. Miller and Lapham—namely, that they were members of the present House of Representatives—would not, as in his opinion it should, influence a reconsideration of the caucus's action. Inasmuch as it had not, he felt bound to follow the lead of the majority of the Republican members of the Legislature—a position he had always maintained. Before this speech in joint session Mr. Sharpe had divulged his intention of abandoning Conkling at a meeting of the Stalwart faction, and received very severe rebukes from his former associates. Assemblyman Armstrong charged him with ingratitude to his chief, and, it is reported, "emphasized his words by marching across the room with both hands raised, giving Mr. Sharpe a look that made the latter draw himself down in his seat." Great excitement naturally followed, but the Speaker stoutly maintained that there "was nothing more between" Mr. Conkling and himself "than personal friendship." Mr. Conkling is said to have referred to Mr. Sharpe's defection "in emphatic language." On Monday's ballot Lapham lacked but five votes of an election, and on Tuesday's but four. Tuesday, ex-Marshal Payn, who is one of Mr. Conkling's principal managers, received a letter from his chief requesting that his wavering supporters should hold on another forty-eight hours, during which something wholly unexpected might happen. So far nothing has occurred to justify the request.

Governor Cornell occupies the time afforded by the prolonged legislative session in vetoing bills which are not to his satisfaction. On Thursday he returned to the Senate without approval Senator Braman's bill appropriating an additional $500,000 to complete the exterior walls of the new Capitol; Senator Forster's bill to improve Riverside Park in this city; and Senator Rockwell's, to protect trees and shrubbery on Lake George. The vetoes were all laid on the table. The Governor's objection to the new Capitol appropriation, like others of his objections to bills requiring appropriations, was founded on public economy. He says: "It cannot be supposed that the new Capitol would have been authorized had the people had any realizing sense of its ultimate cost."

The Ohio Democratic Convention which met at Columbus on the 13th inst. nominated the following ticket: Governor, John W. Bookwalter; Lieut.-Governor, Edgar M. Johnson; Supreme Judge, E. F. Bingham; State Treasurer, A. F. Winslow; Attorney-General, Frank C. Dougherty; Commissioner of Public Works, John Crowe. The proceedings were boisterous and characterized by much eloquence. From the first the triumph of what is called in Ohio the Young Democracy was assured, and every allusion to their candidate, Mr. Bookwalter, was received with applause as vociferous as it was prearranged. The platform contained resolutions advocating the "equality of all people before the law," equal taxation, and other preliminaries of State conventions; objecting to criminal labor, condemning the last Legislature (Republican) for its "incompetency, hypocrisy, unnecessary and heavy increase in the burdens of taxation," and for other more particularly local atrocities; advocating civil-service reform; announcing the conviction that "a tariff should be for revenue" without "creating monopolies," and recommending a commission of revision on the subject. Bookwalter is said to have "no record," and this is believed to be unsalutary to a Democratic candidate in Ohio.

The Universal Life Insurance Company of this city, which has been in a known shaky condition for several years, was officially declared bankrupt on Saturday. The stockholders have been called upon for the important deficiencies of the company, and are now sufficiently warned that the intimation to the same effect some years ago was not purely perfunctory. The deficiency is nearly a million of dollars. Litigation is threatened owing to the position which the late Superintendent of Insurance, John F. Smyth, took in reference to the company; which circumstance is, of course, an unneeded commentary upon the character of Smyth's incumbency.

Ex-Judge John F. Dillon and Mr. A. L. Hopkins were on Friday appointed by Judge Westbrook joint receivers of all the property, assets, and franchises of the Manhattan Elevated Railway Company, on application of Attorney-General Ward in the suit of the People against the Company begun at Kingston, N. Y. Later in the day Mr. Hopkins was put in possession of the Company's offices and property. The suit will, of course, continue as if no receiver had been appointed.

The tribunal provided for by the Minnesota Legislature last winter to decide the constitutionality of the act to pay the State's railroad indebtedness, after a delay which seemed to promise ill for the success of the measure, was finally decided upon last week by Governor Pillsbury, and acceptances were received by him from the five prospective members of the court. They are Judges Young, of Minneapolis; Crosby, of Hastings; Brown, of Montevideo; Brill, of St. Paul; and (probably) Severance, of Mankato, all of whom are said to command the universal respect of the people of the State.

At the last session of the Vermont Legislature a new tax law was passed, the assessment under which has just been completed and announced by the Secretary of State. Last year the total valuation of the State was $100,350,000, which is this year increased over $63,000,000—to $163,391,893. The increase of the real-estate appraisal is from $71,114,747 in 1880 to $102,178,514, and of personal property from $15,037,262 to $46,804,079. The increase has come almost wholly from the larger and more prosperous cities and towns, Burlington, Rutland, St. Johnsbury, and others. In what are termed "the hill towns" the decline of property has continued. It should be said in explanation of the enormous general increase throughout the State (50 per cent. on real estate and 200 per cent. on personal property) that the new law for fixing valuations is extremely rigid, and persons can only escape making honest returns to the assessors by running the risk of having a reappraisal made and the assessor's arbitrary appraisement, which is based on a full valuation, doubled.

Central Iowa has been visited during the week with the heaviest rains known in the history of the State, and the crops are believed to have been seriously damaged. The Des Moines and Raccoon rivers were turned into torrents, and the streets of Des Moines were flooded so that navigation by boats was rendered necessary. In various places through the Northwest the heat has been intense, and in Cincinnati on the 12th inst. business had to be stopped entirely. The newspapers of that very "journalistic" city have accordingly made the most of the sensation, and report that "a grocer on Pendleton Street" discovered that his eggs had hatched, and that "several of the chicks are as robust as though hatched by the natural process."

The latest cyclone struck the town of New Ulm, Minnesota, the afternoon of the 15th inst., and demolished more than one hundred buildings, and killed and wounded thirty or more persons. The meteorological phenomena of the storm were remarkable, and its incidents also. Its duration was but twelve minutes.

Friday night a company of highwaymen, led, it is believed, by one or more of the notorious James Brothers, boarded and robbed a train of the Rock Island Railway, killing the conductor and one passenger, and badly frightening the rest, but robbing the express safe of less than $2,000.

Frederick Douglass, now Recorder of Deeds of the District of Columbia, has written a letter expressing his conviction that the colored voters of Virginia, "in view of all the circumstances"—a now hackneyed phrase in advice to this effect—"will do well to give their voice and vote to the Readjuster Party." He, of course, desires not to be understood as, in any degree or fashion, "adopting any theory or justification of repudiation."

Secretary Windom, who has been "accused" of expressing anticipations of a financial crash in a recent speech at Chicago, has written a letter to "a complaining friend" in which he affirms that he made no such prediction and furthermore sees "no indications of such an event."

The new Commissioner of Pensions, Col. Dudley, has signalized his replacement of Commissioner Bentley by an heroic effort to cut down the clerical force in his office to fit the appropriation for the same. To accomplish this he has recommended to Secretary Kirkwood the dismissal of about 100 clerks and the reduction of the salaries of about 60 others. It is explained that he has been governed in this decision by charitable motives, as the dismissal outright of 150 clerks would have served the purpose equally well.

Ex-Senator Howe, one of the American delegates to the Paris International Monetary Conference, has returned, and was interviewed on his arrival. He declares that "while the Conference proved unproductive from the American standpoint," nevertheless "the cause of bi-metallism has gained ground among European economists and statesmen from the debates" which took place during its sessions. Though there is no "immediate prospect" that "the idea" will be adopted by European governments, it will now "obtain a hearing on its merits." England, he further said, is the chief obstacle to the success of "the idea," and her attitude is explained by the fact that, having so much Irish legislation on her hands now, she does not "care to trouble herself with a silver question also"—a view which has not heretofore been taken, so far as we know.

The taking of evidence in the case of the Alumni of Dartmouth College against President Bartlett, charged with conduct unbecoming his position towards the students under his charge and his associates in the faculty, was finished on the 13th inst., when the accused himself appeared on the stand and, as de-

scribed by a reporter presumably accustomed to the artificial restraints of courts of justice, "delivered his address more like an advocate than a witness." He was cross-examined upon the points of his address by ex-Judge Fullerton, of this city, who is experienced in such cases, and after the introduction of other testimony in his favor the committee of investigation reserved its decision, promising to render it within a fortnight.

General John C. Pemberton, best known as the Confederate defender of Vicksburg against Grant's famous siege, died on the 13th at Penllyn, Penn.

The abolition by the Chinese Government of the Chinese Educational Commission, and the recall of the students now in this country, are explained from Hartford to be due to the conviction of the home authorities that "the progress made by the students in matters outside of strictly educational work in the schools is not to be of advantage to the Chinese of the future." In other words, Yung Wing is altogether too advanced for his countrymen, and the present difficulty illustrates the justice of the common conception of the latter as contradistinguished from the romantic view, for which Mr. Burlingame was mainly responsible.

FOREIGN.

Mr. Gladstone announced on Monday, in the House of Commons, the Commissioners under the Land Bill. They are Sergeant O'Hagan, Mr. Edward Falconer Litton (now a Liberal member of Parliament for the County of Tyrone), and Mr. John E. Vernon, who is the agent of Lord Pembroke, and whose name was greeted with groans from the Home-Rulers. After the Land Bill gets through the Committee, which is its present stage, clauses 12, 15, 27, and 34, to which there are voluminous amendments, will remain for consideration. Up to Tuesday, with these exceptions, 45 clauses had been passed. Mr. Gladstone has announced that the Scotch Endowment Bill would be insisted on, but the Bankruptcy Bill abandoned. The condition of Ireland is difficult to learn, because it is nearly impossible to know precisely how much credence to place in reports of outrages. "A land bailiff has been nearly beaten to death near Limerick. One arrest has been made in connection with the outrage," say Tuesday's despatches, for example. In a few days it may appear that this information was as unfounded as it is indefinite. Two hundred people are now under arrest in accordance with the terms of the Coercion Act.

The Windsor Park review of the British reserves has given great encouragement to the German advocates of the substitution of two for three years' army service. The Crown Prince has declared the review highly successful, and some of the battalions indistinguishable from regulars.

The sale of Lord Beaconsfield's effects, including plate, china, pictures, stereotype plates, and manuscripts, lasted three days of last week. The main attractions were the manuscripts of six of the Disraeli novels. That of 'The Young Duke' sold for 230 guineas; 'Contarini Fleming' for 220, to Sir Theodore Martin, who is said to have purchased it for the Queen; 'Venetia' for 90; 'Alroy' for 140; 'The Rise of Iskander' for 90, and 'Ixion in Heaven' for 90. The sums obtained were much larger than were expected.

A dinner was given on the 16th by the Lord Mayor to the British colonial representatives in London. King Kalakaua and the Prince of Wales, Lord Rosebery, Mr. Forster, Lord Napier, Sir George Strahan, Governor of Tasmania, Sir Bartle Frere, Sir Charles Gavan Duffy, Sir John Macdonald, Sir John Rose, Sir W. V. Whiteway, Premier of Newfoundland, Sir Julius Vogel, Hon. Saul Samuel, Agent-General for New South Wales, Sir P. Cunliffe Owen, Mr. Mowatt, Premier of Ontario, Mr. Bethune, of the same province, and others were among the guests, and speeches in keeping with the character of the banquet were made.

A "revolutionary Congress" is in session in London, and has held some enthusiastic meetings. At one of them "Citoyenne" Lecourt moved a resolution declaring that "the time for agitation by means of the press and the platform has ceased" and the time for force arrived. The resolution was seconded by the celebrated Louise Michel, and of course carried unanimously.

Dean Stanley died at London on Monday, of erysipelas.

The French courts have just sentenced to twenty years' imprisonment at hard labor, and ten years' police surveillance, an analogue of Jesse Pomeroy, who "could not explain" his motive for killing and cutting up a child whom "chance brought in his way." The case is one of peculiar atrocity.

The French Chambers are expected to adjourn on the 29th inst., ten days early, on account of the extreme heat. The heat is also reported intense in Madrid, and the summer residence of the Spanish Court, La Granja, is for the same reason "almost unbearable." The weather has been very favorable to the crops, however. Reports from Hungary, Russia, and France indicate that the yield will be excellent. The Rumanian crop has been badly damaged by storms and excessive spring rains.

M. Pierre Berthelot, an eminent chemist and a member of the Institute, has been chosen to the life-secretaryship left vacant by the death of M. Dufaure. He was the candidate of the Pure Left.

The bill granting the liberty of the press has passed the French Senate.

Don Carlos, the Spanish Pretender, has been requested by the Government to leave France, the rumored reason being his active, though occult, opposition to the Republic. He has accordingly proceeded to London. It is also said that France is particularly desirous of doing something to please Spain, to her relations with which Power the African complications have recently imparted some degree of "tension."

The French troubles in North Africa continue. Sfax was successfully occupied on Saturday after a bombardment of several days, and not, as the reports first stated, without resistance. Specific accounts of operations and events in the neighborhood are rare. The Europeans residing in Gabes have taken to the shipping in that port, alarmed at the menacing attitude of the Arabs. Turkish fanatics are said to have been preaching a "holy war," which, however, is nowadays talked of far oftener than it happens. The French press nevertheless displays sensitiveness on the subject, and Gambetta's paper is fiercely anti-Turkish. Governor Grévy, of Algeria, has written in cordial terms to General Saussier, the military commandant there, which, apparently, spoils a sensation, as it is taken as proof that M. Grévy has no intention of resigning. The insurgent chief, Bou Amena, has been badly routed, and, it is reported, was afterwards deserted by his troops, of which he had at the outset some three thousand only. Trouble is anticipated in other provinces, however. M. Barthélemy-St-Hilaire, the French Foreign Secretary, has assured "a correspondent" that the Government has no intention of retaining Tunis, or of conquering Tripoli.

Despite the Government success in the elections, the events of the week in Bulgaria decidedly point to non-popular action by Prince Alexander, who concentrated 7,000 troops with twenty-four pieces of artillery at Sistova to ensure the orderly conduct of the National Assembly sittings, and who has exhibited a strong preference for residing on board of a Danube gunboat to living in the town. The former ministers have taken refuge at Giurgevo, on the Rumanian side of the river. Nevertheless the Prince has issued a manifesto announcing a Liberal policy and expressing confidence in the popular support of the new administration. No Liberals, however, attended the session of the National Assembly on the 13th.

The cases of Midhat Pasha and his associates have been referred by the Sultan to the Sheik-ul-Islam and forty ulemas, who are engaged in examining the documents of the trial, to determine if the sentences are in accord with religious law. The decision of the Sultan is accordingly withheld for the present. Meantime he has been uncommonly civil to Midhat, sending him his own physician and displaying anxiety concerning his health. It is also asserted that Midhat, in appealing for pardon, confessed that he was accessory to the murder of Abdul Aziz.

Murders in the Russian provinces are believed to argue that the Nihilists have transferred their activities thither from the capital.

The funeral procession of the late Pope, Pius the Ninth, on the 12th inst., was assaulted by Roman roughs, and the sentence of six men to fine and imprisonment was greeted with a storm of hisses when announced in the court-room. A crowd of two thousand or more cheered the prisoners as they came out, and shouted "Down with the clericals" with enough gusto to give the disturbance the air of a miniature revolt. The actual Pope has, of course, told all the ambassadors accredited to the Vatican that "henceforth he shall consider himself more than ever a prisoner," and "prevented from attending any religious service in the basilicas of Rome." Had the funeral procession escaped insult it is probable that His Holiness "would have found an early occasion for leaving the doors of the Vatican," according to statements made in "clerical circles." A purely temporal monarch would not be justified in regarding an event of this sort as fresh evidence of tyranny on the part of the government which suppressed it and punished the participators in it. The Pope is said to have written privately to King Humbert, complaining, with much bitterness and indignation, of the conduct of the Government in not preventing the disturbance at the funeral.

The Boers are reported unlikely to pay the assessment of £1,200,000 fixed by the Royal Commission for the old debt of their country and the expenditure since its annexation. They have already rejected a proffered compromise, and issued a call for one of their mass meetings on September 10.

A good deal of excitement exists in Afghanistan, owing to the impending collision between the forces of Ayub Khan and those of the Ameer. There is no news of an engagement as yet, but the defeat of the rebels is predicted.

The news from Peru reports that vanquished country to be in a pitiable condition. At no time since the Chilian conquest, as it may fairly be called, has there been a Peruvian government in any strict sense, and the main difficulty in the way of restoring peace and tranquillity has been the lack of any authority with whom the Chilians might treat. Pierola, the ex-Dictator, has made a trip to Bolivia, but has accomplished nothing. Order is preserved by the invaders themselves. The Peruvian Church obstinately adheres to the fortunes of Pierola. Congress has not yet the quorum necessary to begin its readjusting labors. Bolivia, the original cause of the war, appears to have fared much better than her unhappy ally, and her business is reported to be good and increasing.

PRESIDENT GARFIELD'S OPPORTUNITY.

THE election of Mr. Miller to the seat in the Senate vacated by Mr. Platt, and the probable election of Mr. Lapham in place of Mr. Conkling, will have important consequences in national as well as in State politics. In the first place, it effectually disposes of the third term for General Grant in 1884, if that were not already disposed of by the greatly enhanced popularity of General Garfield. It also breaks the "Machine" in New York, and opens the way for a reorganization of the party in this city on a popular basis. More than all, it removes the chief obstacle to a reform of the civil service. There has not been so much ground cleared for political regeneration since the resumption of specie payments—perhaps not since the surrender of the rebel armies.

It must not be supposed, however, that Mr. Conkling is the author and creator of the "Machine," or that his disappearance from politics is necessarily fatal to it. The significance of his defeat is that the "Machine" had identified itself with him and had staked everything upon him. The "Machine" was in good working order before he became prominent in politics. During several changes of Administration it has been going from bad to worse, and if it should by any means survive the shock it has now received, and merely change masters, it would probably be more pernicious than it ever was under Conkling. Fortunately, there is nobody in sight who possesses Conkling's talent and experience to put its dislocated parts together, while, on the other hand, President Garfield has every motive to complete its destruction and send it to the junk-heap for good and all. His strength needs no artificial backing. Custom-houses and post-offices are of no value to him as aids to popularity. On the contrary, it would seem that the only thing he could do which would weaken the hold he now has on the hearts of his countrymen would be to make any compromise with the spoils system, or omit any step which may help to give it the *coup de grâce*.

The opportunity open to the President to render a great and enduring service to his generation is such as seldom comes to a statesman. The act of Guiteau has given a sudden drift and push to public sentiment in the right direction, and the downfall of Conkling, happening simultaneously, has taken out of the way the most serious obstacle to reform, leaving, as it were, a *tabula rasa* to write a new political system upon. Few persons are aware to what an extent patronage has perverted free institutions and created a governing class or caste exercising irresponsible power under republican forms. Patronage controls conventions, conventions make nominations, the nominees control patronage, and so the circle is complete. It is this which goes by the name of the "Machine." The system is subversive of free government in the sense that free government implies the unbiassed rule of the majority. Where it prevails the majority can be said to govern only in those intervals when, as in the recent struggle at Albany, the "Machine" is turned against itself, and the patronage wielded by one faction offsets the patronage of another. In these cases the will of the people becomes available as a makeweight or balance of power, and has some chance to make itself felt.

There is some reason to believe that President Garfield, whose discourses on the subject of the civil service have been among the most wholesome utterances to be found in our public records or magazine literature, was discouraged by the small success which attended President Hayes's attempts at reform, and especially by the political isolation in which the latter found himself placed after he had cut off the patronage of Senators and Representatives. There is evidence in President Garfield's acts that he desired to avoid the chance of being left without personal support in Congress, and that he believed that the best, perhaps the only, way to secure such support was to restore in part the system which Mr. Hayes had in part broken down. No sooner was this plan understood than a horde of office-seekers (including Guiteau) swooped down upon Washington, filling the corridors and waiting-rooms of the departments, besieging Cabinet ministers in their offices, at their homes, and in the public streets, and well-nigh putting an end to the transaction of business by their importunities. How much longer this swinish strife would have been tolerated, had it not been brought to an end by the lamentable act which lately startled the civilized world, we can only conjecture; but information which reached us prior to the attempted murder of the President was to the effect that a majority of the Cabinet were convinced that the Government could not be carried on under the spoils system much longer—that the civil service must be made self-regulating or it would eventually stop the wheels of government, since the Administration, from the President downward, would have no time for anything except to listen to the conflicting claims of applicants for office. For, be it known, these applicants cannot be kept out of the White House and the departments by the bayonet. Each one has a Congressman for or against him, and Congressmen have the right of access to all public officers and public places. The only remedy for such a chronic state of riot is the total obliteration of the spoils system.

The attempted assassination of the President brought everything to a standstill, and fixed the gaze of the country and of the world upon the cancer which has been so long preying upon us; and the verdict has been pronounced with a near approach to unanimity that the policy heretofore pursued in the distribution of offices must be radically amended. Whether Guiteau be sane or insane, it is clear that a system which makes the President the ultimate sole arbiter of the fate of thousands of men in office, and of thousands more desiring to be there, must expose him to peculiar perils. When we consider how many weak-minded and desperate men have had their doom pronounced without thorough enquiry and without any reason which they can understand, we should wonder rather that so many Presidents have escaped deadly assault than that one has been nearly murdered by an exasperated office-seeker. It will be President Garfield's great opportunity, upon his full restoration to health, to initiate and carry forward a reform which shall at once restore to the people the power which the Machine has in large part wrested from them, elevate the civil service by making the qualifications for appointment to office dependent solely upon merit, deliver the higher officers of the Government from their chronic state of siege, and emancipate the Presidency itself from a dangerous because arbitrary control over the destinies of a multitude of men.

THE FRENCH TROUBLES IN AFRICA.

THE French have apparently overreached themselves in entering on their new policy of adventure in Africa. It was undertaken as a sort of appeal to the national pride on the part of the Republic, and as an attempt to associate the new Government in the popular mind with military triumphs, without which few Frenchmen, even the most pacific, believe any French government can be considered stable. It was, however, not only intended to show that a republican government can win victories and extend French territory, but to show the superiority of the civil to the military *régime* in the management of the African colony. That Algeria ought to be governed by a civilian, and by civilian methods, has long been a favorite contention of the Republicans. One of their chief reproaches against the Empire was that it made the African province a military satrapy; and the numerous attempts made during the twenty years before Sedan to explain why it did not succeed as a colony, almost all put the military government in the foreground. They said that it was impossible to look for immigration on a great scale or for the growth of industrial enterprise in a country virtually ruled by martial law, and in which the chief man was a field-marshal. When the Republicans at last came into power, therefore, after the overthrow of MacMahon, one of their first acts was to inaugurate the civil régime by making M. Albert Grévy, the brother of the President, Governor-General of Algeria, and there was a good deal of trumpeting in the Republican papers over the happy effects which might be expected to flow from the appearance of a man in a black coat as the chief executive officer of the colony. There is only too much reason now to believe that it was a desire to show that the civil régime was after all not a tame or over-pacific régime, and that it could produce the steel hand whenever necessary, that led to the pursuit of the Kroumirs and the subsequent attack on the Bey.

The result has certainly been very unfortunate. There is probably not one of the Powers, except Germany, which has not been annoyed by the seizure of Tunis. England was estopped from objecting to it by the declarations of Lord Salisbury to M. Waddington at Berlin, but neither the English papers nor the English

ministers have been able to conceal their disgust with the argumentation by which M. Barthélemy-St.-Hilaire tried to justify it. He made the great mistake of putting the Kroumirs in the front, after it had been fully revealed that there were, militarily speaking, no Kroumirs; that the French generals had searched for them in vain, and that the only serious business undertaken by the troops was the advance on Tunis itself. Diplomatists occasionally submit to be duped with a good grace, but they always insist that the deception shall not be too transparent. The transaction, too, was aggravated, and, indeed, made to wear the air of a deliberate attempt to irritate the Italians, by the rôle which M. Roustan was allowed to play in it. This gentleman is, and has long been, the French Consul-General in Tunis, and has during the last two or three years been engaged in a bitter contest with the Italian Consul-General for ascendency over the Bey. The expedition against the Kroumirs, and the appearance of the French troops before the Bey's palace, of course, sealed M. Roustan's triumph; and all that is reported of him shows that he is not a man to bear his triumphs meekly. We believe the ordinary usage of diplomacy requires that an agent who has been anywhere engaged in a quarrel or conflict with the representative of another Power should, when it is over—even if he has been in the right and has been supported by his own Government—be removed, in the interest of peace and harmony, to some other post. In this case M. Roustan was not only not removed after the Bey had been reduced to dependence, but he was converted into the Bey's Minister of Foreign Affairs, and was allowed to announce this fact by circular himself, and in somewhat arrogant terms. All this has been galling in the highest degree to the Italians, who have reached the conclusion, indeed, that the attack on Tunis has been really intended to show them how little France cares about wounding their susceptibilities, and how ready she would be to enter into a quarrel with them. In this case, too, France to the Italians does not mean the Government at Paris, but the French people. The riots at Marseilles seem to them to reveal deep-seated hatred of the Italian name and race, for they originated in an attack on the Italian Club, which a Frenchman in good standing, who was present with one or two others in the house when it began, declares was absolutely unprovoked.

Since the riots and the subjugation of the Bey of Tunis, however, things have assumed a still more serious aspect. The Tripolitans, who are undoubtedly subjects of the Porte, which the Tunisians were not, apparently think their time is coming next, and have appealed to the Porte for protection, and the Porte has responded by sending ironclads and troops to Tripoli, in spite of the angry protests of the French ambassador, M. Tissot, who has left Constantinople in high dudgeon. For military demonstrations by the Porte, however, France need care little. The Sultan has other means of offence for which France may have to care a great deal, for he has apparently passed the word along the whole African coast that France means a general subjugation of the Mussulmans in that region. The Tunisians at Sfax, near the Tripolitan border, have accordingly risen in an insurrection which has terminated in the capture of the place after a stubborn resistance. On the other side of Algeria, the province of Oran—a French province, too—is in a flame, and the insurgents find safety and support along the frontier of Morocco and in the southern desert, where at this season it is impossible for European troops to march or fight. The leader in this movement, Bou Amena, has raised a band just in the style in which our Indian chiefs raise theirs, by getting the young men to believe that he is a bold leader and means fighting and robbing on a large scale. Thus far he has in every way justified the confidence of his followers. He has made a raid into the settled district, in which the raising of esparto grass by Spanish colonists is largely carried on, has killed or carried off seventeen hundred of them, and has driven the others down to the sea-coast in wild alarm, and has burnt houses and factories right and left. Hundreds of fugitives, too, are reported to have perished in the hills from hunger and thirst. The French columns in pursuit of him are too small and too poorly provided with cavalry to be effective. It is only cavalry which can engage Bou Amena. The French have little of it, except their native troops, who are not reliable and do not charge home. They easily fill a day with shouting and firing at long range, and for this the raiding forces care little. These have more than once penetrated to the settlements, and laid everything waste, by passing between the French columns, and in their retreat they retire into the desert, at great speed, making pursuit by infantry useless. The loss has thus far fallen mainly on Spanish colonists, who are loudly calling on their Government for protection or compensation. Their Government can, of course, do nothing as yet but appeal to that of France, and it is half expected that France will make answer that order cannot be restored without the occupation of Morocco, and that if Spain likes to undertake this she is welcome to do so.

There is now a general expectation of a Mussulman rising along the whole southern border from Morocco down to Tripoli, which probably can under no circumstances be quenched speedily, and will under any circumstances give active employment to one hundred thousand men, and which the Sultan is pretty sure to instigate freely. He has, ever since his reverses in 1877, been threatened by the Arabs with the loss of his Caliphate—a spiritual power which the Sultan seized in 1517, and has held ever since, after carrying the last Arab Caliph to Constantinople and shutting him up in a fortress. The rapid decline of the Ottoman power during the last few years has been reminding the Arabs that they invented the Caliphate and held it for nearly a thousand years, and that the Mussulman faith has not prospered under Ottoman ascendency. Temporal power is not necessary to make a good caliph any more than to make a good pope, and the more the Sultan feels his temporal power ebbing away, the more tenaciously, as is natural, he clings to the spiritual headship of Islam. It has of late been seriously threatened by the Arabs, both of central Arabia and of northern Africa, and the troubles of the French are very likely to be increased by his desire to figure in a contest with them as the defender of the faith in the darkest day Islam has yet known.

A GREAT LONGITUDINAL ENTERPRISE.

Almost every one who is familiar with the railroad system of this hemisphere is aware of the fact that there is no railroad or telegraph line connecting Behring Strait with Cape Horn; comparatively few persons, however, know that such a highway has for some years been under consideration, and that if it has not yet been actually built, it is not for want of generous and public-spirited promoters. It is now two years since Mr. Hilton Rowan Helper, of St. Louis, addressed to the Hon. Thomas Allen, president of the Iron Mountain and Southern Railway, Mr. Carlos S. Greeley, receiver of the Kansas Pacific Railway, and Dr. William T. Harris, Superintendent of Public Instruction, a communication on the subject of "a longitudinal midland double-track steel railway from a point high north in North America, running more or less southwardly through Mexico and Central America, to a point far south in South America, looking ultimately to such necessary and gradual extensions at either end, from time to time, as will eventually place Behring Strait and Cape Horn, and all the intermediate localities in uninterrupted and continuous overland communication by steam and by telegraph." Stating that he had long regarded this as a "perfectly practical enterprise," he gave a most convincing proof of his sincerity by enclosing to his correspondents a check for five thousand dollars, to be expended by them as a Committee of Award "in obtaining five of the most convincing and meritorious essays which may be offered," "three in prose and two in poetry, in truthful and vigorous and effective advocacy of the undertaking."

If the scheme of the Three Americas Intercontinental Railway had proceeded no farther than this we should have thought it open to a good deal of criticism; it would have been merely the idea—a grand and original idea no doubt, but still merely the idea—of a single advanced thinker, who ran great risk of being thought to have a mind too longitudinal and intercontinental for his age. But it by no means stopped here, for the gentlemen selected by Mr. Helper as his committee all accepted the commission, and wrote a letter to the promoter of the Three Americas Railway in which they gave expression to their "ardent hopes, braced by a high degree of confidence," that the road might be completed by the 14th of October, 1892, the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America. Dr. Harris did indeed subsequently resign from the committee, but this was merely on account of enforced absence in Europe, and Professor Horace H. Morgan, principal of the St. Louis High-School, immediately accepted a position on the committee as his successor.

The committee now proceeded to engage in what they refer to as "the somewhat fatiguing and responsible but peculiar and interesting labors" of their task. They received in all forty-

nine essays and poems from forty-seven contestants, and awarded five prizes—three for prose and two for poetry; and in communicating the result to Mr. Helper say explicitly that, as the result of some six months' consideration of the subject, "we incline to the opinion that there are but few, if any, clear-headed thinkers in this or any other country who will arise from a careful perusal of the five successful papers which you have thus elicited without giving a hearty assent to the general correctness of your own views in relation to this stupendous enterprise."

Mr. Helper has now collected all these essays and the correspondence and other papers relating to the subject into a volume, under the attractive title of 'The Three Americas Railway: An international and intercontinental enterprise, outlined in numerous formal disquisitions and five elaborate essays; all strongly advocating free and fast and full and friendly intercommunication between the sixteen adjunctive and concordant republics of the New World"; and few, if any, clear headed thinkers will question the propriety of his doing so. Of course, Professor Morgan, being chiefly devoted to educational work, might be suspected of approaching a project of this sort in an unpractical way, of being carried away by a sudden enthusiasm for longitudinal enterprises—though even this does not seem probable of a man who has recently received, as we are informed by Mr. Helper himself, a notable literary prize in "Brain-abounding Boston." But the other two members of the committee are practical men; one is president of an important and somewhat longitudinal railroad, the other is a railroad receiver, and all clear-headed thinkers who know anything about receivers know that they are seldom or never doctrinaires or idealists. Why these two gentlemen should encourage Mr. Helper to believe that his railroad from Behring Strait to Cape Horn can be built, unless it actually can be built, we cannot conceive.

As to the manner of executing the work, it is as yet evidently too early to go into details. "Shall the work be done," the projector asks, "by a nationally and internationally incorporated private company, or by the concerted and concentrated action of the governments of an unbroken series of sixteen of the most stately republics that the wisdom and virtues of the noblest specimens of mankind have ever yet framed upon the earth?" So we might ask, shall the capital stock be all paid in, or shall the road, like so many latitudinal highways, be built on bonds with the aid of a construction company? These are, after all, matters of detail. The important thing now is to arouse public sentiment in its favor by convincing clear-headed thinkers that it can be done, and this is the object of Mr. Helper's book.

Among other interesting features of the enterprise is the determination of the promoter that this shall be a republican as well as a longitudinal highway. He says that he has "not forgotten" Brazil, and such would seem to be the case from his casual reference to that Empire as "bigoted and benighted Brazil," "priest-ridden and prelate-polluted Brazil," "slavery-sustaining and progress-retarding Brazil," "negro-cursed and hybrid-blasted Brazil," "besotted and begrimed Brazil." The toleration by Brazil of monarchy, slavery, and Catholicism combined early led Mr. Helper to form an unfavorable opinion of the Empire, but he says that he was not absolutely decided about what stand he should take with regard to it until the claim of Mrs. Helen M. Fiedler, "a worthy and widowed citizen of the United States," against the Brazilian Government, entrusted to him for collection, was rejected. As we understand it, if the Fiedler claim—it was only $31,800—had been paid, it was Mr. Helper's intention to have a lateral road constructed to Rio Janeiro; and he prepared a letter for the perusal of Dom Pedro very frankly stating the connection between the Three Americas Railway and the claim; and calling his Majesty's attention to the fact that, if the claim was paid, he would probably, inside of fourteen years, be able to go by special train from Rio to New York in a week. He pointed out also the undeniable fact that by a land-route between these points "a long voyage, sea-sickness, storms at sea, and all the other discomforts and perils incident to ocean travel" would be avoided. The letter was never sent, however, the Fiedler claim was never paid, and the besotted, priest-ridden old bigot will have to go to New York just as he used to do.

It would be pleasant to let the imagination dwell upon the future of this great international highway, but we have little space for further quotations. A perusal of Mr. Carpenter's prize poem will convince any impartial person that the subject is one quite as well fitted for verse as for prose. Anticipating the objection that the scheme will be called Utopian, the poet meets it in this way:

> "Utopia's great plan
> Is more than realized in our completeness.
> For through Utopia no railway ran;
> No steamship sailed its seas in strength and fleetness;
> No telegraph embraced it in its span."

He calls attention to the fact that railroads running east and west have "found a limit by the wide Pacific," while longitudinally the whole hemisphere is open, and in three beautiful lines tersely states the great economical truth which anybody inclined to "bear" the future stock of the Three Americas Railway will do well to notice, that

> "the Railroad paves the way
> Of its advance, and smooths the ground before it
> *With profits that are earned from day to day.*"

It is, in short, a grand scheme, and ought to interest every native of America from Patagonia to "brain-abounding" Boston itself. The Brazilians will be sorry yet for the part they have played in the matter.

Correspondence.

GIVING NOTORIETY TO GUITEAU.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Can you tell me what possible justification the prison officials at Washington have to offer for allowing Guiteau's photograph to be taken, and copies thereof to be sold far and wide? I know the theory of the Rogues' Gallery. It is very well for the police to have a likeness of every criminal, that if he escape or offend again, and his capture be desired, the photographs may be distributed with an offer of reward, and thus every newsboy, every railway or hotel employee, be put on the *qui vive* for that face. But Guiteau is in custody, and even if his photograph should be taken why should it not be kept private? Why should we be compelled to see at every corner the face of the would-be assassin?

If the people are anxious to see what this man looks like, he himself is still more anxious to be seen. If the tales one hears are true, Guiteau is about as conceited and vain a fool as one can imagine. What he has done he has done largely with a view to the effect. His idea was not merely to kill the President: he put off shooting at him so as to kill him in a *more public place*. He was to be famous. Fame and notoriety have this in common, that those upon whom they rest are much talked about. What notorious character but thinks himself famous? Are there not masses who cannot distinguish fame and notoriety at all; with whom to be great is to be on every man's tongue, to have acts recorded and sayings repeated, to be photographed, to be in the illustrated papers? Just as men will live and die for fame, so men who know not fame from notoriety will live and die for notoriety. Ridicule is the only weapon against vanity. Persecution, threats are but new cause for exultation. Does Guiteau care because some one proposes that he should be made a target to test the power of the "bull dog"; or some one else, that he should be compelled to eat himself, two ounces each day; or some one else, that he should receive thirty-nine lashes every day till he dies; or some one else, that all whom he has swindled should now have him prosecuted; or the district-attorney, that he should be tried for each shot; or Mr. Conkling, that new and special laws should be passed to protect high executive officers? Probably not. Guiteau started out *to kill*, and thus defied the severest punishment known to civilized law. He never contemplated failure—what would-be murderer does? Had the law punishing an attempt to kill been ever so stringent it could have had no terrors for him. As a preventive, therefore, no new law could be of any avail.

To write the lives of men like Guiteau, to photograph them, to persecute them, is to give them what they have worked for. Their greatest punishment is to leave them, unnoticed, to ordinary punishments. Apart from its other qualities, Guiteau's act was as *foolish* as Griscom's fast, or that other's six thousand quarters of a mile run. What will pain him most, and make his example least likely to be followed, is the recognition of the truth that he is nothing more nor less than a "bore" and an "unmitigated ass." D. S.

Baltimore, July 16, 1881.

THE CRIME AGAINST THE PRESIDENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Since the attempt to assassinate the President several methods of preventing such offences in the future have been suggested. In your paper for July 7 there is mentioned a suggestion to amend the Constitution "so as to increase the penalty for any attempt on the life of the President." From the context it appears that the "increase of penalty" was to be a law of the District of Columbia. Why an amendment of the Constitution should precede such a law is not stated. The seventeenth clause of section viii. article 1 of the Constitution declares, that "Congress shall have power . . . to exercise exclusive legislation *in all cases whatsoever* over such District (not exceeding ten miles square) as may by the cession of particular States," etc. Does not this give express authority to pass such a law? It may be objected that a species of treason not authorized by the Constitution would be created. But this is not at all certain. No offence can be punished *as treason* except those specified in the Constitution; but it does not follow that no offence which other countries have declared treason can be punished, when authority is given by another clause of that instrument. Treason in

England was a very vague and uncertain offence: By one statute, if a woman whitewashed a farthing she was guilty of treason. In Maryland an assault on a policeman is punished more severely than a common assault. No one ever dreamed that this offence was treason against the State of Maryland. What difference can it make in the eye of a law that considers all men equal, if the person specially protected be a police officer or a president?

Much has been said about the "removal of the cause" of such crimes, meaning that the only effective remedy is a reform of our civil service. I grant that perhaps we should never have heard of Guiteau if the death of Mr. Garfield would not have given the Federal patronage to the wing of the dominant party to which he belongs or fancies he belongs. But is it not apt to lead to a confusion of ideas to speak in the same breath of legislative preventives of assassination and the reformation of the civil service? They are not coextensive terms. Animosity engendered by squabbling over public plunder is only one of the things which might lead to such an attempt. Difference in political faith, as in the case of Lincoln, or the depression of trade, or a thousand other things might be the motive. If Congress is to pass an act removing all inducements to kill presidents, they will have to legislate all human passions and follies out of existence. The most provident task for them would be to devise a law which, without conflicting with the spirit of our Government, should deter men having an inducement from murdering our rulers. Would not a law making assault with intent to kill upon *any person whatsoever* within the District of Columbia punishable with death, imprisonment for life, or for a term of years at the discretion of the court, be a move in the right direction? If so, it would not be open to the objection of drawing class distinctions.

—Respectfully yours, W. S. B., Jr.

Baltimore, Md., July 18.

DIVORCE LEGISLATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I call attention to a clause in the divorce laws of Maine—viz.: "A divorce may be decreed when the judge deems it reasonable and proper, conducive to domestic harmony, and consistent with the peace and morality of society." This is judicial discretion with a vengeance. Its effect is seen in the fact that there were granted in 1880 five hundred and ten divorces in Maine in a population of 648,945.

The following is the table of divorces in New England for the year 1878:

Maine	478
New Hampshire	241
Vermont	197
Massachusetts	600
Rhode Island	196
Connecticut	401
Total	2,113

What you say of the occasion of the passage of the "extraordinary statute" of New York is essentially true, probably, of many other States. Some person, often a third-class lawyer, has a personal grievance, either of his own or of a client, and secures a general law to cover a specific case. The law is made, and perhaps it is the entering wedge by which the State is in time completely changed in its divorce system. Massachusetts is a case in point. That State, until recently, allowed divorces for two or three causes only. But in fifteen years she made the number *nine*, outdoing even Connecticut; and the significant fact about the whole change is that it was made without the notice of the press or of her best citizens. The lawyers and a few sentimentalists effected the changes in successive steps in a very few years, and now the better class of citizens are slowly leading the State back. A lax public sentiment, which the New England Divorce Reform League aims to correct, is, as you intimate, the great obstacle to reform.

On the other hand, I have been informed, by one who ought to know, that when a law was sought making adultery a crime in New York, for the purpose of reaching the Oneida corruption, the movement was found utterly impracticable on account of the licentious lives of certain men of great influence at Albany. Some recent events certainly tend to confirm that view of the case.—Yours,

W. S. D.

THE CAMPBELLITE SECT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Notwithstanding Mr. Vernon's objections to this name, in the *Nation* of July 7, intelligent people, who are also Christians, will never consent to call a sect originating as an organization fifty-three years ago by a name which gives the impression that they alone are Christian, or followers of Christ. Could they go back as an organized body to the day of Pentecost there would be some reason in their claim. Let us have the facts, whether "objectionable" or not.—Respectfully yours,

W. H. Tomlins.

Rantoul, Ill., July 11, 1881.

PATRICK HENRY AS A PROPHET.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Having occasion the other day to look up a point in the debates of the Virginia Convention of 1781 I stumbled, by pure chance, upon what seems to me a very noteworthy piece of political prophecy.

At the opening of the session of June 24 Mr. Wythe submitted a resolution for the ratification of the Federal Constitution. Mr. Patrick Henry then took the floor and, among other things, said this:

"It has been repeatedly said here that the great object of a national government was national defence. That power which is said to be intended for security and safety may be rendered detestable and oppressive. If they give power to the general Government to provide for the *general defence*, the means must be commensurate to the end. All the means in the possession of the people must be given to the Government which is entrusted with the public defence. In this State there are two hundred and thirty-six thousand blacks, and there are many in several other States. But there are few or none in the Northern States; and yet, if the Northern States shall be of opinion that our slaves are numberless, they may call forth every national resource. May Congress not say *that every black man must fight?* Did we not see a little of this, last war? We were not so hard pushed as to make emancipation general; but acts of Assembly passed that every slave who would go to the army should be free. Another thing will contribute to bring this event about. Slavery is detested. We feel its fatal effects; we deplore it with all the pity of humanity. Let all these considerations at some future period press with full force on the minds of Congress. Let that urbanity which I trust will distinguish America, and the necessity of national defence—let all these things operate on their minds; they will search that paper [the Constitution] and see if they have power of manumission. And have they not, sir? Have they not power to provide for the general defence and welfare? May they not think that these call for the abolition of slavery? May they not pronounce all slaves free, and will they not be warranted by that power? This is no ambiguous implication or logical deduction. The paper [the Constitution] speaks to the point; they have the power in clear, unequivocal terms, and will clearly and certainly exercise it."

That so remarkable an utterance should have escaped the notice of the public men who took part in the debates preceding the emancipation of the slaves and the formation of the negro regiments would seem hardly possible. Yet I followed those discussions pretty closely at the time and I do not now recall any reference to it. H. A.

New York, July 12, 1881.

"PARALLEL LIVES" AT YALE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The solemn and laboriously analytic treatment of a subject upon which nothing worth saying can possibly be said, is a phenomenon which is only too familiar to any one who ever reads or goes to church. The person who is responsible for the treatment is generally responsible also for the choice of subject. College professors, however, are a peculiar class, whose literary efforts are chiefly confined to the propounding of subjects. It is, therefore, perhaps all the more proper that unusual brilliancy in this somewhat circumscribed field should receive prompt recognition. I desire to call the attention of the readers of the *Nation* to a recent achievement in this line, which shows a fine sense of proportion and an acute perception of the qualities of human greatness. One of the subjects offered this year for the essays to be written by the Yale Seniors in competition for the Townsend Prizes was "Goethe and Bushnell." Probably a word of oral explanation, or possibly a marginal note on the printed list of subjects, indicated that the Bushnell referred to was the late Rev. Horace Bushnell, D.D., of Hartford, Conn. One young man devoted himself to the task of profane comparison to which he had been invited by his instructors, and, having dutifully discovered in Goethe and the Rev. Horace Bushnell three "points of resemblance" and three "points of difference," was rewarded with one of the six prizes. No "points" either "of resemblance" or "of difference," which are worth talking about, would occur to an ordinary mind, except, perhaps, this "point" of decided "difference," that Goethe was a great man and the Rev. Horace Bushnell was not. It is extremely gratifying to the few admirers of Goethe to know that the young writer "claimed for each [that is, for Goethe as well as for the Rev. Horace Bushnell] a permanent influence on the world of thought." Truly the parallels of Plutarch have been put in the shade! Were it not that it would savor too much of servile imitation, I would respectfully suggest to the Yale faculty that a good subject to put on their list for next year would be "Shakspere and Cook"—meaning, of course, the "Rev." Joseph Cook.

Seriously, is it not right, in the interest of sound literary training, to enter a protest against the mischievous and far too prevalent practice of asking college students to think and to write on subjects which are barren or worse than barren? If a man is sent to dig gold where it cannot possibly be found, he will either come back empty-handed and disgusted, or he will bring home a lot of worthless stuff which he will try to palm off for gold.

Yale, '71.

Hartford, Conn., July 13, 1881.

Notes.

ROBERT CLARKE & Co. publish this month a new edition of Hassaurek's entertaining 'Four Years in Spanish America'; 'Prose Miscellanies,' by Judge Horace P. Biddle, of the Indiana Supreme Court; and 'Book of the Black Bass,' by Dr. James A. Henshall. In August, the following works: 'The Discovery of the Northwest in 1634 by John Nicollet,' by C. W. Butterfield; 'The St. Clair Papers,' edited by Wm. Henry Smith; 'Thomas Corwin,' by A. P. Russell; 'Miami Woods, and Other Poems,' by W. D. Gallagher; and 'The Shaksperean Myth,' by Appleton Morgan.——John D. Billings, Cambridgeport, Mass., announces a 'History of Sleeper's Tenth Mass. Battery.'——'Aryo-Semitic Speech: a Study of Linguistic Archæology,' by Prof. James F. McCurdy, is in the press of Warren F. Draper, Andover, Mass.——The Orange Judd Co. will publish 'Riding and Training Saddle-horses,' by Geo. E. Waring, jr., and Edward L. Anderson.——G. P. Putnam's Sons send us 'Wolfert's Roost' in their beautiful "Geoffrey Crayon" edition of Irving's works.——A new edition of Mr. R. B. Kimball's 'Saint Leger' has been brought out by Mr. Carleton.——I. K. Funk & Co. are publishing a collection of works to which they give the name of 'Librairie de luxe.' Why a set of novels uniformly bound should be called "The luxurious bookstore" is not revealed. Could they have intended "Bibliothèque de luxe"?——A memorial sketch of the late Thomas Donaldson, Baltimore's mayor at the outbreak of the rebellion, has been prepared by his friend Judge Geo. Wm. Brown, and published by Cushings & Bailey. Mr. Donaldson was a pupil at Round Hill school of George Bancroft and Joseph Coggswell; he afterwards graduated at Harvard, and finally became a distinguished advocate. He married a granddaughter of Timothy Pickering. His sympathies were more Northern than Southern during the civil war, and cost him temporary imprisonment. He is honorably remembered for his part in rescuing his State from repudiation.——From the New Jersey Geological Survey will issue in September a topographical map of the north-eastern part of the State, including all of Essex and Hudson, and much of Union, Morris, Passaic, and Bergen counties. It is being engraved on a scale of one inch to the mile, and will show the elevation of the surface at all points.——Mr. Bouton has received the current volume (the third) of M. Victor Champier's 'L'Année Artistique,' which is without a rival in the extent and accuracy of its information concerning the organization and personnel of national art (particularly that of France), the exhibitions and sales of the year, the bibliography, necrology, etc. A chapter is consecrated this year to the United States, and may be pardoned some disproportion, considering the writer's distance from the sources of information. One is perplexed, for instance, to find in the same category with New York and Brooklyn, and under a heading of equal typographic significance, "Le Roy," and then to read about the College of Fine Arts in Ingham University.——In the Berlin Geographical Society's *Journal*, No. 92, Dr. O. F. von Möllendorff has valuable maps of the mountain region to the north and west of Peking, and of his travels in that district and in the tract between Peking and Tientsin.——With Parts 25, 26 the new edition of 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas' (New York: Westermann) approaches completion. These contain maps of the solar system; of S. E. Australia, of South America (the first plate of six, viz., the north-western portion), of the United States (the belt west from Santa Fé), of Cape Colony and the adjacent States, and of the Balkan Peninsula. Hardly any maps of this issue have possessed greater timeliness or freshness.——Mr. Riordan concludes his series of three papers on "American Stained Glass" in the *American Art Review* for June. In the same number is printed an etching by Mr. J. A. Mitchell which is full of technical reflections of Brunet-Debaines, Mr. Mitchell's master, but in conception is clearly enough Mr. Mitchell's own, and of an original charm that is unusual. It dodges definition rather timidly, but in breadth of effect it is very successful and in character it is delightful. Mrs. Van Rensselaer's article on Bridgman's exhibition, and Mr. Benjamin's on that of the Society of American Artists, are belated, and appear to show consciousness of the fact.——It is reported by cable, we hope correctly, that the remarkable Franklin collection offered for sale by Mr. Henry Stevens was withdrawn in favor of the United States as a purchaser.

—The members of the Brown University class of 1880, the last which completed its studies in the college under the instruction of the late Professor Diman, have begun a movement for a memorial to that distinguished scholar, in which they have been joined by members of other classes, and which has been commended by President Robinson and Professors Lincoln, Harkness, and Greene. It is proposed to establish a fund of at least $10,000, the annual income of which is to be applied, under the direction of a committee consisting of the President and the Librarian of the University, and the Professor of History as chairman, to the purchase of works on mediæval and modern history. This fund is to be called the "Diman Memorial Fund," and the works purchased are to be suitably marked and placed in an alcove of the library specially set apart for the purpose, and known as the "Diman Memorial Alcove."

—Mr. Howells opens the August *Atlantic* with the first three chapters of a new story, called "Dr. Breen's Practice." The "Doctor" is Miss Grace Breen, and she has in her charge an invalid friend who is in process of obtaining a divorce from her husband, and whose flirtations with Mr. Libby, who knows well and frequently refers to the lady's husband, seem outrageous to the little watering-place circle at "Jocelyn's." Mrs. Maynard is, nevertheless, a young woman of excellent heart, and the whole situation is such as exactly suits Mr. Howells's disposition. We do not distrust his ability to reduce it to matter-of fact, though the attempt, it must be admitted, would be hazardous for any one else. Mr. James's "The Portrait of a Lady" reaches this month a climax of merit, and the reader finds himself hoping, a trifle nervously, that it will be finished before it can be spoiled. Mrs. Mary Hallock Foote completes the fiction of the number with the first part of a short story to be concluded next month. Mrs. Van Rensselaer writes very satisfactorily of "The New York Art Season"; Mr. Richard Grant White describes his notion of the character of *Iago*, and how it ought to be acted; Dr. James Freeman Clarke takes Parton's volume as a text for an essay on Voltaire, which is good reading, but of course no one quite agrees with what any one else says of Voltaire; and Mr. E. P. Whipple gives some "Recollections of James T. Fields," which, we are bound to say, are less entertaining than the similar ones Mr. Fields used to furnish concerning others. The really noteworthy papers are the conclusion of "Octave Thanet's" study of indoor paupers, and Mr. John Durand's "French Domestic Life and its Lessons," both of which have the excellence of suggestiveness. Mr. Stedman's "Corda Concordia," read at the opening of the Concord Summer School of Philosophy, can hardly be too highly praised, we should say, considering the difficulties of the "occasion." That its form should be its chief merit was doubtless involved in its conditions, and perhaps a slight excess of mysticism was similarly predestined. There is probably one thing which the Concord School is not, whatever else it may be—poetic, namely. Mr. F. H. Underwood provides the only review, if we except Dr. Clarke's; his running commentary on Ward's 'English Poets' has the interest of curiosity, and is an odd reminder of the kind of literary criticism that once abounded with us. "The Contributors' Club" is still engaged in discussing, among other subjects, "German Wives."

—One always reads with pleasure and profit Mr. H. P. Johnston's historical narratives of the Revolutionary epoch. Such a one, on the surrender of Cornwallis, opens the August *Harper*, in season for the approaching monumental festival at Yorktown, of which town the lot seems to be, as Mr. Johnston remarks, "that the more it becomes an historical spot, the less it becomes anything else." This paper is liberally illustrated with portraits and maps. Mr. Aldrich concludes his "Day in Africa" with the same light touch with which he began. Speaking of the characteristic monotony of Oriental street architecture—"an inhospitable massive wall, set with a door of the exact pattern of its neighbor"—"no wonder," he says, "the robber chief, in the 'Forty Thieves,' put a chalk-mark on the door of Ali Baba's house in order to find it again; and no wonder the slave girl, Morgiana, completely frustrated the device by marking half a dozen doors in a similar manner." On the whole, we think the text of Mr. Samuel Adams Drake's "White Mountains," which concludes with Part III. in this number, will not be missed; the theme is hackneyed, even if unexhausted and practically inexhaustible, and Mr. Drake's fine writing is no better than his predecessors'. In fact, it becomes a little insufferable when applied to the defenceless Old Man of the Mountain. Some of the most admirably engraved landscapes of the series, however, are here given. Mrs. Champney, as a Portuguese guide, we are, on the other hand, sorry to part with, for her "Neglected Corner of Europe," too, comes to an end. Her latest excursions ranged from Cintra to Coimbra. We have been puzzled by a single one of her allusions: "Froissart gives in his delicious obsolete English," etc. The weighty paper of the number is Mr. Frederic G. Mather's "Water Routes from the Great Northwest." It is far from being dull, though well charged with facts and figures, and it contains information which any one may be thankful to get so compactly and lucidly. It is a sort of discussion of the eventual competition, when the enlarged Welland Canal is opened, between the Canadian and American systems of artificial waterways, both existing and projected. Mr. Mather does not fear the enterprise of our neighbors, and thinks their Pacific road when completed will be fatal to the usefulness of the Welland Canal. One cannot help reflecting how much of this costly rivalry in the St. Lawrence basin grows out of an

ungeographical political division; but this subject is treated at length by Mr. Mather in the current *North American Review*.

—By act of Congress, approved March 3, 1879, it is provided that the Superintendent of the Census shall require and obtain from the officers of all life-insurance companies the statistics requisite for showing, in the aggregate, the financial transactions of this class of corporations for the year, and also for the decennium, ending December 31, 1879. While for many years past several of the States have, through their respective insurance departments, obtained similar statistics from the companies within their jurisdiction, the reports of no one department have contained the results of the business of all the companies, inasmuch as there was no State in which all were transacting business. The enquiry made under the above act is the first attempt on the part of the United States Government to obtain and tabulate the facts in regard to this great and growing business. The result is before us in advance sheets of the "Census Bulletin," containing eight tables, of which the first five show respectively the capital stock, income, disbursements, assets, and liabilities of fifty-nine companies for the year 1879; Tables VI. and VII. show respectively the number of policies and amount and kind of insurance written, and terminated, in each year of the decennium ending December 31, 1879; Table VIII. shows the number and amount terminated and mode of termination during each of the years from 1871 to 1879 inclusive. The Superintendent of the Census promises at a later date a "summary of the statute laws regulating life insurance in the several States and Territories, together with such information concerning extinct companies as it may be found practicable to obtain." Fully double the number of companies now reporting to the Government have gone out of business by failure or voluntary retirement during the last fifteen years, nearly all of which came into existence during the decade of inflation that culminated with the panic of 1873. Born in an atmosphere of financial disease, ignorantly cared for or wickedly abused by their guardians, no wonder that their lives did not average more than those of human beings begun under similarly unfavorable conditions.

—A glance at the summary of Tables I. to V. will give some idea of the magnitude of the business. The total income of the fifty-nine companies for the year 1879 was, in round numbers, eighty-three millions; total disbursements, seventy-six millions; total assets, four hundred and forty-two millions; total liabilities, three hundred and sixty-five millions; total surplus, seventy-six millions. Of the disbursements, more than sixty-two millions were paid to policy-holders or their families for death-claims, matured endowments, annuities, dividends, surrenders, etc. The significance to the beneficiaries of the annual distribution of these vast sums among more than twenty thousand families, its significance to the community in alleviating misery and in preventing pauperism and crime, can hardly be comprehended.

—The death of Dean Stanley removes the most beloved, the most liberal, and the most influential of Anglican prelates. He was the son of the Bishop of Norwich, and the pupil at Rugby of Dr. Arnold, whose biography he produced in 1844, and of whom he was peculiarly the disciple, both intellectually—to the extent of sharing his historical theories—and morally and religiously, as a leading advocate of the Broad-Church idea. The literary activity of Dean Stanley has been very great, and has resulted in several works of great charm and permanent value. His historical writings are dominated by a distinct even if unconscious *Tendenz*—namely, to establish a foundation for the doctrines of the Broad Church—and the sermonizing quality often gets the better of the narrative and critical. They are, nevertheless, striking for the imaginative power which invests with reality scenes, times, and personages that have become almost mythical either by reason of too great familiarity, as in the case of Bible history, or too little. This is accomplished by the aid of abundant suggestive illustrations in the shape of parallels between ancient and modern men and epochs. Perhaps his most important work was 'Lectures on the History of the Jewish Church,' begun in 1863, and ending in a third series in 1876. Dean Stanley's visit to this country in 1878 is well remembered. Since his return he has participated in the revision of the New Testament, and in the defence of the Revised Version. His unfortunate zeal in seeking to commemorate the late Prince Imperial by a monument in Westminster Abbey, which only the displeasure of the House of Commons could check, showed that his heart was capable of imposing upon his head; but it will readily be forgotten, despite the shock which it gave his admirers in both hemispheres, in view of the sweetness and amiability of his character and his liberalizing modification of Anglican theology.

—Burton reminds us that "Pancrates in Lucian, wanting a servant as he went from Memphis to Coptus in Egypt, took a door-bar and after some superstitious words pronounced (Eucrates, the relator, was then present) made it stand like a serving-man, fetch him water, turn the spit, serve in supper, and what work he would beside; and when he had done that service he desired, turned his man to a stick again." A recent edition of this fable, however (Albany, 1881), represents that while turning "his man to a stick again" Pancrates was so unfortunate as to metamorphose himself in the same way, and that his friends and companions, despite their most earnest efforts, were unable to restore him to his former condition, his magic having lost its potency at this unlucky instant. It will perhaps prove a valuable lesson to many who are inclined to juggle with unlawful necromancies, and will doubtless afford the material for an interesting note to subsequent commentators on the works of Ovid.

—Six issues of the *Palatine Note-book*, an English monthly which began with the current year, lead us to augur very favorably of the new publication. As is indicated by its title, it is specially concerned with the counties of Lancaster, Chester, and Durham. Its pages have already made noteworthy contributions to biography and bibliography, with reference to Nathan Walworth, Peter de Wetenhale, William de Northwell, Henry Newcome, the Rev. John Watson, Colonel John Townley, Dr. Samuel Hibbert-Ware, Mr. De Quincey, Bishop George Downame, the Rev. John Whitaker, the Chetham Society, the Manchester Collegiate Church, etc., etc. Such as are curious about Mother Shipton, of whom "no one can prove that she ever really existed," will find in it a good deal touching her so-called prophecies. The *Palatine Note-book*, of which the typography is as elegant as its contents are scholarly, is edited by a gentleman who has distinguished himself by an admirable life of Dr. Thomas Fuller, Mr. John E. Bailey, of Stretford, near Manchester.

—The "Allgemeiner Deutscher Schriftstellerverband" have presented a petition to Bismarck, praying that he would found an Imperial Library, which should receive and preserve all the literary productions of the Empire—an analogue of the British Museum, in fact. They complain that the great German libraries at present are too learned in their aims; what is needed is a library which shall contain "not merely the books which we desire to read for the sake of their contents, but also those which we desire to become acquainted with because they have been published." They should be the register of the mental product of the whole people. In the five great English libraries, continue the petitioners, one can follow in its smallest details the scientific, political, social, commercial life of the people, and this is as it should be; but the German scholar finds no such repository in his country. He must search at Paris or at London for many a German work not to be met with at home. The committee call upon the Chancellor to fill this gap; to found a library that shall be in its way what the Archæological Institute at Rome, the Monumenta Germaniæ Historica, the excavations at Olympia, are in theirs. They remind him that in France and the United States every publisher must give the Government two copies of each of his publications, in Italy three, in Austria four, and in Great Britain five; and they see no reason why a similar provision should not build up a great national library at Berlin.

FITZGERALD'S GEORGE THE FOURTH.

The Life of George the Fourth. By Percy Fitzgerald, M.A., F.S.A. 2 vols. London: Tinsley Brothers; New York: Harper & Bros.

"I ALWAYS admire the huge amount of husks which industrious men will let run through the sieve of their minds." This remark, with which a lady met the statement that we had read through the whole of Fitzgerald's 'Life of George IV.,' set us on thinking. Is there any really valid justification for filling one's mind, even for a moment, with the huge lot of literary "husks" contained in the 800 closely-printed pages wherein Mr. Fitzgerald has narrated the life of the last of the Georges, "including his letters and opinions, with a view of the men, manners, and politics of his reign"? It were vain to pretend that more than an infinitesimally small part of the food provided by our author nourishes either soul, mind, or spirit. Of the ordinary pleas which may be urged in favor of idle reading, few (if any) are in this case available. We cannot say that this biography of George IV. is entertaining. Here and there you may pick up an anecdote which may raise a smile. The picture of the Prince of Wales racing a flock of turkeys against a set of geese may perhaps amuse those who have never before heard the story. The sketches of Sir John Lade, of the Barrys, of the old Duke of Norfolk, and of a whole gang of "bloods" who pursued what were called their pleasures towards the close of the last century, with a dull monotony absolutely unredeemed by wit or humor, may have some slight interest for any one who has never read 'Vanity Fair.' But any student of Thackeray's masterpiece will feel that the living picture drawn of the Regency by the greatest of modern satirists makes it a waste of time even to glance at Mr. Fitzgerald's lifeless sketch. If there is anything in his book which, from a literary point of view, is

worth preserving, it is a verse here and there of now-forgotten satire which throws a gleam of real light on the group of witless revellers who found in the Prince of Wales their appropriate leader:

"What can Bobby Onslow do?
He can drive a coach and two;
Can Bobby Onslow do no more?
Yes, he can drive a coach and four."

Here we have in its briefest form a summary of the merits not only of Bobby Onslow, but also of the whole set of noble blackguards, who never appeared to greater advantage than when they proved that under happier circumstances they might have been useful members of society as grooms or coachmen.

But the book, it may be thought, perhaps puts a maligned or misunderstood character in a new and more favorable light. We admit that we took up Mr. Fitzgerald's work with a faint expectation that George might turn out a trifle less odious and contemptible than in the picture drawn of him by Thackeray. We have, further, not the remotest doubt that Mr. Fitzgerald, when he began his work, intended to try his hand at a little bit of historical whitewashing. Throughout the book he makes spasmodic and strenuous efforts to act up to the conventional duties of a biographer, and to show that his hero had about him traits which, if not heroic, yet might excite some slight sentiment of affection or of respect. There is something really pathetic in our author's last desperate rally at the conclusion of the second volume on behalf of George.

"Many instances," we are told, "could be given of his kindly feeling and good heart. His charities were often magnificent. . . . His name, too, is pleasingly associated with that of Beethoven. . . . At the dismal conferences with the Recorder of London, where the fates of prisoners were finally determined, the King was invariably on the side of mercy. . . . In his relations with certain remarkable men of mark and judgment he really shone. . . . Walter Scott became quite fascinated by his advances. On one occasion he wept and went down on his knees to a bishop when reproved for desecrating the Sabbath."

But, in the long run, facts and honesty are too strong for biographical partiality, and if any human being at this time of day entertains a lingering belief that George IV. possessed we do not say virtues, but at least manly vices, this faith must be shattered by Mr. Fitzgerald's pages. There have doubtless existed men more wicked than George, but one may fairly doubt whether modern European society has ever produced a monarch so thoroughly contemptible. He is hardly man enough to be an object of hatred. You might almost as easily hate a wax figure at Mme. Tussaud's as hate the miserable, maudlin, drunken, lying old man who not much more than fifty years ago sat on the throne of England and impeded to the best of his power every measure which men of sense and energy (whatever their politics) knew to be for the benefit of the country. If it were an historian's duty, which happily it is not, to estimate the moral responsibility of human beings for their vices and errors, he would have a good deal to urge in extenuation of George IV.'s culpability. The eldest son of George III. received from his father as unfortunate a training as any child ever received from a well-meaning parent. He inherited none of that father's virtues, but he did inherit from George III. a taint of madness which was, both in father and son, closely connected with that turn for intrigue which in the son took the form of impudent mendacity. The moral responsibility of such a man for his vices was, one may charitably hope, slight. His Majesty was endowed, to borrow an expression from Carlyle, "with nothing but a stomach and the effrontery to fill it." The curiosity, if not the interest, of his life lies in the singular fatality by which a voluptuary who was heir to the throne of England, and was, either in reality or in name, King of England for nineteen years, never succeeded in enjoying a single year of the pleasures for which he sighed. Such a life may certainly be useful to point a moral, but, except for any one bent on writing a new satire on the vanity of human wishes, it hardly affords a subject, from a biographical point of view, for interesting or profitable study.

Though the life of George IV. is not as amusing as a second-rate novel, though it adds little to the knowledge of English history which is possessed by any well-educated man, though it sheds scarcely any new light on the character of a man so contemptible that his idiosyncrasies would hardly under any circumstances be worth careful analysis, we are convinced that intelligent students of history are fully justified in reading such works as Mr. Fitzgerald's last production. The reasons for this conviction, which vindicate a good deal of apparently useless reading, may easily be stated, and are, we think, worth stating.

The details of biography afford the only means of really entering into the spirit of past generations. As one ponders upon the details of George's life one comes to understand several matters as to the condition of England during at least forty years which can hardly be learnt from the solemn pages of professed historians. Any one, for example, who wishes to realize what was the effect produced in England by the recoil from French revolutionary excesses can measure the force of the conservative reaction by the fact that a king like George IV. was tolerated, one might almost say respected. He had every defect which renders a human being contemptible. He was a voluptuary, a liar, a poltroon. Throughout life he was in debt, and had to practise all the meannesses of a debtor. The Queen's trial opened to the popular view the most disgusting and degrading view of royalty which has ever been presented to the English public. Yet, in spite of all this, the King was borne with. If he was hissed by the London mob he was received with rapturous applause in Dublin and in Edinburgh. That he should, till his death, have found bishops to flatter him is nothing; though that a man so respectable as Bishop Sumner should have been the admirer of George IV. tells us a good deal about the condition of the Church of England between 1820 and 1830. What seems almost incredible is, that Sir Walter Scott should have been found among the King's admirers. Toryism must, indeed, have been a living force when a Tory so manly and upright as the author of 'Waverley' could feel that a glass was sacred because it had touched George's lips.

Nor is George IV. valuable solely as providing for future times a means by which to measure the strength of the reaction from Jacobinism. His whole career is a singular and convincing proof of the immense influence which, down to a time within the memory of living men, was possessed by the Crown of England. George had not a single quality which enables a man to rule his fellows, but politicians of all classes clearly took it for granted that George, whether as regent or king, could, if he chose, exert a decisive influence on the course of English politics. The Whigs, once and again, staked everything on the expectation of the Prince of Wales becoming regent and bringing the Whigs into power. The very means taken by Pitt to tie the Regent's hands seem to prove that he himself agreed with his opponents in assuming that a political party backed up by the Crown could retain power even against the will of the nation. That this assumption was well founded it is a little difficult to believe. Possibly both Whigs and Tories overrated the effect of Crown influence. But even supposing that the ablest statesmen of the day forgot that the Prince Regent would never have wielded the authority due to the personal character of George III., their error, if error it was, is most instructive. One may feel assured that the power of the Crown was something quite unknown to modern Englishmen, if experienced politicians could believe, rightly or not, that a change in the occupant of the throne would be sufficient to alter the relative position of the two great historical parties which divided the nation.

Nor is it only with regard to the machinery of the English constitution that the life of George IV. gives very valuable information. His relation to the politicians of his time goes further than any one fact we know of to explain the deep discredit into which the Whigs fell under the guidance of Fox and, for that matter, of Burke. The plain fact which every student of English politics should bear in mind is that, in the long run, English opinion has invariably been found to support statesmen and parties who, whether truly or not, were supposed in their day to represent and share the national sympathy with sound public morality and decent private respectability. The respectable party is the party which is sure in the end to command the suffrages of Englishmen. With this value for humdrum respectability neither Fox nor Burke had any real sympathy. The alliance between the Whigs and the Prince of Wales shocked some of the strongest of English feelings. It was taken to be (not, we admit, quite fairly) an alliance concocted by men who either did not or would not see the Prince's glaring faults, and who, in their eagerness to grasp at power, were prepared to set a son in unseemly opposition to his father, and, by the aid of court influence, carry out a policy opposed to the wish of the nation. Nothing was ever more truly a blessing in disguise than the treachery with which George deserted his former associates. He kept them out of office, and by the severe process of exclusion from power restored to them the virtues and the high character of Liberal statesmen.

Reflection, further, on the life of the most worthless, though not probably the wickedest, of English monarchs, gives rise to several reflections on the future as well as on the past of English constitutional government. Is it certain, for example, that the English constitution as we now know it could work and prosper under the weight of such an incubus as the last of the Georges? One may well doubt it. It is difficult to imagine that Mr. Gladstone, Lord Hartington, or Sir Stafford Northcote could undertake to perform the work of modern ministers if they were compelled at the same time to soothe the querulous fears, to listen to the childish fallacies, or to guard against the treacherous intrigues of a sovereign for whom every one, from his prime minister down to his valet, felt and expressed the most unlimited contempt. But is it, on the other hand, at all certain that the chances of hereditary succession may not bring to the throne of England kings not, perhaps, as contemptible but as unfitted for their post as was George IV.? It

were easy to point to causes which make such a catastrophe at any rate possible. It were difficult to show that the English constitution provides means for averting this possible calamity. But there is no need, for our purpose, to trouble our readers with constitutional speculations. All that we are concerned to prove is that the 'Life of George IV.' and works of a like kind afford valuable material for interesting reflection. It is worth while to let a mass of husks pass through the sieve of one's mind if the sieve can retain some pieces of useful, rare, and solid nutriment which is not to be found anywhere but in the midst of biographical husks.

HOW I CROSSED AFRICA.

How I Crossed Africa: From the Atlantic to the Indian Ocean. By Major Serpa Pinto. Translated from the manuscript by Alfred Elwes. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1881. 2 vols.

OUR earliest authorities upon the subject of Africa, after the classical writers, are the Portuguese. Early in the sixteenth century they established factories on both coasts; their traders crossed the interior from east to west and from west to east, whilst their missionaries founded large and prosperous stations with cathedrals, churches, and stone houses. But when the lake regions of Central Africa were again opened by European explorers, about twenty-five years ago, Portuguese exploration was degraded to the iniquitous exploits of mulatto slave-dealers. De Lacerda's famous last expedition, which started from Lisbon in 1798, closed the series of brilliant Portuguese exploits in African discovery. Since then Portugal's geographical work has been chiefly of a literary character. In 1876, however, a geographical society was founded in Lisbon simultaneously with a "Permanent Commission of African Exploration." This revival was partly due to the reproaches levelled at the Portuguese from all sides, because, while claiming at least a nominal authority over more than one-half of southern tropical Africa, they had done less, in this century certainly, than any other European nation to civilize that vast country; and it was due still more to the misdirected zeal of English missionaries of the Protestant faith, whose antipathies were against the Moslems and all Christians not of their own sect, and who openly advocated the annexation of Portuguese territory.

The first important result of this new impetus in Portugal is described in Major Serpa Pinto's 'How I Crossed Africa.' The author divides his work into two parts, with separate titles: "The King's Rifle" and "The Coillard Family." In a tediously long preface, or rather series of prefaces and prologues, full of very uninteresting personal matters, he tells us that he chose these names out of gratitude to the supposed saviours of the expedition. The first title refers to a splendid double-barrelled breech-loader which his Majesty Dom Louis I. presented to him, and with which he killed divers lions, tigers, and other wild beasts, blood-thirsty savages and mutinous porters; the second, to the kind-hearted French couple who nursed him through a long and dangerous illness. Major Serpa Pinto arrived at Loanda in August, 1877, and left Benguella for the interior on November 12 of the same year. The journey from that point until he reached Durban, in Natal, seventeen months later, may be divided into three parts. The first comprises the well-known track from the Atlantic to Bihé, over ground often described by European travellers. By a serious literary mistake, too much stress has been laid upon this portion of the route, as well as upon the last part, stretching from Daca to Durban. Here our author might well have been sparing of particulars, husbanding his space for the passage from Bihé to Daca, which led through the heart of the great watershed of South Africa, now for the first time described.

Accompanied by two of his countrymen, Lieutenant Capello and Lieutenant Ivens, both of the Royal Portuguese Navy, and about fifty porters, the explorer started for Bihé. The beautiful valley of the Dombe Grande, which they left behind on December 4, led them to Quillengues (Kwilenges; we give the Portuguese spelling of geographical names, which the translator has thought fit to preserve), where the sentimental major mourns over "the first great trouble during a journey so fruitful in mishaps"—the loss of a pet sheep. They left Quillengues on New Year's Day, 1878, and met at Caconda the naturalist José d'Anchieta. At Caconda the first real trouble began. For some reason, which Serpa Pinto, who is the very soul of frankness, does not give, the two officers left him, to meet him once more among the orange-groves of Belmonte and then to fade out of sight. There evidently had been some unpleasantness between them. The twenty days before reaching Bihé, "days of profound anxiety," were certainly fraught with danger—prospects of famine, mutiny among the carriers, and last, but by no means least, the petty intrigues and rascalities of his own countrymen, "expatriated wretches," settled along the route, who did their best to bring about an utter collapse of the expedition. Before reaching Bihé sickness and fever overcame the leader, and after several days of unconsciousness he found himself in Silva Porto's station at Belmonte in the Bihé, in a comfortable bed, with fine linen sheets and even pink curtains with a snowy white fringe—luxuries for which he is, as usual, gushingly grateful.

On the 14th of June he broke up his camp at Belmonte and began his journey through a virgin country, hitherto only vaguely known from oral descriptions of Portuguese traders and never before delineated upon any map. This portion, until Lialui is reached on the Upper Zambesi, is the pith of the book. In spite of sickness, hostile attacks, and innumerable difficulties, the plucky explorer kept a detailed geographical journal, took astronomical and hypsometrical observations at every important point, and was thus enabled to lay down the exact topography of his journey, including for the first time the true courses of the upper tributaries of the Zambesi. The first country to the east of Bihé is the unexplored land of the Quimbandes, watered by some of the head streams of the Cuanza River. These people are described as a clan of the great Ganguella family, and a lazy, useless race, with a somewhat Jewish physiognomy. East of the Quimbandes inhabit the Luchazes, belonging to the same family. In their very attractive country Serpa Pinto climbs a lofty mountain, the Cassara Caiéra, 5,298 feet above the sea-level, from which he enjoys a magnificent panorama, exhibiting in full view the entire course of the River Cuango, with the watersheds of the Cuito, Cuime, and Cuiba. The description of these hitherto entirely unexplored rivers forms one of the most interesting chapters in the book.

From the Luchaze country the route lay toward the southeast, to the country of the Ambuellas, where the same species of immoral hospitality prevails which Holub encountered in Sepopo's domains, and was the cause of much embarrassment to Serpa Pinto, two black princesses having been sent by their father, Cahu-heú-úe, King of the Ambuellas, to place themselves at his disposal, in spite of his virtuous obduracy. He was most kindly treated by the King, and indeed by every one of this amiable and industrious tribe, who in agriculture surpass any visited by our traveller. On the 4th of August he left the capital, and following again a southeasterly direction, after twenty days' march, not marked by any particular incident, reached on the 24th of August, at ten o'clock in the morning, what was really the goal of his journey, the great Zambesi River. At five o'clock in the afternoon of the same day he reached Lialui, the capital of the Barôze or Lui, thus concluding the second part of his journey, and with it his real exploration.

At Lialui the most serious accident of the whole journey befell the party. At the instigation of Gambella, the Prime Minister of King Lobossi, the major's camp was attacked at night and set on fire. The scene, which resembles one from Dante's 'Inferno,' is described with almost Dantesque vigor. At this juncture the "King's Rifle," loaded at the last extremity with explosive balls for elephant-shooting, did wonders. Before leaving the treacherous King, Serpa Pinto had the satisfaction of calling him to his face "a liar, a thief, a murderer, and a perjurer," and it does not appear that these epithets gave any offence. The worst result of this fearful night assault was the desertion of all his negro followers, with the exception of the few faithful ones who had attended him all the way from Benguella. Broken down completely with fever, anxiety, and fatigue, he fell in with a French missionary family, consisting of the Rev. François Coillard and "two guardian angels," Mme. and Mlle. Élise Coillard, "who poured hot tears over cheeks that were parched and cracked with fever" It is characteristic of his impulsive nature, whether in health or in sickness, that even among these good friends, the saviours of his life, his quick temper got the better of his judgment. It was on Christmas eve—"A miserable Christmas eve indeed! My ill-humor, that had been pent up all day, wanted only the slightest provocation to break out." The rain was falling in torrents, and the whole party had taken shelter in one of the wagons. There was a lively and cheerful conversation going on, but the major, huddled up in a corner, was morosely silent, nursing his spleen. Madame Coillard spoke about George Eliot, whom she ranked among the greatest novelists that ever lived. This utterance fell like a spark upon gunpowder. The invalid turned savagely upon her, told her that her George Eliot wrote nothing but nonsense, that her George Eliot was only a woman, and that women when they took up the pen could only write nonsense. Women's true vocation was to attend to household duties and not to write nonsense. Yet when he observed in Mme. Coillard's kind and placid face an expression of pain and vexation, he got up and rushed out into the darkness and pouring rain. By way of showing his offence in a still more heinous light, Major Serpa Pinto confesses that he has read and re-read George Eliot's works, and considers 'Romola' and 'Adam Bede' the "noblest productions of one of the finest English romance-writers."

The remainder of the journey to Shoshong, Livingstone's old station, and thence to Pretoria, is

devoid of interest and comparatively uneventful, but when the Transvaal is entered we meet with names made familiar by the late war against the Boers, and are upon ground just traversed by Dr. Holub's readers. These two young explorers have much in common—courage, warmth of heart, and unreserve. But the greater admiration is due for power of endurance to the Portuguese cavalry dandy, who groans when he cannot sleep between sheets, who carries his bath and perfumery and all the paraphernalia of his toilet from the Atlantic to the Indian Ocean, and looks after them with as much care and anxiety as after his ammunition and instruments, and whose emotional nature finds vent in tears on the slightest provocation. He writes, too, in a style of great *naïveté*, resembling in abruptness of transition, effusiveness of sentiment, richness of coloring and boldness of metaphors Victor Hugo in his most characteristic mood. There is in his book a delightful mixture of almost boyish vanity with scientific devotion which is by no means ungraceful. One who has done so much for science and faced so many dangers, and come out of it all so well, has a right to speak of himself with a little more self-gratulation than is ordinarily becoming in historical narration.

We have only space to add that Major Serpa Pinto's astronomical observations generally agree with those of former explorers, except on the middle Zambesi, where they differ from those made by Livingstone to the extent of from six to ten miles; and in the Bechuana countries along the Limpopo. The position of Shoshong, the residence of King Khame, differs in Serpa Pinto's calculations more than sixty miles from that given by any previous traveller, including the latest explorer in those regions, the conscientious and learned Edward Mohr, of the Berlin Geographical Society.

RECENT NOVELS.

A Fearful Responsibility, and other Stories. By W. D. Howells. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1881.

Madame Delphine. By George W. Cable. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1881.

A Lesson in Love. [Round Robin Series.] Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1881.

A Matter-of-Fact Girl. By Theo. Gift. [Leisure-Hour Series.] New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1881.

Synnöve Solbakken. By Björnstjerne Björnson. Translated from the Norse by Rasmus B. Anderson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1881.

Histoire d'une Parisienne. By Octave Feuillet. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern. 1881.

Mary Marston. By George Macdonald. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881.

THE second of the two "other stories" printed with Mr. Howells's latest novelette must seem even to the sympathetic reader almost the reduction to absurdity of Mr. Howells's characteristic method of story-telling. It is not, as he himself says, "any story at all," but rather a delicate tracing of several indigenous Venetian personages, one of whom finally drifts into an event which permits the sketch to be entitled "Tonelli's Marriage." The suspicion occurs to one that it is really the result of an attempt on the author's part to dispense completely with even the slight structural substantiality that usually suffices him, and entertain his readers with a Barmecide feast of pure manner. This has been successfully done heretofore, of course, and of course Mr. Howells's manner is in general very captivating, but he fails here partly because of a kind of rectitude which eschews the necessary artfulness too absolutely, and partly, perhaps, because of an artistic sensitiveness that dictates too perfect a correspondence between his material—or rather the absence of it—and its treatment. The latter is accordingly robbed of all distinctive quality in order to agree with the insubstantiality of the former. The attempt doubtless had its attractions for so subtle a literary disposition as Mr. Howells's, but, if not the entire failure which any one else would have made of it, it can only attain the success of exciting curiosity of a rather abstruse order, and for that its importance is hardly sufficient.

The second story, "At the Sign of the Savage," will be remembered by *Atlantic* readers as in Mr. Howells's best vein. Unlike "Tonelli's Marriage," it is not refined into nothingness, but its utterly unromantic and trivial plot is "padded round" with all the humorous felicity and refined geniality in which Mr. Howells is absolutely unique. Colonel Kenton and his wife arrive in Vienna at 3 A.M., and order the cabman to drive them to the Kaiserin Elizabeth. They sleep late into the day, have breakfast in their room, and then the colonel goes out to see his friend the American consul. The latter persuades him to spend the afternoon with him, and a note is despatched to Mrs. Kenton warning her not to expect him till dinner. On repairing finally to the Kaiserin Elizabeth, Kenton does not recognize it, finds there his note to his wife, and discovers that he had been driven to the wrong hotel by a knavish cabman. Where "he is stopping" he doesn't in the least know, and the two set out on a tour of the hotels. At last some one reminds the consul that the arrivals are necessarily reported to the police, and they find out at once where the presumably agonized Mrs. Kenton is awaiting her husband, and repair thither post haste. "Why, how heated and tired you look!" is her serene greeting, and nothing is said about the blunder. The colonel is silent for obvious reasons, and the consul because he stupidly walked the other's "legs off" before going to the police-station in the first place. In other words, "I say, Davis," says the former, "this is about an even thing between us." The truth was told Mrs. Kenton long afterward, and "she did not see much to laugh at." But the reader must be equally bereft of humor if he be not highly amused from the outset of the story; and yet this is all there is of it.

Similarly slight is the texture of "A Fearful Responsibility," which every one must have been reading lately in *Scribner's Magazine*, so that we need make no abstract of it. There are, to be sure, events of importance in it; Miss Mayhew, whose care is the fearful responsibility of an American professor temporarily residing in Venice, having several offers of marriage which she declines, and so causes a good deal of distress. But these events are deprived of all tragic tincture by the wariness of the narrator, who always steers his way amid such with unerring security, and never loses sight of his true course of every-day matter-of-fact life. This is another quality in which Mr. Howells is unique. Every other novelist who has ever written, however much he may have avoided ideality and imaginativeness, and however closely he may have copied reality, has always betrayed some consciousness that this was, in fact, what he was doing, and that in general it is not done by others. Mr. Howells, however, both in matter and in manner, is so successfully real as to provoke the question, Why in the world does he select this group of persons and this set of circumstances to celebrate instead of any of the other myriads precisely like them? They are, indeed, the perfection of commonplace humanity and of ordinary happenings, but they are so charming to read about as Mr. Howells exhibits them because in the first place his art in photographing such types is so subtle, and in the second place because he sets them forth with so much kindly and genial humor. On the former point it is late in the day to say anything, but the latter may be illustrated by the fact that Mr. Howells numbers among his admirers quite as many women as men, we suspect, and yet his humor is at its best when it is hugging itself, so to speak, at the expense of the foibles of the sex. The last paragraph on page 85, for example, is a stiletto-thrust. Mrs. Elmore in this story is capitally depicted; and if her creator's shyness in presenting the *fonds* of seriousness to be found in a feminine nature of this sort is inveterate, it is only on reflection that this is felt; even then it is only a drawback to Mr. Howells's completeness as a novelist, and not at all to the pure comedy which it is clearly his mission to produce. From the point of view of pure comedy, indeed, most of the characters are excellent. The very American Hoskins and the Professor are nearly as good as Mrs. Elmore. The first third of the book is rather flat and discursive, it must be admitted, and the marionette dance of the very real personages is too long postponed; but after Mr. Howells begins to pull the strings in earnest—if we may use this adjective—the spectacle becomes an entertainment of the first class.

We yield to none of Mr. Howells's admirers in admiring him so much that we would not have him different, and it may be said without invidiousness that the reading of 'Madame Delphine' after his stories has the effect of deepening one's impression of Mr. Cable's warmth and color. In the degree in which Mr. Cable possesses them these are properly Southern qualities, and it is agreeable to find that they lose nothing in intensity from the high literary standard to which their exhibition is made to conform. 'Madame Delphine' is by no means the work that 'The Grandissimes' is, but it does not lay the least claim to be so considered, though it deals with the same subject. The study of the social results of slavery offers a large field to the romancer, as Mr. Cable has already shown us, and it may continue his special subject for some time yet, we should say, before it becomes exhausted. In 'Madame Delphine,' as in 'The Grandissimes,' we have a mother and daughter for heroines, only here "dey's quadroons," and the dramatic centre of the story is the falsehood of the mother, who denies her child that the latter may wed a white without offence to the laws prohibiting the intermarriage of races. Olive is apparently a pure Caucasian, and Madame Delphine's perjury is credited; but her own sacrifice has cost her so much that she expires at the confessional after admitting her guilt to the kind Père Jerome. The scene of the perjury is very dramatically set forth, gaining much from Mr. Cable's eminent faculty for subdued intensity; and that of the confession is deeply affecting. Short and even episodical as the story is, it contains some of the remarkable portraiture of 'The Grandissimes'—portraiture which owes its success to the power of intuitive

sympathy rather than to experience and close observation, and which, therefore, though it may be a trifle less graphic, is wonderfully true and real. Père Jerome is a prize portrait, and the keynote of sweetness and gentleness set by his character seems to have governed the narrative, which is throughout related with charmingly poetic feeling. Besides being less comprehensive it is also less powerful than 'The Grandissimes,' but it is even more winning in the sustained warmth and color, as we say, of its diction than our memory at least of the more important work. One criticism suggests itself, though we are in two minds about offering it. The Creole patois is introduced with an ingenuity perhaps a little evident. It is difficult to see how it could be better managed, and to consent to the loss of any of it is quite out of the question, but the problem is one for Mr. Cable's own solution. Possibly he would do well on occasion to disregard the proprieties altogether, and make his Creoles speak as he chooses; it would be a very literal taste that this would offend, whereas at present only a literal taste can be quite satisfied with the apologetic makeshifts resorted to to compass the natural introduction of the dialect. Finally, we may remark of 'Madame Delphine' that its pathetic interest is broadly human, and would be felt with equal keenness by readers who thoroughly believe in the peculiar institution as well as by those who have never reflected upon its inherent enormities, and are surprised into indignation by accounts of them. 'The Grandissimes' was a tractate as well as a romance, and so too is 'Madame Delphine,' but its interest as a romance does not at all depend upon its tractarian character, and would be as great if the tragic element of it proceeded from any law, just or unjust, instead of from the Louisiana statute against miscegenation.

The second of the Round Robin series is a very good story. It is, besides, an American novel in the strictest sense of the term, as commonly understood—that is to say, not only are its characters, incidents, and situation American, but it is direct, without color, hardly romantic, and almost bleak. The writer justifies her departure from the course pursued by most of the anonymous novelists of her sex, who follow the injunction originally addressed to another class of writers, we believe, and "look into their own hearts and write." Accordingly, in the fruits of her observation we have a very natural and credible story. The hero, John Truax, is a busy lawyer, whose distinguished abilities are abundantly recognized and make him a good catch. His industry, however, has had the effect of making him a good deal of a bear, and he is rarely seen in society. Engaged as counsel by the family attorney of Mrs. Katherine Warrington, he nevertheless finds his imagination touched by his fair client, and before he really knows it he is engaged to her. This is very well managed by the author, who contrives the main complication of her story in this incident without allowing it to appear strained. Truax has seen little of women, and is opposed to matrimony by disposition, and systematically as well, so that most of the courtship falls upon the lady. The latter is a widow, having married very young a sexagenarian, and, though without the proverbial artfulness of widowhood, has well-developed instincts and falls readily in love with the masterful lawyer. On his side there is little sentiment, and he has to ask himself whether he is really in love or not, until he meets the plaintiff in the suit to break his fiancée's late husband's will, when he promptly falls in love with her in earnest. It perfectly fits in with his character that he should not perceive this, and, without much thought of infidelity, he continues to discharge his duties to Katherine while he enjoys himself with little Doris, who is considerably under twenty and exactly cut out for him. His engagement is kept a secret through his fear of ridicule, and he has, therefore, plenty of opportunity for highly reprehensible conduct, which he indulges with the serene, or at least only vaguely troubled, conscience of an absolutely selfish, healthy, active-minded man. Doris reciprocates his feeling at once. This state of things finally collapses through its discovery by Katherine, who bestows herself upon Dr. Allan Ford, a cousin, who has worshipped her for years, and Truax hies him to Doris and probably has made her a rather miserable woman ever since. The reader addicted to reading old-fashioned novels, and finding in them images of the ideal life, will be incensed at 'A Lesson in Love,' and, from the imperfect abstract we have been able to make of it, such a feeling might not be esteemed fantastic. But we can vouch for the reasonableness of the book, which is only cynical—or, as many novel-readers say, "disappointing"—if to describe a very natural situation in actual life be evidence of cynicism. There are countless Truaxes. What a man who meets the woman he loves after he has engaged himself to one whom he only admires needs, to make him behave with consideration, not to say chivalry, is some degree of sensibility. This quality is lacking in Truax, and his character is, in its way, a triumph, particularly as his defect is allowed to disclose itself, and, as is the entire book in fact, is presented dramatically. Mrs. Warrington's demeanor and conduct are also real and simple. She is the most charming figure of the novel, and the absence of the heroic quality in her is, considering the provocation of the situation to the average novelist, something for the reader who likes a sense of actuality in novels to be grateful for. Perhaps we are hasty in assuming the sex of the writer, for Katherine seems as masculine a creation as Truax appears due to an acute feminine intuitiveness. But several minor indications point in the direction we have supposed, and the fact is of no consequence, and would need no allusion but for the want of a common personal pronoun, and the deep interest which readers of these anonymous series take in the authorship of successive volumes.

'A Matter-of-Fact Girl' is the kind of book that we said 'A Lesson in Love' was not. It is a work of purely imaginative fiction by an author who could turn out a score like it, and probably will if her life be spared. It differs from the novel of our fathers only in the introduction of landscape and the use of the present tense, both employed in a way which betrays the unhappy influence of Mr. William Black in the one case and of Miss Rhoda Broughton in the other. Barbara, or "Berrie," Brown is with her grandmother—a cross old lady, who supports her and makes her life a burden by reminding her of the fact—at a Lancashire resort where Captain Randal Comyn comes to spend a day or two. He has a large income, an aristocratic father, and a past which has embittered his life. He is a scoffer and is set down by "Berrie" as an "agnostic." This has been brought about by his having been jilted by a young girl into whose keeping he had entrusted his entire being. Since that event he has been wandering over the face of the earth, taking but a listless interest in anything but misogyny. "Berrie" is very bright and "matter-of-fact," and consoles him. After a very short interval he offers himself to her, whereat she is distressed and informs him that she is already engaged. Then he goes away, exceeding sorrowful, to London, where he finds his old love a widow. He soon writes her a proposal, but is called away before receiving her answer. Before his return he meets "Berrie," who has become free herself. Then he experiences acute anguish and is in a fair way to become bitter again. But Vivian refuses him, and then he hastens back to "Berrie," who this time has had smallpox and won't think of marrying anybody. The conclusion may be withheld, and may also be readily divined, since it is perfectly clear that Theo. Gift can do what she likes with her *dramatis personæ*, for aught they can do to thwart her, and that she is at bottom a very kind-hearted author.

Every one is familiar with the charm of the Norse novel, especially when it is written with a touch of genius, as, perhaps, a work by the author of 'Arne' is sure to be. 'Synnöve Solbakken' is Björnson's first work and far inferior to the more famous novel, but it possesses the marks of its author's individuality and has the national flavor, and agreeably introduces the series of Björnson's romances which Professor Anderson has undertaken to translate. It is difficult to analyze the pleasing impression one derives from it and kindred Scandinavian romances, but the distinct charm of them may be said to proceed immediately from several obvious characteristics. In the first place, peasant-life is the subject of Björnson and his school, and it is treated with thorough sympathy. Their romances thus have the interest inseparable from homely lives and interiors realistically and feelingly depicted, because they stand directly upon the basis of a broad humanity and appeal to what is most essential and universal in the reader's sensibility. They are, moreover, the perfection of simplicity, which is pushed to the limits of ingenuous artlessness; anything approaching the factitiousness underlying the various forms of sensationalism is quite foreign to their tenor: a man is killed or a heart broken in them without more to-do than becomes the literary succession of the Gothic sagas. Still further, they are poetically conceived and executed, and attack one's emotions without in general employing the medium of the intellect to any degree worth mentioning. And, finally, they possess novelty. This last is probably not the least of the sources of their attractiveness, and by the time Professor Anderson has finished his series Björnson's admirers will be less enthusiastic than they are at present, we are inclined to believe. For nothing palls upon the nineteenth-century palate so quickly as sustained artlessness, and in 'Synnöve Solbakken,' as indeed in 'Arne' and in the Norse novel generally, a great part of the book has no tendency whatever, and many details are not in the least organic. A still more serious and analogous defect is the profound platitude that always lies near the surface and forms the basis of the main substance of each novel's emotional appeal. One can see why Hans Andersen is so attractive in his stories for children. But after a certain amount of simple poetizing on familiar and homely themes, one turns to the romance which displays more purely intellectual qualities, and whose material is composed of a more complicated warp and woof.

M. Octave Feuillet, however, demonstrates the possibility of being tiresome in the opposite way from Björnson, certainly. If the humdrum life and rudimentary passion of 'Synnöve Solbakken'

are not stimulating, the exclusiveness with which passion—and the particular passion exploited most frequently by M. Feuillet—dominates the scene in the "Histoire d'une Parisienne' is equally unexciting, owing, no doubt, in great part to its having become so unblushingly hackneyed. The plot is what is called the regular French plot, varied by M. Feuillet's ingenuity in inventing the innocence of the relations which provoke the husband to kill the lover, and in transforming the heroine after the slaughter of the latter into "un monstre," who contrives a duel between her husband and an expert swordsman, in which the former is nearly slain. The story is short, rapidly told, and full of events, as well as of the social preachment which Feuillet and Dumas are fond of employing as a conservator, or perhaps as a disinfectant. It is written, of course, with the elegance which made M. Feuillet an Academician, and in a way which would tend to confirm Mr. Charles Reade's statement that every French novel is composed with a view to dramatization. But it supplies no answer to the query which must always occur to M. Feuillet's foreign readers: How much, namely, of a transcript of social life and manners is, after all, the romance he is so fond of writing? M. Zola affirms loudly that it is not even a caricature; and though he has recently been told that he himself has no means of judging, we suspect that instinct has here served him so far as to make his statement more than half true. Like many other popular romancers, M. Feuillet affects exceptions rather than types, which would be all very well if he did not protest, in the tone of another Bossuet, that they are types.

Few things of the kind are more curious than the complete ruin which has apparently befallen Mr. George Macdonald's faculty for writing novels. His early stories were certainly unusual, and it is equally certain that if he had written only his later ones he would scarcely be known as a novelist. Persons who have read his remarkable 'Paul Faber' will not expect to find that work outdone in various respects, but with this exception the statement is perhaps a safe one that 'Mary Marston' is the worst of its author's books. Like all the rest, it is a combination of the novel and the sermon, but it is mainly sermon. The story is disjointed, improbable, long, and not very interesting; the sermon sets forth the democracy of true Christianity. Mary Marston is the daughter of a worthy dissenting shopkeeper, who has a wicked partner who is, naturally, a churchman. In the neighborhood is the family of Lady M. Alice Mortimer ("her friends called her Lady Malice"), the daughter of an impoverished earl; her husband, whom she married for money; her daughter Hesper, whom her mother is about to force into a marriage with a dissipated old man; and her very brunette niece Sepia, who has a doubtful past. This family forms the aristocratic element. There are two other families, composed of Geoffrey Wardour, his widowed mother and her orphan niece Letty; and Mrs Helmer, also a widow, and her son Tom, who is fast. These are the personages, and the most dreadful events happen to them; but the action of the story is the attempted "conversion" of each, directly and indirectly, by Mary Marston. Lady Malice is already beyond the power of the most assiduous dissent to recover her; Hesper opposes a native frivolity until her second marriage, when the good seed suddenly takes root; Hesper's first husband dies with a fair prospect of future happiness, though he has been atrociously wicked; Sepia, who is the Tisiphone of the tale, and is not even a churchwoman, retires into the murky gloom whence she came; Wardour is influenced by Mary, but precisely how much does not appear, and he retains his stiff-neckedness to the last; Letty and Tom are converted beyond cavil, and Tom is made sure of by being killed of consumption at once. Mary marries a blacksmith.

THE BODEN SEE.

The Shores and Cities of the Boden See. Rambles in 1879 and 1880. With maps of the district, and numerous original etchings on stone by H. Schmidt-Pecht. By Samuel James Capper. London: T. De la Rue & Co. 8vo, pp. xxxvi.-452.

Mr. Capper has had this great advantage over many who have written of Switzerland, that he is not a mere holiday traveller, but a resident among the scenes of which he writes so pleasantly. His book is full of little touches of local color which show long familiarity with the places and people described. It has the added interest that the country is pictured not only in its ordinary summer, but in its less-known winter aspect, when the ice-bound lakes are covered with skaters, and the "toboggin" (the word as well as the sled has been imported from Canada) shoots down the snowy slopes of the mountain villages. The historical matter accompanying the descriptions of the places visited is judiciously chosen, and especially well told are the stories of the martyrdom of Huss, the siege of Constance, and the sufferings of the people during the Thirty Years' War, while all who desire to travel cheaply and enjoyably can profitably read the introductory chapter on the hotels and *pensions* of Switzerland. A few pages are devoted to the lake-dwellers of prehistoric times, who appear to have been very numerous in this region. "In the little Unter See, with an area of only twenty-one English square miles, the remains of no fewer than twenty-two settlements of these interesting people have been discovered, and one of these settlements at Wangen, on the Baden side, rested upon no less than forty thousand piles and covered twenty-five acres." Not without interest, also, is the short résumé of the earliest references to the lake, in which the very fanciful and highly-wrought description of Ammianus is quoted, ending with the time, A.D. 609, when the fourteen missionaries from Ireland, under the lead of Columban and Gallus, settled upon its shores.

At Rorschach, which is in the canton named after the second of these two mediæval apostles and is "the most important Swiss town on the Boden See," Mr. Capper begins his tour of the lake. We have no space to dwell upon his lively sketch of the town in its holiday attire on the feast of Corpus Christi and the pleasant walks in its neighborhood. The canton of Thurgau, adjoining St. Gall on the north, is depicted as one great orchard of fruit-trees. "The dowry of a Thurgau maiden often consists, or did consist until recently, of four or five great apple or pear trees, which here attain the size of oaks or elms in a less favored clime." While staying at Heiden, a little village connected by a mountain railway with Rorschach, three miles distant, and a favorite summer resort of the South Germans, our author attended the Landsgemeinde at Trogen. This is the general assembly of one of the half-cantons into which Appenzell is divided, and all the male inhabitants under sixty years of age are expected to, and actually do, with few exceptions, attend it once in the year. This custom is still observed by the cantons of Uri, Glarus, the two half-cantons of Unterwalden, as well as those of Appenzell. "Every male Appenzeller unconvicted of crime receives a detailed programme of all the business six weeks before the Landsgemeinde. It consists of more than one hundred and fifty octavo pages." On the last Sunday in April, the day of the meeting, the road to Trogen was "thronged with the law-makers, all in their best 'go-to-meeting' clothes, almost all in cylinder hats ('toppers'), brought out once a year for this great occasion, and all, without exception, with side-arms, mostly old sabres or cutlasses." The place in which the assembly is held is an open square in front of the Rathhaus, and on this occasion there were eight thousand voters present. The assembly is opened with the singing by the whole multitude of an old Appenzeller hymn, beginning "Alles Leben strömt aus Dir." (This half-canton is Protestant, the other is Catholic.) Then, after the passing of the accounts for the year just expired, the retiring chief magistrate, the Landammann, delivered his valedictory address. He had already been chosen five times to the office, but the constitution does not permit a sixth term.

"He then handed back the great seal which he had held for five years to his sovereign, the people, and doffed the mantle of office. And now every head in the great company is uncovered, and a solemn hush pervades the throng. It is the moment set apart for silent prayer. And now the selection and voting-in of members of the Government begins, to which nominations may be given by any one in the assembly, and, accordingly, name after name is called out from the body of the square, all of which the white-haired Rathschreiber notes down, and in turn they are voted upon. The voting is all by show of hand, and is repeated until all on the platform are satisfied on which side is the majority."

Occasionally, when the voting is very close, the assembly has to be divided at the church-door and the people counted. This was actually the case at the assembly in the other half-canton held on the same day at Appenzell. The number of voters at this latter place was 2,409. The following business consisted of the election of judges, the acceptance of a revision of the laws, the adoption of an article which forbids dancing on Sundays (this by a very small majority), and the adoption of a proposal to establish a workhouse. "The crowning solemnity of the day" was the taking the oath of allegiance by the newly-elected Landammann, who then administered it to the people. "The spectacle of the eight thousand men of Appenzell-Ausserrhoden, with bared heads and outstretched right arms, taking the oath of fealty to their fatherland was one never to be forgotten."

St. Gall, the Manchester of Switzerland, is but a short ride from Heiden. The chief interest to the visitor, however, is not in the beautiful embroidery manufactured here, but in the historic abbey, to which Scheffel by his 'Ekkehard' has given the added charm of romance. Though the abbey church only dates from the last century, yet the library still contains four hundred of the manuscripts (among them a copy of Virgil said to be the oldest extant) which the poet-monk studied now ten centuries ago. Still earlier than Ekkehard was Notker, the author of the "Media vita in morte sumus," an inmate of the monastery. This monk, we are told—

"was one day walking in the direction of Ror-

schach, when he reached the deep and gloomy gorge of the Martinstobel. Workmen were at the time busy throwing a bridge over the abyss, and, as he saw them hanging, as it were, between heaven and earth, the peril they were in so impressed him as to become the motive of the hymn. Words and melody were written together, the latter being indicated by a species of accentuation above the words, which, in process of time, developed into our musical notation. The 'Media vita' was sung all over Christendom; it became a favorite battle-song among the Crusaders in far-away Palestine, until, in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, the inhabitants of the shores of the Rhine attributing magical virtues to it, its use was forbidden by the Church."

Here it is well to notice that the author of the famous hymn "Salve Regina" was a monk of the neighboring monastery on the island of Reichenau.

From St. Gall and Charlemagne (who for a short time was an inmate here) we are taken across the lake to Lindau and the Emperor William, who chanced that day (July 16, 1879) to be passing through after a visit to his daughter on the island of Mainau. Here our author was fortunate enough to fall in with an old Prussian colonel who was walking through Switzerland accompanied by his six-year-old son. The story which the soldier tells of the white rose sent by another son when lying wounded on the battle-field of Gravelotte to the Emperor, and the manner in which the latter, years after, rewarded this act of devotion, is well worth reading. The places on the German shore before Constance is reached are not of special interest, though they are full of old associations from the time of Frederic Barbarossa to that of Joseph II., of whom a characteristic anecdote is related in connection with a visit to Meersburg. Sipplingen was formerly famous, we are told, for its sour wine. "It belonged to the sort called 'Lachrymæ Petri,' because whoever drank of it went out and wept bitterly." A large part of the book is naturally devoted to Constance and its past. The story "'of the pale, thin man in mean attire,' who witnessed a good confession outside the walls of the city," receives fresh interest at the author's hands. A chapter also is given to a recent great benefactor of the city, the Freiherr von Wessenberg, a forerunner of the Old Catholics. Among the interesting excursions in the neighborhood is one to the château of Arenenberg, the home of Queen Hortense and, from 1818 to 1837, the date of her death, of Louis Napoleon. Later still it has been the residence for a part of each year of the Empress Eugénie and the Prince Imperial up to the eve of the latter's departure for Africa. It was also from his ancestral home, the castle of Meersburg, on the opposite shore of the lake, that Conradin, the last of the Hohenstaufens, a boy of sixteen, started, six centuries ago, upon the ill-starred expedition which brought him to the block at Naples.

Most readers, however, will find their chief satisfaction in the descriptions of winter scenes and sports. The Unter See, which is an arm of the lake to the north of Constance, is frozen over nearly every year, and the traffic between the opposite shores and the island of Reichenau is carried on wholly across the ice. This is under charge of an official named the Fischermeister, and any who venture upon the ice before he has pronounced it safe are liable to punishment. Accidents are accordingly very infrequent. Being an experienced skater, Mr. Capper was enabled to explore every part of the Unter See during a winter spent in Constance. A greater enjoyment than this, however, was in store for him. For "from the 5th to the 10th of February [1880] the whole of the vast expanse of the Boden See was frozen over, and to such a thickness as to make it everywhere passable." Since the year 895 the lake has been frozen over thirty-three times (if we may trust the note on page 281 and not the statement in the text), nine times in the fifteenth and seven times in the sixteenth centuries, but only twice since 1695, in 1830 and in 1880. On this last occasion "the maximum thickness of the ice was nearly five inches"; in 1830 it was at least eight, and a canal was cut to open communication between Switzerland and Germany. In the winter of 1880 "roads across the ice were staked out by the authorities; for it must not be forgotten that to the inhabitants of many of the towns and villages it is not a mere question of amusement, but the ice was, in fact, the only means of communication with their neighbors." Some of the narrated adventures of those who, in crossing, were overtaken by snow or fog remind one of the tales of Arctic travellers. Loss of life resulted in some cases.

Very different was the author's experience in the village of Seewis, a few miles to the south of the lake, where he spent a part of the winter. There tobogganing and sledge-riding take the place of skating, and a roll in the snow is the principal danger to which one is exposed. This place was the home of Salis, the poet, whose 'Das stille Land' Longfellow has translated in his 'Hyperion.' Many interesting particulars are given of the life of the villagers, as of the meetings of the commune after church, where, it may be mentioned, the women partake of the communion first, "as a recognition of their valor in the attack on the Austrian soldiery two hundred and fifty years since." In their "open-air parliaments" all questions of public interest, such as the time of sending the cows to pasture on the Alps, or of bringing them back, are discussed and decided by show of hands. The schools are free, with the exception that each child brings a stick of wood every day for warming the school-room. Though a village of nine hundred inhabitants, there were in 1879 only two persons, a married couple, who received aid from the poor fund. Delightful as our author's descriptions are of this place and the mountains about, and especially of the "Lüner See," a lake lying sixty-five hundred feet above the sea, one almost regrets to have these secluded villages brought to the notice of the common run of tourists.

The lack of an index detracts from the permanent value of this book. On the other hand, a word of praise should be given to the etchings, some of which appear to us particularly good.

THEISTIC ARGUMENTS.

The Theistic Argument as affected by Recent Theories. A course of lectures delivered at the Lowell Institute, in Boston, by J. Lewis Diman, D.D. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1881.

THEISTIC writers are under a strong temptation to assume the tone of champions, defending the cause of the Creator against the assaults of a wicked and malevolent enemy. Perhaps the most noteworthy feature of the book before us is its perfect freedom from this tone, and the calm impartiality with which all the arguments on both sides are weighed. Its effect will be to increase the regret that the voice of its gifted author is no longer to be heard among us, and to wonder why he was so little known while he lived. Its principal claim upon our attention arises from its treating the subject in the light of modern scientific theories, and especially the doctrine of evolution. The question whether this doctrine does really support atheism is one on which theologians themselves are not yet agreed, and on which it is quite natural that they should hesitate about taking decided ground. But our author takes decided ground in favor of the view that the theistic argument is not weakened in the least by any theory which brings facts under the domain of natural law; and though he has no occasion to take ground on either side, he preserves his consistency by making no attacks upon the generalizations of the most advanced evolutionists.

To analyze his argument critically we must recognize two distinct grounds of belief in an intelligent first cause, which are apt to be confounded. The first argument is founded on the necessity of an intelligent first cause to explain the origin of the laws and arrangements of nature, especially those which have reference to the existence and propagation of life and mind. In ancient times the propounders of this argument were met by the claim that, for aught we know, all these laws and arrangements might have existed from eternity, and therefore have had no need of a cause. We cannot be asked to explain that which may have existed from eternity; with equal reason might we demand an explanation of the eternal first cause itself. But modern science has done away with this particular objection, by showing that the present form of the universe is not eternal, but was assumed within a calculable number of years, and, still more, by making it probable that the laws of nature are such that their eternal action will not result in sustaining an eternal universe, but one having a beginning and an end. Moreover, notwithstanding the supposed materialistic tendencies of modern science, it has scarcely taken the first step toward showing that any cause capable of producing intelligence can exist in a cloud of fiery vapor, such as that from which the universe is supposed to be evolved.

The other argument seeks for evidence of an ever-active Deity in supposed deviations of nature from the course marked out by inexorable law, akin to those deviations produced by men when they employ natural forces to bring about their own ends. It recognizes a broad distinction between the operations of nature, proceeding from antecedent to consequent with such certainty that the ultimate result can be foreseen from the beginning, and human volition, in which strict law is subordinated to a desired end. From this point of view the Deity is looked upon as managing nature much as an engineer manages his engine, and as giving evidence of his presence as an invisible man might close a valve or throw water upon a fire. The fundamental postulate of this argument is, that we see effects produced in nature for which invariable and eternal law cannot account, and which evince the action of a directing power above nature in the same way that the sight of dwellings evinces the presence of mankind. To this class must, we conceive, be assigned all theistic arguments founded on design in nature, or, more explicitly, on supposed adaptations of means to ends. With whatever elements of generality they may be conceived in the mind of the philosopher, they are presented to the common people as analogies between the works of God and of men, both making use of nature on the same plan. To take one favorite illustration, a child is shown a flower-bed in which the plants are so arranged as to form the initials of

his name. He knows at once that some one did that intentionally, knowing what his initials were and planting the seed accordingly. He is then shown the similar adaptations in nature, pointing in the same way to intention on the part of an adapting mind.

Like all advanced theologians who are prepared to accept the doctrine of evolution, our author contends that the argument from design is in no way weakened by that doctrine; we only substitute a slow process, extending through many ages, and operating under the forms of natural law, for a sudden act of the divine power. In thus defining the mutual relations of the two theories, we think he fails to grasp the real significance of the evolutionary theory. What is most far-reaching and essential in it is not the substitution of a process for an act, nor the length of time it requires for the process, but the reduction of the supposed acts of a power without nature to results of ever-existing and ever-operating natural laws. That we thus annul the force of the argument as it is meant to be understood, will be seen by returning to the illustration of the letters of the flower-bed. If, upon going out into the world, the boy should find it a law of nature that beds of plants should assume the form of his initials; if he should find the same forms in flower-beds planted long years before he was born, and in Europe and in Asia as well as in America, he would regard the argument addressed him by his preceptor as entirely deceptive. In the same way, what the advocates of evolution claim, rightfully or wrongfully, to have done (and what they must claim, to give their doctrine the slightest consideration as a scientific theory), is that they have shown the adaptation of the human hand to the purposes it has to perform to be the result of certain general laws of nature, operating everywhere that life exists, and through all time, the present as well as the past; exactly the same laws, in fact, as those by which the muscles, thews, and sinews of a breed of race-horses have been, in recent times, adapting themselves to speed. If the work of mankind should be so altered that an entirely different hand would be required for his use, the old hand would still be perpetuated in the race, notwithstanding its lack of adaptation to the new condition. But as hundreds of generations came upon the earth it would be found that the muscles required for the new activities would enlarge and develop, while those not used would slowly waste away and at length disappear. Then, after perhaps a hundred thousand years, we should have a new kind of hand adapted to the changed conditions.

To this Prof. Diman would, no doubt, reply that the very existence of this adaptive power in nature affords the strongest ground for the theistic argument. But it is none the less true that the argument would not be that of Paley, but would be reduced to the general argument founded on the necessity of a first cause. The difference of position will become clear by observing how much the argument is neglected in cases better known and more familiar than those of the evolution of the human hand or eye. We all know that when men move into an insalubrious climate, if they survive the effects for a few years, a change comes over their constitutions by which they are enabled to resist the noxious influences by which they are surrounded. The scientist cannot give any other account of this change than that it occurs in pursuance of a general law of adaptation, pervading all life and necessary to its continuance. The theist sees in it the beneficent intentions of the Creator. There is no necessary conflict between these views, nor between the theist and the evolutionist. What the latter claims is that the growth of the hand and eye, and their adaptation to the wants of the race, the development of the muscles of the race-horse, the process of acclimatization, the tendency of wounds to heal, and the growth of a ligament over an opening in the skull, are all results of one general law pervading all life—the law of adaptation. The point which he can make against the theist is not that by thus reducing the effects to one law he has done away with creative intelligence, but that this intelligence is not evinced in one of these several manifestations more than in another. The theist must admit this, or give up his claim that the doctrine of evolution does not weaken his argument. But we very much doubt whether even Prof. Diman would be ready to admit that the process of acclimatization afforded as strong a basis for his argument as those adaptations which have been made familiar to us by Paley and his followers.

Biographical Sketches of Graduates of Harvard University. By John Langdon Sibley, M.A. Vol. II. 1659–1677. Cambridge: Charles William Sever. 1881.

It is eight years since the first volume of these Sketches, embracing the graduates from 1642 to 1658 inclusive, was published, and the venerable author is to be congratulated on the happy completion of the second, which is still but the beginning of his arduous task. A few more classes are here disposed of in somewhat less space than in the preceding instalment, and there are fewer distinguished names than in the list which contained George Downing, William Stoughton, Michael Wigglesworth, Increase Mather, John Cotton, and many others of no mean note. By far the most considerable figure is Joseph Dudley, of the class of 1665, son of Governor Thomas Dudley in the latter's old age (he was seventy when Joseph was born), and a most active and disturbing element in the politics of New England and New York; who also became governor of his native State, and by reviving the college charter of 1650 proved himself one of the greatest benefactors of his alma mater. To him are allotted twenty-three pages of Mr. Sibley's text, while Samuel Sewall (class of 1671), the next name in importance but a greater in human interest, fills twenty. Sewall's posterity has ever distinguished itself. Of his father's descendants, four held judgeships in the Massachusetts Supreme Court, covering a period in the court's life of 84 years out of 148. The Rev. Samuel Willard (class of 1659), himself steadfast against the witchcraft mania, received and read in Old South meeting Sewall's *peccavi* for his part in shedding innocent blood. This pastor also baptized the infant Benjamin Franklin, born just across the way from the church. As a prolific author he was second only to Cotton Mather: Mr. Sibley, following his practice in all these biographies, enumerates 49 of his published works. His offspring were nearly as numerous, for he had twenty children, yet his name has been preserved in only one line. In Sewall's class, which was remarkable for its quality, were the Rev. John Norton, ancestor of Mrs. John Adams and of Professors Andrews and Charles Eliot Norton; and the Rev. Edward Taylor, ancestor of Ezra Stiles, the future president of Yale College. In these years, by the way, Harvard raised up several of the founders of Yale, and in 1668 graduated Abraham Pierson, the rector of that institution. In the next class was the Rev. James Bayley, whose parish quarrels in Salem Village were visited upon his successor, the Rev. George Burroughs (class of 1670), a conspicuous victim of that superstitious persecution the chief responsibility for which is ascribed to the Rev. Nicholas Noyes (class of 1667).

Nathaniel Saltonstall, with whose life the volume opens, was the first of seven successive generations, reaching to the present year, who have graduated at Harvard, bearing the same name. No other family has had this distinction. To the examples already given of "hereditary genius" we may add the Rev. Samuel Man (class of 1665), ancestor of Horace Mann; and the Rev. Samuel Angier (class of 1673), ancestor of Chief-Justice Lemuel Shaw—evidence by contraries that the Puritan dread of an "illiterate ministry" was well founded. We should also mention the Rev. Jeremiah Shepard (class of 1669), who was the first clergyman in the British colonies chosen to be a representative in the popular legislature; and the Rev. John Wise, of Chebacco (class of 1673), who is said to have been the "first man in America ever known to oppose the idea of taxation without representation." His independence was further witnessed by his opposition to anti-witchcraft and his advocacy of congregational singing and inoculation. Among other "first men" were John Foster (class of 1667), the first printer in Boston, and publisher of the first engraved map in America; Caleb Cheeshahteaumuck (class of 1665), the first and only Indian graduate at Harvard, in spite of the special building called the Indian College, afterwards used as a printing-office; and Benj. Tompson (class of 1662), the first American poet, capable of good lines like the following:

> "My Loyalty is still the same,
> Whether I win or loose the game,
> True as a Dial to the Sun,
> Altho it bee not shin'd upon."

Finally, the nearest analogue to Downing is Nathaniel Higginson (class of 1670), the vigorous governor of Madras.

The recent appearance in the heavens and subsequent semi-tragedy at Washington justify an allusion to Alexander Nowell (class of 1664), a compiler of several almanacs, in one of which we read:

"Comets (say Naturalists) proceed from natural causes, but they oft preceed preternatural effects. That they have been Antecedents to strange consequents is an universal truth, and proved by particulars, viz. That which hung over Hierusalem before its extirpation by Vespatian, that vertical to Germany, before those bloudy Wars, &c. So that experience Attests, and reason Assents, that they have served for sad Prologues to Tragical Epilogues. For the future, preludiums to what events they'l prove, may be proved by consequence, if they han't suffered a privation of their powerful Energie."

This is in the spirit of the true weather-prophet. The comet of 1680 is described in John Foster's Almanac for 1681 as being visible to the naked eye in Boston from Nov. 19 to Feb. 10, 1681, when it faded out of sight:

"And thus is this prodigious Spectacle removed, leaving the world in a fearful expectation of what may follow: sure it is that these things are not sent for nothing, though man cannot say particularly for what: They are by most thought to be Fore-runners of evil coming upon the *World* (though some think otherwise), as was long since observed by *Cicero, ab ultima antiquitatis memoria notatum est Cometas semper calamitatum prænuntios esse.*"

Rugby, Tennessee. By Thomas Hughes. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1881.

MR. HUGHES writes this book for Englishmen in the main, and Englishmen mainly will be interested in it. It is "the best answer which the founders of Rugby, Tennessee, can at present make to the large and rapidly increasing number of questions which reach them from all parts of the United Kingdom about that settlement." It describes the class of persons for whom Rugby was intended, the place itself (in a series of letters to the London *Spectator* here republished), and its prospects. But other readers will be interested in it too, and whether they have any design of joining the community or not—partly on account of the subject, and partly also because of the particular point of view taken by the writer concerning the matter of which he treats. The last has indeed the interest of a type, and a type of a fine and wholesome kind and not especially common in America, perhaps. Nothing is further from the social experiment which Rugby is trying, as Mr. Hughes here sketches it, than the notions that have been at the bottom of some of our own kindred attempts. There has been more or less imaginativeness in the origin of most of these, and the practical man has always viewed them with suspicion. The practical man would be enchanted with Rugby, the backbone of whose scheme seems sheer common-sense. The situation and character of the soil do not in the least smack of Eldorado, and no speculative person will be attracted by the frank report by the State Commissioner of Agriculture which Mr. Hughes appends. Every settler will be free to enjoy as much or as little of the communal advantages as he chooses; and he can do whatever he likes "on his own hook" except sell whiskey. The attractions are the prospect of making a comfortable living by farming, and at the same time enjoying the material advantages of limited co-operation and the pleasures of such "rational society" as the community possesses or may come to possess. One may go to church or stay away, and if he goes he may hear the Episcopal liturgy, or any other he affects if there are enough of his way of thinking to conduct a service. There is a library and a cricket-ground, and lawn-tennis is popular and shooting is good, though fishing is dubious as yet. Doubtless there is a "tremendous lot" of young Englishmen to whom such a life as may be led here will seem almost the ideal life. It involves the abnegation only of ambition and of a share, active or passive, in the spectacle of human life and the world's movement—difficult for an imaginative mind to forego or even patiently to contemplate permanent withdrawal from, no doubt, except under the stress of something in its turn imaginative, such as any of the varieties of Fourierism. Mr. Hughes permits himself to poetize a little about putting one's self into direct relations with nature, and quotes Emerson a good deal in support of the nobility of farming; but there is, of course, no question about the practicability of farming, and the sentiment connected with it is of the wholesomest. Hawthorne's criticism of Blithedale and the viciousness of manual labor presupposed a kind of mental activity in some degree kindred to his own, and a temperament presumably unlike that of the prospective Rugbeians. The tameness of Rugby life, the monotony inseparable from Arcadian simplicity, is equally characteristic of the country in general, and Sydney Smith's conviction that "rational conversation in sufficient quantities is only to be had from the congregation of a million of people in one spot," is not shared by the ingenuous youth whom Mr. Hughes chiefly addresses. Then there is the shooting and the lawn-tennis.

The first part of the book is entitled "Our Will Wimbles," and declares that in the upper and middle classes of English society there are many analogies of that "handy and genial friend of Sir Roger de Coverley." Among the gentlefolk they form, indeed, almost a class, "the sons of the squirearchy for the most part, with no lack of capacity for study, but full of various energies and tastes which were intended to be useful to their fellow-creatures." They can do nothing that they will consent to do at home. "We may reckon that for something like half the number of those who leave our public schools, and for whom the public service, the learned professions, or the press would be the natural career, those careers are blocked and practically closed." There is certainly trade, the American reader will at once suggest, but it seems that trade is impossible, not because of any social prejudice against it, but on account of the impossibility of succeeding in it and keeping honest. Moreover, since Carlyle described the Englishman's hell as "the terror of not succeeding," mammon-worship, according to Mr. Hughes, has been declining, owing to "a revival" which was "in the air." The result of this on the trading class is "scrupulousness—a scorn of anything like sharpness or meanness—in money matters." The son of the farmer and retail tradesman is, for this reason, "finding the atmosphere of the shop more and more distasteful." So he "turns his back on the counter" and becomes another of the already numerous Will Wimbles. Moreover, the spirit of co-operation is also "in the air," and middlemen are disappearing, which, though a good thing in the long run, causes much temporary distress. As for the artisan class, they are all right as they are. For the many others, "the vigorous communities in every quarter of the globe" which have English customs, laws, manners, and language are the best resource. And in regard to Rugby, Mr. Hughes proceeds to give special details and directions to intending settlers. The *Spectator* letters follow, and are pleasant reading, but we have no space for any of the observations or anecdotes. Part third contains the author's speech at the opening of Rugby, which was noticed in these pages at the time; a magazine article by Mr. Hughes; his address at Rugby school; and the report of Colonel Killigrew above mentioned. One of the reasons given for the selection of East Tennessee as the site of the new settlement is very characteristic of the founder's thorough good feeling and simplicity of sentiment. Speaking for himself only, he says the selection of a Southern State was particularly welcome, because "what we English want, looking to the future, is not only that England and America should be fast friends, but that the feeling of union in the States themselves should be developed as soundly and rapidly as possible," and he is "convinced that a good stream of Englishmen into the Southern States may, and will materially, help on the good cause." It should be added, by the way, that the "Board of Aid" is anxious to have it understood that the colony is English only in origin, and is open to every comer.

Beauty in Dress. By Miss Oakey. New York: Harper & Bros. 1881.

THIS little book cannot fail of the purpose so modestly stated by its author—"to set people thinking in the right direction." "Studies in color" would have been an appropriate sub-title, for suggestions as to colors and combinations of colors suited to the various types of feminine face and figure make up the principal part of the book. The costumes described are so artistic and so surely becoming that we are impatient for some fashionable coterie to adopt them for a fancy ball. It would have none of the incongruity of which Miss Oakey so justly complains as spoiling our ordinary attempts at such parties, and unless some one blundered as to her own special type, we should for once enjoy the sight of a room filled with perfectly-dressed women. Good sense, no less than good taste, has dictated the rules laid down as to other matters in dress. The writer sees, as few do, that the crotchets of dress-reformers are as wide of the mark as the foibles of fashion. Something has been said before of the more graceful effect of long skirts (in their right place), but we believe Miss Oakey is the first to expose the fallacy of the current arguments about the adjustment of the weight of the dress. The simplicity of the style is the more striking from the obvious temptations in the writer's path. Such sentences as "This is an unnecessary display of force—nothing better than a mere gymnastic, that has no value after we have given it the recognition of surprise," carry their full weight only to the initiated; but they are not meaningless, and they do give a legitimate emphasis.

My College Days. By Robert Tomes. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1880.

THIS is one of the books which prove the truth of the remark that autobiography is never dull. Mr. Tomes's collegiate experience was not remarkable, and his narrative of it gains no factitious aid from imaginative color, but seems rather almost bald in its directness. For this reason, however, it possesses a verisimilitude which, together with the writer's candor, makes it very agreeable and at times amusing reading. Apparently Mr. Tomes was a child among his unconscious preceptors taking notes, which he has here written out merely for the love of the thing. The first portion of the volume is the most interesting. Mr. Tomes attended the grammar-school of Columbia College, then in Murray street, of which the late Dr. Charles Anthon was the rector. Dr. Anthon is felicitously described. He never whipped the boys himself, but "established a Draconian code—one law of which, I recollect, though not from personal experience of the penalty, was that the last four boys of each class should be daily whipped." Washington College, now Trinity, had lately been established as an advance fortress of Episcopacy in the hostile Congregational country of Connecticut, and young Tomes was sent thither. The affection he entertains for his alma mater is very slight. He stood at the head of his class all through the four years, but it was not a great feat, he seems to think, and the perfunctoriness and pretence of the instruction made a deep impression on him. One of the tutors was so inefficient that the class went to him in a body, previous to an annual examination, and insisted upon his telling each member what proposition he would be asked to demonstrate; and "Sleepy David" (which is as much of this able instructor's name as Mr. Tomes remembers) complied. This is perhaps unique, but probably the instruction in the smaller colleges forty or fifty years ago bore some resemblance to the general course

it ran at Washington College. After graduation Mr. Tomes studied medicine for a year at Philadelphia, where eight months of study made a doctor, and then went to Edinburgh, where he continued his medical education, taking, unwisely, as he now sees, four years in three. He met or saw many of the celebrities of the day, and has something characteristic to say of each of them. Quite as much space, however, is devoted to accounts of persons not celebrated at all, following Mr. Tomes's practice of impartial outline sketching, without light and shade or perspective.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bigelow, M. M. Punctuation, and Other Typographical Matters. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.

Butterworth, H. Young Folks' History of America. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1 50.

Champier, V. L'Année Artistique. New York: J. W. Bouton. $1 50.

Comfort for the Mothers of Angels. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 50 cents.

Commercial and Financial Chronicle. Vol. 32. New York: Wm. B. Dana & Co.

Gaboriau, E. The Count's Secret: a Tale. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 50 cents.

Gray, J. C. The Biblical Museum. Vol. 6. Psalms. Vol. 7. Proverbs, Ecclesiastes, Song of Solomon. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1 25 per vol.

Hamilton, Alice K. Mildred's Cadet: a Tale. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.

Hatton, J. To-day in America. New York: Harper & Bros. 20 cents.

Irving, W. Wolfert's Roost. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2 50.

Lee, Margaret. Lorimer and Wife: a Tale. New York: Geo. W. Harlan. 50 cents.

McIntosh, R. M. Light and Life: Hymn-Book. Boston: O. Ditson & Co. 35 cents.

Manton, W. P. Insects: How to Catch and to Prepare Them. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.

Newcomb, Prof. S. Algebra for Schools and Colleges. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1 90.

Oakey, Miss. Beauty in Dress. New York: Harper & Bros. $1.

Tomes, R. My College Days. New York: Harper & Bros.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 28, 1881.

The Week.

THE general alarm spread through the country on Saturday at the news of the President's relapse, though greatly diminished by the despatches and bulletins received since, has by no means altogether disappeared. The chill which occurred on Saturday at half-past seven in the morning was followed by another four hours later, and this by a high fever. There was a third chill just before midnight. The consulting physicians from New York and Philadelphia reached the White House early Saturday evening, when a consultation was held, which showed that a pus-cavity or abscess had formed two or three inches below the point where the bullet had entered the President's body. This rendered an operation necessary, and an incision was made resulting in a complete discharge and a relief from the distressing symptoms which had been caused by the obstruction. No indications of pyæmia, or blood-poisoning, have appeared, and the later despatches all go to show that the operation has substantially restored the President to the condition in which he was before the relapse. The courage and endurance displayed by the President throughout his sufferings have been so remarkable as to deepen greatly the public interest and sympathy. A new danger in the malaria of the Potomac has been called to the attention of the physicians by the sudden development of fever and ague among some of the persons in attendance. The summer climate and atmosphere of Washington are not at all what one would choose for a severely wounded man, who has been in constant fever for nearly a month, to be exposed to; but of course this is unavoidable until he recovers sufficient strength to be moved. The public ought to understand, meanwhile, that in his present condition relapses may occur from time to time, and that the best guaranty we have that they may not prove fatal is the fact that the case is now thoroughly understood by the physicians, and that the President has a moral and physical capacity to resist suffering of the most extraordinary and encouraging character.

The election of Mr. Warner Miller in Mr. Platt's place was followed last week by the election of Mr. E. G. Lapham as Mr. Conkling's successor. The small band of Stalwarts which had resolved to stand by Conkling to the last, found that their responsibility for detaining the Legislature at Albany and preventing "harmony" in the party was rapidly becoming too much for them, and signs of a tendency to "weaken" showed themselves in their ranks. The difficulty was to know how they could all become "Judases" gracefully, and at the same time effectively. They could not go into a "caucus," because they had all along refused to do so, but there seemed to be no reason why they should not go into a conference first and afterward into a caucus; and this course it was which they accordingly adopted. After negotiations between some of the most eminent "Half-Breeds" and "Stalwarts" at Albany the Conklingites agreed to go into a conference and abide by its result. When the conference had got into working order some one made the suggestion that they might as well have a "full caucus" at once, on which a "full caucus" immediately developed itself out of the conference, and in this a vote which was promptly taken showed that Mr. Lapham had 61 votes, while Mr. Conkling had 28 as usual. The Conklingites having thus got themselves into a position in which it was necessary for them all to become "Judases" together, cheerfully went into the joint convention, and all voted for Mr. Lapham, thus completing the "vindication" of Mr. Conkling, to secure which he has gone through so much.

Yet the effect produced on Mr. Conkling's mind by the final abandonment of his fortunes by this little band of Stalwarts was one not of scorn and hate, but of profound gratitude. He called none of them "Judas," but sent a despatch expressing his gratitude and admiration for "the heroic constancy of the Spartan band which so long had stood for principle and truth," recognizing the fact that they had been "borne down by forbidden and abhorrent forces and agencies," and predicting that "the memory of their courage and manhood will long live in highest honor." In the evening there was a serenade and a general jubilee, which called out two speeches from the Senators elect. Mr. Miller's speech was mainly historical; he pointed out to his hearers that the Republican party had emancipated 4,000,000 slaves, had crushed a rebellion and preserved a glorious Republic, had restored "a Union," had paid "a nation's debt." Mr. Lapham said that his colleague was no better an Administration man than he was himself—which is queer if true—and predicted that the mission of the party would not be ended "until the time shall arrive when the laws will be self-executing within all our borders." The Legislature adjourned the next day, to the profound satisfaction of every man, woman, and child in the State.

The uninfluential position in the Government occupied by the Vice-President has of late been the subject of extensive newspaper discussion. It has been suggested that the Vice-President be made by law a member of the President's Cabinet. Those who advocate this proposition forget that the Cabinet is not, and never has been, in our governmental system the creature of law. The law provides for a Secretary of State, of War, of the Treasury, and so on, but not for a cabinet as an executive council. The President may call the heads of departments together as a cabinet council and consult with them if he pleases, or he may not call them together as a cabinet at all. No law compels him to do so. He may also, if he pleases, call in any person of his choice to take part in the meetings and deliberations of the Cabinet, and no law stands in his way. If, therefore, the President sees fit to invite the Vice-President to meet with the Cabinet as one of its members, there is absolutely nothing to prevent it. No law is required for that purpose. But so far no President seems to have been favorably struck with the idea, and there is scarcely any prospect that President Garfield will form an exception to the rule.

Postmaster-General James is reported to be considering the question whether it would not be wise in making appointments in the executive departments to permit members of Congress to nominate candidates, and then to subject the candidates so nominated to an examination. This plan, which is not entirely new, having been discussed and rejected in the Interior Department a few years ago, has some plausible features. It is said that it would secure a proper distribution of offices among persons from different parts of the country, and in a measure satisfy members of Congress. It would, indeed, tend to secure an "equal" distribution of places on geographical principles, whatever that may be worth, but the same object can be attained in another manner much more consistent with the interests of the service—by the appointment of a commission to conduct open competitive examinations, whenever required, in different parts of the country. As to the second point, the ordinary member of Congress will not really be satisfied unless he can use the offices as patronage for his own political benefit. On the other hand, constituents do not want merely to be examined, they want to be appointed, and the member of Congress will use his whole influence to that end. In the first place, he will oppose competitive examinations with all his might, and endeavor to substitute for them mere pass examinations. Notoriously, such examinations in our service soon degenerate into a hollow semblance of the thing—into an illustration of the art of how not to do it. But that is exactly what the ordinary member of Congress desires, and, having reached that point, his right to nominate for examination will in nine cases out of ten be equivalent to a right to nominate for appointment. This will be the result; it will be reached by more or less slow approaches, but it will be inevitable. If we are to have civil-service reform with a little patronage in it, we shall soon have, as heretofore, a good deal of patronage with very little or no civil service reform in it.

Another arrest of Star-route conspirators was made last week in Philadelphia, the prin-

cipals being secured, but their tool—the nominal "lowest bidder" in the transactions—being still at large. The latter is an impecunious laboring man, named Wiley, whose employment as a figure-head in proposals to carry the mails "between Tucson and Tombstone, Arizona," was part of the humor of the frauds connived at by Brady. Wiley's rôle of course was "to fail," whereupon the contract was awarded anew at reduplicated figures to the members of the ring. The Postmaster-General has made public some of the evidence against them, including a letter from Mr. William E. Chandler. This statesman, happening to be in Nevada in July, 1879, in pursuit of mining property, was surprised to learn that a mail was to be put on between Osceola and Frisco. He accordingly wrote "my dear Brady," whom the N. Y. *Times* had been exposing for upwards of a year, his opinion of the utter needlessness of it, saying that it would be a sheer waste of the public money, and that he was sure Brady would countermand it "unless the star-service money is appropriated to be squandered." Mr. Chandler may never have enquired whether Brady heeded him, as of course he did not; and if the Congressional investigation of last year did not make him suspect the integrity of his political friend and fellow-"worker," he must have been greatly shocked by the revelations which have cost Brady his place and his reputation, and ultimately, it is to be hoped, his liberty.

Judge Clifford of the Supreme Court died on Monday in the seventy-eighth year of his age. His mental faculties had been impaired for some time previous to his death, and his place on the bench has been practically vacant in consequence. He refused to resign, however, in the hope that the election of a Democratic President might render certain the appointment of a Democratic successor; but he will now, of course, be succeeded by a Republican. As a judge his industry and conscientious accuracy were remarkable, as well as the rigidity of his political convictions. His appointment to the bench was one of the results of the Dred Scott decision, and he took the place of Judge Curtis, with whom it would be unfair to compare him. His partisanship, however, was chiefly the result of the narrow legal view of the relation of the States to the general Government which the old-fashioned New-England Democrat always took, and bore no resemblance to that bitter and unscrupulous spirit of faction with which the politics of our day threatens to taint the judiciary.

Judge McCrary has recently made a decision in the Eastern District of Arkansas which contains some suggestions that will, we fancy, be both novel and interesting to railroad men. The case was one brought by the Southern Express Company against the Memphis and Little Rock Railroad, to prevent the latter's excluding the former from the transaction of business on its line. The judge decided that the railroad was bound to carry for the express company, and must not discriminate against it either in favor of itself or of other express companies; but he added the following significant remarks: "I am not prepared now to fix the maximum rates to be charged for the transportation of express matter; but I have no doubt of the power of the court after investigation to do so. An order for this purpose should not, as a rule, be made until after a reference to a master, and a report by him after a hearing." But why should the report be only on maximum rates? or why should it be confined to express companies? It is obvious that it could not be so confined in practice, for Judge McCrary's decision goes upon the ground that express companies stand upon the same footing with other customers of the road. If the courts' aid were once called in to fix maximum rates for them, it must soon be used for the purpose of fixing all rates, for freight and for passengers as well. In fact, the judge would have to run the railroad, see that the crops were "carried to tidewater," "cut rates" when necessary, exterminate "scalpers," "consolidate" and "pool earnings" with other judges. Probably some of the courts would develop greater talent in railroad management than others, and this would produce judicial Jay Goulds and Vanderbilts, after which we should have to begin over again with new remedies.

The *Herald* publishes in fac-simile a letter written by the California "Tichborne," which shows that the art of personating that gentleman has made a considerable advance since the failure of Arthur Orton to recover the family estates. One of the chief mistakes that Orton made was through displaying a want of familiarity with French and Latin, with both which languages the missing baronet had been familiar. The translation of "Laus deo semper" by "The laws of God for ever" made no impression on his immediate circle of friends, perhaps because they thought it correct, but with most people this and some similar slips in French made the improbability of his story seem very strong. The new Tichborne has taken a lesson from these little mishaps of his predecessor, and shows his familiarity with French, at least, at every turn. In the *Herald's* letter, which is addressed to his friend Colonel Barnes, of San Francisco, he drops into French in a way bewildering enough to confuse his oldest friends. Not only does he sign himself "Votre très-humble et très-obéissant serviteur," but he spells many English words in a way that would seem almost to betray a French birth rather than a French education. Mr. Barnes has addressed a letter to him telling him plainly that he regards his story as "very remarkable, and worthy of notice as an effort of imagination if nothing more," but that if he wants to have it looked into he must come from San Diego to San Francisco and have it properly investigated, and offers to advance money for the purpose. He is now understood to be making an effort to "sell out" at San Diego before taking his departure for England—an attempt which may be regarded by "a friendly mind," says the *Herald* correspondent, as "in perfect harmony with the whole course of this much wronged or sadly erratic wanderer."

The Coles homicide will probably do something to call attention not only to the practice of carrying concealed weapons, which is at the bottom of so many crimes of violence, but also to the abnormal position which female homicides evidently feel has been established for them. According to the account given by Mrs. Coleman of her proceedings, she had been in the habit of carrying a pistol to "protect" herself, and as soon as she discovered that her husband knew of her intimacy with Coles she immediately got this pistol and killed him. By this means, it seems, she has greatly endeared herself to her husband, and the latter is now engaged in warmly promoting her defence, and a very affecting interview has taken place between the two in jail. Now, how did it happen that Mrs. Coleman was in possession of a pistol, and why had she been in the habit of carrying it to "protect" herself? Clearly because she was in the habit of going about in a way that respectable women do not generally go about, so that the taking of life had become to her not an altogether unfamiliar or unattractive idea. She goes to a theatre with a female friend, and accepts a private box from an unknown man in the ticket-office, and then goes off and drinks with him. It is absurd to suppose that a married woman does not know to what such adventures as this lead, and if he takes an improper advantage of her, her killing him with a pistol she "happened to have in the house" is none the less a case of deliberate, premeditated murder. As a defence, this statement of the case, put forward by the woman herself, is a curious illustration of the state of mind which women like Mrs. Coleman—and there are multitudes of them in every large city—must believe the community to have reached on the subject of homicide originating in improper relations.

At the Stock Exchange, speculative shares declined during the week from 1 to 9 per cent. This was partly brought about by the President's relapse, and partly by the further cutting of rates by the trunk-line railroads, the lowest figures yet recorded having been made in the last few days. The decline, which now ranges for the month from 5 to 20 per cent., many leading stocks having fallen over 10 per cent., has forced a great many sales of stocks that have been carried on "margins"; and these, with the "short sales" of professional speculators, have made the downward current at times seem irresistible. Mr. Vanderbilt is quoted as saying that the trunk-line war will continue, for anything he can see, until winter, and as expressing bitter hostility to the new rival lines projected or in process of construction. The money market continues easy. Foreign exchange has declined, and is steadily drifting towards the gold-importing point. General trade continues large in volume. Railroad traffic shows no falling off, and it is

clear that the present railroad war is waged less on account of deficient tonnage than for other reasons. Silver bullion in London advanced to 51½*d.* per ounce. The bullion value here of the 412½-grain silver dollar closed at $0.8643.

The statement made on Monday in the House of Commons by Sir William Harcourt shows that ten infernal machines have been discovered on board two vessels at Liverpool just arrived from this country; that each machine contained eleven cartridges of nitro-glycerine and a compound in the nature of gun-cotton. The machines were shipped in barrels as cement, and the British Government were informed of the consignment, and even of the names of the vessels in which they were to come, three weeks in advance. The Home Secretary is also reported to have stated his belief that the shipment was connected with "the avowed projects of the Fenian press in America," and expressed the conviction that the United States will give efficient aid to Great Britain in its efforts to destroy "these associations of assassins." In the absence of further facts it is impossible to tell whether these machines were intended to be put to active use or whether the shipment was merely designed as a new Fenian scare. In either case the shippers, if they can be found, have made themselves liable to fine and imprisonment under the laws of the United States. The Revised Statutes require all dangerous articles, such as nitro-glycerine or gun-cotton, to be distinctly marked on the outside "with the name or description of the article contained therein," and make an infringement of this requirement a misdemeanor, punishable by a fine not exceeding two thousand dollars or imprisonment not exceeding eighteen months, or both. There is also a penalty of five hundred dollars for shipping such articles on board a passenger vessel. These provisions, however, were not designed to meet the case of the shipment of explosive machines, expressly constructed for the destruction of life on a large scale, and are ridiculously inadequate for such a purpose. What punishment should be provided for such an offence is a question which requires careful consideration. Modern science and modern facility of transportation have brought within the reach of criminals stupendous agencies for the destruction of life, and criminal laws have by no means kept pace with the rapid advance in the machinery and means of crime.

The Home Secretary thinks that the shipment of these machines can be connected with the agitation in favor of the "skirmishing fund" in the Irish press of this country, as to which representations were made some time ago by the British Government to ours. If anything of this kind can be shown, there can be no doubt that the Government would do all in its power to bring the criminals to justice. The misfortune is that in the present state of the law so little could be done. A prosecution for shipping infernal machines is one thing; a prosecution for inciting people generally to subscribe to a fund for the purpose of carrying on outrages in behalf of Ireland, which leads some one to ship infernal machines to Liverpool, is something more difficult to deal with. Sir William Harcourt says that our Government has returned no reply to the representations of the British Government with regard to the articles published by the Irish press here.

It is clear from the utterances of their own press that the French begin to feel that in Africa they have sown the wind to reap the whirlwind. The *promenade* to Tunis, with the theatrical speedy return, before the deadly heats of midsummer, turns out a very serious affair in its consequences. A little sharp fighting after a very sonorous bombardment, as last week at Sfax—whether it cost a score or a hundred of men, or even more—is certainly not distasteful to the nation that has been for ten years panting for a little fresh military glory. But to have to fight when complete victory has been triumphantly announced; to have to order the naval squadrons just returning to sail back again; to see the power of the African prince declared a *protégé* crumble away in a day before the fanaticism of his subjects; to have to threaten the Porte on account of its doings in Tripoli, and at the same time solemnly to declare to England that Tripoli is the Porte's inviolable possession; to see the country occupied east of Algeria menaced with a general insurrection at the moment when the south of Western Algeria is devastated by tribes of the desert, and abandoned by its French defenders; to have provoked both England and Italy, and to hear all the world sneeringly declare that France has sunk her chances of revenge on the Rhine in the desert bottoms of Africa, and feel that there is much truth in this view—all this cannot be but galling in the extreme to the patriotism and vanity of France. Difficulties and dangers have been unnecessarily created, the glory achieved is at best questionable, and, as a French paper stingingly remarks, Bismarck alone applauds.

The news from Russia continues to be very unsatisfactory. Nothing as yet has been done towards the creation of a *modus vivendi* between the Government and the more or less revolutionary elements of society which would render even a brief period of tranquillity and recuperation possible—not to speak of normal, healthy activity above and below. The Government has as yet apparently no other thought than that of momentary peril, of averting new catastrophes. Every day—almost literally so—new and startling evidences of deadly conspiracy against Alexander II. or Alexander III. are brought to light. All St. Petersburg seems to be undermined. No department of the Government itself is free from the secret intrusion of Nihilism. Officers of the admiralty supply explosives; boats selected to transfer the Court from Gatchina to Peterhof—which has been done—are found to hide instruments of destruction; princes of the blood, the Grand Duke Constantine Nikolayevitch and his son are treated as if they were plotters against the Czar. No new policy is enunciated or distinctly foreshadowed. Ignatieff, formerly a free-spoken diplomatist, is more reticent than was his cunning Armenian predecessor in power, Loris-Melikoff, now virtually an exile. There is talk of transferring the seat of government to Moscow, and the Slavophils of that old capital are now undoubtedly more in favor at the Court than the *Zapadniki*, or friends of western institutions; but, although the new Czar evinces some courage in now and then exposing himself in public, the courage to act, to initiate a measure, or to declare an important intention seems to be completely wanting.

Interviewing kings is a branch of journalism which has been hitherto comparatively neglected, and we are glad to see that a beginning has been made by a correspondent of the London *Standard* upon Prince Alexander of Bulgaria. The correspondent was well received by the Prince, who "expressed his pleasure at meeting a representative of the *Standard*," and proceeded to make a very frank statement of his position and intentions. He is anxious to have these understood in England, not by "Mr. Labouchere and those who think with him" (for, he says, "I know well enough what kind of people they are"), but by the English people. He did not, it seems, wish to become Prince of Bulgaria, because he had read the "half-republican constitution" and "knew the man who drew it up," but he gave his consent merely to oblige the late Czar. He then goes on to give an account of the difficulties with which he has had to contend as a ruler, which seem to have been very serious. In two years he had to "dismiss seven cabinets and two Chambers," and "to oppose a large number of useless bills." In fact, "no really useful law has been proposed in the Chamber." They are all "childish and selfish; not meant for the good of the people, but only to benefit the governing clique"—which he elsewhere refers to as the "ring." The Bulgarian "ring" is headed, it seems, as is usually the case with rings, by ten or a dozen "ruling men" living in the "great towns" and in the "lowest society." The Prince soon found that they had all the power, while he had all the responsibility. "There was no justice to be found in the whole country. Judges who declined to obey their commands were dismissed or otherwise got rid of." Meantime the Prince had "learned to like" the Bulgarian people, who were thus misgoverned, and was puzzled to know what to do. Finally he took the Emperors of Austria, Russia, and Germany into his confidence, and asked them what course he had better pursue. They all said, "Do what you please, but do not leave Bulgaria." Finding that this was the view taken of his constitutional duties in the quarters where they were best understood, he proclaimed a dictatorship in order to secure "future freedom and the constitutional rights of the people." He thinks this can be done in seven years, but it may take longer.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

On Friday afternoon the President had a serious relapse, the main symptom of which was a chill, which it was at first thought might indicate pyæmia, or blood-poisoning, although the danger from this had been regarded as nearly if not quite over. Drs. Agnew and Hamilton, the consulting surgeons, were telegraphed for on Saturday. The bulletins admitted the gravity of the check to the President's convalescence, and despatches announcing it were sent by Secretary Blaine to Minister Lowell. It was discovered upon examination on Sunday, however, that the cause of the unfavorable change was the obstruction of the natural discharge of the wound by the deflection of part of the wounded rib, which had caused the formation of a cavity of pus in the fleshy part of the back. This being lanced, the President experienced immediate relief, and it is maintained that the two apertures thus secured afford additional opportunities for satisfactory treatment. Nevertheless, Drs. Hamilton and Agnew now relieve each other at the bedside of the patient.

Nothing occurred to explain the mysteriousness of Mr. Conkling's request last week that his followers should remain "solid for another twenty-four hours." On the contrary, the "current" set so strongly in favor of the Administration nominations that the Stalwarts concluded on Thursday that all that remained for them to contend for was decent terms of capitulation. Different measures to this end were discussed, and finally, on Friday, the Conklingites determined that, if a conference could be held, they would attend it, endeavor to get a caucus called, and be bound by its action; if unsuccessful, they would be bound by the decision of the conference. The success of the first alternative, it needs to be pointed out for the benefit of distant observers of the controversy, involved the discrediting of the "caucus" which nominated Messrs. Miller and Lapham. The conference, however, was called by Senator Robertson in joint session, distinctly on his own responsibility, as he said, and, before it could be exactly determined whether or no it was a conference or a caucus, or what its effect would be upon the "record" of the Stalwarts for consistency and firmness, and, in general, their title to be called the "Old Guard," enthusiasm was insidiously introduced and Mr. Lapham was nominated in a trice. Later in the day he was formally elected by a vote of 92 to 42 for Mr. Clarkson N. Potter. Great applause greeted this result. Cheers were given for the two Senators-elect, for President Garfield, for Roscoe Conkling (given with great zest), and then, to console the Democrats for this exhibition of party harmony, for Mr. Potter.

In the evening a serenade was given to the newly-elected Senators by the 1880 Club, which is composed of Half-Breeds, and the Grant Club, a Stalwart organization. Both Senators made speeches. That of Senator Miller was almost exclusively patriotic, but Mr. Lapham's has excited some remark on account of several of its observations. He declared that he and his colleague had not been elected "for the poor purpose of dispensing the Federal patronage in this great State of New York," and continued: "That is an inferior portion of the high duty devolving upon a Senator from the Imperial State. It is a duty which my honorable colleague and myself, I trust, will be able to discharge with malice to none, with hatred to none, with charity to all. There are other and higher duties," etc., etc. These sentiments were greeted with applause at the time, but have since awakened censure as indicating a misconception of the main objection to the notions of the Senator whose term Mr. Lapham is chosen to fill out. Mr. Lapham was received at his home, Canandaigua, on Saturday, with the ringing of church-bells and general popular acclamations, but the rejoicings were naturally affected by the serious news from Washington. As Mr. Lapham observed at Auburn, en route, he had only time to hope that "the dastardly effort to add the name of President Garfield to the roll of martyrs may prove abortive."

The Democrats, after the senatorial contest was definitively settled, issued, through their joint caucus committee, a sonorous and lofty address to the people of the State "without distinction of party." In this document they speak of the expense to the State of the enforced duration of the session and of the cause of the same, which they characterize as "a question of official patronage or the spoils of office." The removal of Collector Merritt was made, they say, "in total disregard of every announced principle of civil-service reform, and was not called for by any principle of political duty nor in the interest of the public service." They are equally severe upon "the useless resignation" of the Senators, which "has cost the State not only a large amount of money, but, what is more valuable, its honor, dignity, and self-respect." They also allude derisively to the "vulgar but expressive" names of Stalwarts and Half-Breeds, and say that the only bond of union between them has been opposition to the Democrats. They pay their respects to "a man named Warner Miller," refer to the bribery charges, and charge Guiteau's crime upon "that personal fanaticism which was and is the fruit of a greed for public office, and of a false and dangerous political education." Finally, they appeal to well-recognized popular sentiments "against this enormous and aggressive personal power."

The Legislature adjourned on Saturday with uncharacteristic quiet, considering the turmoil of the last seven or eight weeks of its session, which in all lasted six months. The customary speeches were made, marked by the customary candor and felicity. In response to a Senate resolution of thanks for his discharge of the duties of presiding officer, Senator, now Collector, Robertson congratulated the Senators "on the unqualified approval by your constituencies of the manner in which your senatorial duties have been discharged." In the Assembly Speaker Sharpe congratulated his colleagues "that in legislation you have responded to the desires of a great constituency, and if measures of public interest which were uppermost in the minds of the people have failed, in whole or in part, the failure will not be laid at your doors." Among these measures the Citizens' Street-Cleaning Bill is perhaps the most important; and this and the election of Senators in the place of Messrs. Conkling and Platt, as well as of Platt in the first place, have been the distinguishing marks of the Legislature of 1881.

The case of Jenkins Van Schaick against the Western Union Telegraph Company, already before the courts, was before Judge Barnard, at Poughkeepsie, last week, on motion of the plaintiff's counsel to set aside an order granted the week before, vacating the injunction previously granted against distributing the $15,000,000 of so-called watered stock. After argument, the Court denied the motion on the ground that there was no great public benefit to be obtained, and the matter had already been tried (before Judge Truax) on its merits, and therefore the parties considering themselves aggrieved would have to submit.

A sudden decline in Metropolitan Elevated Railway stock on Monday brought out the fact that on Saturday Mr. Cyrus W. Field, on behalf of the New York Company, had brought suit in Kingston before Judge Westbrook to obtain possession of the Company's property now held by the Manhattan Company. The allegations of the affidavits on which the petition was based have already become familiar to the public through the recent similar litigation, of which there has been so much begun. Judge Westbrook granted an order requiring the defendants to show cause why the petition should not be allowed.

The Warren Court of Enquiry, adjourned some months ago after the taking of the testimony in the case, resumed its sessions on Monday for the summing up of counsel. It was arranged that each side should have two days for argument, and Mr. Stickney at once began on behalf of General Warren, who was present. General Sheridan was detained in the West and will leave the conclusion of his case wholly in the hands of Major Gardner, his counsel.

The committee appointed by Bishop Potter (Protestant Episcopal) of this diocese to "enquire whether the rumors and allegations which had been current for some time were of a sufficiently serious character and sufficiently well founded to present the Rev. Edward Cowley for [ecclesiastical] trial," rendered their report on Friday. The "Rev. Mr." is better known as "Shepherd" Cowley, and has been, it will be remembered, indicted, convicted, sentenced, and imprisoned for uncommon inhumanity. The committee, which consists of Rev. J. H. Rylance, Rev. Jas. Mulcahey, Rev. C. C. Tiffany, D. B. Whitlock, and E. H. Cushman, "after a very long, laborious, and conscientiously-prosecuted investigation," as they say, "are compelled to refrain from presenting the Rev. Edward Cowley for trial in a court of the Church for crime." That is to say, they do not regard indictments and convictions, by grand and petit juries respectively, as "rumors and allegations" of a "sufficiently serious character and sufficiently well grounded" to have any weight, *per se*, with an ecclesiastical examining tribunal. This decision has given rise to considerable unfavorable criticism on the part of "Churchmen" who are also lawyers.

One of the most singular murders that have occurred for a long time in this city was the shooting last week, in the Bowery, of a man named Coles by a woman named Coleman, the alleged motive being indignation that the victim had truthfully told the murderess's husband that he had been intimate with her.

The custodians of the cemetery containing the bones of William Penn, which the Pennsylvania Legislature have expressed a desire to procure and bury in the land that bears his name, are unalterably opposed to the removal of them, and the opinion as to the project on the other side of the Atlantic is probably expressed by the London *Times*, which says: "It is little better than mockery to think of doing honor to such a man as Penn by the grotesque proposal to disturb his remains." Meantime, the Philadelphia *Ledger* explains that it is a great mistake to regard any resolution of the State Legislature as the opinion of the people of Pennsylvania, particularly in this matter, which has every appearance of the proverbial teapot tempest.

The Ohio State Temperance Reform Convention met at Cincinnati on the 20th inst., and, after adopting resolutions of characteristic import, nominated a ticket of which the candidates for governor and lieutenant-governor, respectively, are Abram R. Ludlow and Jason McVeigh.

So much has been said about the anti-temperance views and action of Governor Foster, of Ohio, who is a candidate for re-election, that he has written a letter to the "Ohio Anti-Liquor League," which held a convention at Loveland on the 20th inst. In this communication the Governor asserts that the many charges against him are untrue and out-

rageous; that he has been accused, for example, of saying that "the Methodist preachers ought to be snubbed," whereas "such a thought never occurred to" him; that he has been charged with refusing to deliver a temperance address on a certain occasion, the fact being that he had not been asked to deliver one; that similar accusations as to his holding a reception in a Sandusky liquor-saloon, "meeting saloon-keepers in conference," and so on, are all, so far as he has heard of them, absolutely without foundation. "Nevertheless," he does not believe that "either local option or prohibition or a tax-law is constitutional," and therefore supports the liquor plank adopted by the late Republican convention which nominated him, and which calls for the submission of the question to the people with a view to legislation hereafter, when possibly it will be necessary to take sides decidedly as to the essence of the point really at issue.

A statue of the late General McPherson, marking his grave, was unveiled at Clyde, Ohio, on Friday, in the presence of twenty-one posts of the Grand Army of the Republic. Ex-President Hayes was president of the day; there was a procession a mile long, and an estimated audience of 18,000 persons present. General Sherman unveiled the statue and made the most noteworthy of the several speeches delivered on the occasion.

The latest news from the crop-raising region of the Northwest is not more favorable than heretofore, so far as wheat in particular is concerned. That cereal is said to be in a critical condition. Corn, however, and oats and barley are reported as doing very well. The army-worm is a pest in Illinois, but has not appeared elsewhere, except in Iowa, where its ravages have been comparatively slight.

Senator Dawes, of Massachusetts, has just written a letter upon the subject of civil-service reform, in which he objects to the diffuseness of the discussions upon the topic, and endeavors to concentrate attention upon what seems to him the most pressing evil—namely, "Congressional participation in appointments to office." In support of this he contributes instructive incidents within his own experience, but, he remarks, it is idle to fix the question of blame since the evil "stares the most earnest and thoughtful statesmanship in the face," "eats out the soul and consumes the life-blood of the legislator, and must be ended." His way of ending it is a short and easy method of dealing with applicants by "two brief orders" to be issued by the President, announcing first that no man will be appointed to any office while he is in the City of Washington, and, second, that no man will be rewarded who brings, unasked by the President, the recommendation of any member of Congress.

Judge Nathan Clifford, of the United States Supreme Court, who has been ill and demented for many months, died at his residence in Cornish, Me., on Monday. Judge Clifford was appointed by President Buchanan, January 28, 1858. His last prominence was as a member of the Electoral Commission of 1877.

The death is also announced of George Payn Quackenbos, LL.D., well known as the author of popular school-books and for other services to education.

Sitting Bull has at last "come in" and reported to Major Brotherton. A speech which he made upon his reception amounted to very little. His frame of mind, however, is conveyed by the remark, "I now wish you white people to help me to whatever I am to have."

FOREIGN.

The House of Commons was on Monday mainly occupied with the subject of Irish outrages, of which distinctly so-called, by the way, there have been few or none to speak of during the week. Sir William Harcourt began the discussion by announcing that the Government of the United States had not yet replied to the representations of the British Government as to incitement to outrage, but admitted that no "representations" had been made in regard to dynamite plots. However, ten "skirmishing machines" had been seized at Liverpool on their arrival from this country, having been discovered by detectives. Intelligence of these had been received, Sir William said, more than three weeks ago, and investigations were in progress both in England and America to ascertain the authors of the diabolism. He added that for more than nine months subscriptions looking to this result had been open in America, and that the Irish-American Fenian press had made during that time constant threats of outrages. He quoted the example set by Great Britain in dealing with the *Freiheit*, and expressed confidence that Americans would find it to their interest to be similarly vigilant with regard to associations of assassins. The incident has, of course, aroused more openly-expressed indignation in the British press.

The Land Bill got through its committee stage on Friday, and the order to report it to the House was greeted with "loud and prolonged cheers." The last committee action upon it was the rejection of a clause moved by Mr. Chaplin, Conservative, supported by the Home-Rulers, requiring a yearly return to be made to Parliament of the judicial rents fixed by the court. Mr. Gladstone's objection was that such a return would give rise to "invidious remarks without conferring any corresponding benefit." The Land League demonstration at Dublin on Sunday is described as a doleful failure. "There were only twenty horsemen," the cable says.

Mr. Bradlaugh has obtained some additional notoriety during the week. Last Wednesday, in an interview with the House of Commons Inspector of Police, he declared that he did not intend to bring a mob to Westminster when he came to present himself at the table of the House to take the oath on August 3, but frankly admitted his inability to prevent a crowd from gathering. He has, however, summoned for the preceding evening a meeting for an orderly protest in Trafalgar Square against his exclusion. Friday, the jury in the suit in which he was a defendant for having sat and voted in the House of Commons without taking the oath returned a verdict of £500 against him.

The funeral of the late Dean Stanley took place at Westminster Abbey on Monday, and was, of course, attended by an eminent gathering. At the rear of the procession were deputations from the American Educational Aid Association and the American Exchange in Europe.

It is unofficially reported from the Transvaal that the Boer triumvirate have rejected sixteen out of the thirty-six articles drafted by the royal commission, and that Sir Evelyn Wood will shortly leave Pretoria for Zululand. The terms, as settled by the royal commission, give the Boers the right to elect the Volksraad and the President; the whole of the Transvaal is to be retroceded, and the suzerain given the right of declaring war.

The heat in London and Paris continues, though it has somewhat abated in the former city.

The *Pall Mall Gazette*, following its unpleasant vaticinations regarding American financial prosperity, displays even greater anxiety about the Paris money market, which, it says, "thoughtful men" consider "the weakest great money market in the world at the present time."

Lord Colin Campbell and Miss Gertrude Blood, an Irish heiress, were married on Thursday, and the presence in England of Mrs. Victoria C. Woodhull Blood has caused several of the esteemed contemporaries to report that the bride is a daughter of that odorous lineage. Upon contradiction, the credulity given to the report is explained on the ground that the British aristocracy are capable of anything.

Lefroy, the supposed railway murderer, has been committed for trial.

French affairs in North Africa have experienced no substantial change during the week, though considerable activity is reported. It is not yet known whether Bou-Amena, who was at first heralded as the successor of Abd-el Kader, has succeeded in raising a fanatical revolt of large importance, though the quasi-subordinate tribes are clearly in a state of much commotion. An engagement near Sfax, which resulted very favorably for the French, is reported, and the announcement is made that the French commander in that region has ordered the immediate disarmament of the natives and the payment of a war indemnity of 15,000,000 francs, a sum which, even if collected, will possibly fall short of satisfying the demands of foreign residents for damages incurred during the shelling of Sfax. The holy city of Kairouan is said to be a refuge of Arabs from Sfax and to have revolted. The Bey's troops are reported to be deserting him by hundreds, and the Tunis aqueduct has now to be constantly guarded. Tripolitan tribes are raiding in the neighborhood of the capital and are as hostile to the Bey as they are to the French. The French press is more hostile than ever to Turkey, and attributes to the Porte a desire to stir up dissensions in Tunis as well as to disaffect Tripoli. Meantime the Sultan of Morocco has appealed to the Porte to stop the North African agitation, with what result it does not yet appear. It is announced that the expedition to proceed against Bou-Amena in the fall will consist of three columns of twelve hundred men each.

General Cialdini has left Paris and gone to a bathing resort, and Baron Marochetti, the Italian Chargé d'Affaires, has been appointed a commander of the Legion of Honor, and the result is announced to augur a conciliatory feeling on the part of France towards Italy.

Despite some opposition on the Republican side, the French Chamber of Deputies on Friday granted 2,500,000 francs to reinforce the naval strength of the Republic in the Gulf of Tonquin, "owing to piracy there."

Twenty-five pupils of the military school of Saint-Cyr have been sent to a regiment to serve for five years as second-class soldiers for attending Mass on the birthday of the Comte de Chambord.

Don Carlos has issued a protest against his expulsion from French territory, the cause of which can only have been, he says, his presence at the Mass celebrated for his uncle on St. Henry's Day. He also refers to the French treatment of Spanish settlers in Algeria in terms of sorrow, but explains, with true Bourbon charity, that "France is not responsible for the acts of her Government."

A London report announces the laying of an independent cable from Germany to Valentia and thence to this country by arrangement between the German Telegraph Company of Berlin and the German Union Telegraph Company. The cost is said to be fixed at £165,000, for which preference-shares bearing 5½ per cent. interest are to be issued.

A rumor that Midhat Pasha had opened his veins with scissors to prove his theory that Abdul-Aziz could have committed suicide in that way was telegraphed last week, and was even contradicted. Midhat's fate is now said to have been placed in the hands of the late Sultan's children, from whom it is believed he can expect more justice if not more mercy than from the Turkish tribunal which lately tried him.

MR. CONKLING'S EXIT.

THE defeat of Mr. Conkling forms an instructive chapter in our political history. It is a clear case of "greatness" mania with a fatal result. Mr. Conkling had evidently become the victim of singular hallucinations in consequence of circumstances for which he was not altogether accountable. When a man who is naturally inclined to inordinate self-esteem finds himself constantly surrounded by flatterers, who never cease to speak to him of his superiority over all other men, and bow to his will in all things, he will finally himself believe in his own sublimity, and mistake his relation to the universe. He will gradually begin to look upon himself as the centre of creation, and regard the gratification of his selfishness as an inborn right, which everybody else is bound to respect. That Mr. Conkling's mind gradually drifted into this morbid condition was undoubtedly, in a measure, owing to the obsequiousness of his friends. They must, to a great extent, be held responsible for the follies of his course and his final downfall.

Mr. Conkling was led to forget that in a republican country a public man, however able, must persuade in order to exercise power. He has always been naturally disposed to despise those who did not agree with him. He was so overweening in his consciousness of grandeur that it gave him no concern when he made enemies: it was rather a pleasure to him to offend; it became natural to him to hate. So he made one enemy after another. They could not injure him as long as they were few, but he managed to increase their number until they exceeded the number of his friends.

But more than that. Here was a man of ability whose self-conceit, stimulated by the reckless flattery of his followers, made it appear superfluous to him to learn. He was constantly told that he was a very great statesman, and he readily believed it, without feeling the necessity of studying those great questions of public concern a thorough understanding and wise treatment of which are the first requisites of true statesmanship. And so it happened that with regard to the most important problems of our day the opinions of this prominent party leader, assuming him to have had any, had no weight whatever. Such as he had, or seemed to have, were the crude impressions of ignorance or at best of half-knowledge. He put forth his "great efforts" almost exclusively on questions in which personal or party power was involved. Power was his object; not power for the purpose of accomplishing statesmanlike ends, but power for its own sake, to be employed only for the purpose of acquiring more power. It is questionable whether in using this it gave him more pleasure to reward his friends or to punish his opponents.

One of his great boasts was his unswerving party fidelity. Every independent movement he treated with a sneer. And yet it is well known that he contemplated with cheerful composure the defeat of his party when its victory would have given an advantage to his opponents within it. He had become so accustomed to look upon his own predominance as the supreme interest of his party, that without it the party appeared to him unworthy of consideration. It is perhaps just to Mr. Conkling to say that in this conceit he was perfectly honest. Any opposition to his authority in the party appeared to him like an act of rebellion against a legitimate ruler, and in this State the well-organized and disciplined force of his retainers was for a considerable time strong enough to execute the political death-warrants decreed by him. He was easily led to believe that on the national field he was as strong as for a long time he had been at home, but in this he overreached himself. He failed at the Chicago Convention in imposing his will upon the Republican party, and when he tried to subdue President Garfield's Administration, and found that his opponents were as much regarded as himself, he had to resort to what he thought a terrific *coup d'état*. Many have speculated profoundly upon his motives in resigning. He simply expected that the whole American people would stand aghast at the thought of losing him from the political stage; that the Senate would not dare to think for a moment of confirming Mr. Robertson in his absence; that the Legislature of New York would at once be on their knees begging him to go back to the Senate, and that public opinion would wrathfully condemn an Administration which had recklessly exposed the country to the danger of losing Roscoe Conkling's services.

We know how absurdly mistaken he was. Instead of the Legislature imploring him to go back to the Senate, he had to beg the Legislature to send him back. The sternly faithful partisan even went so far as to plan a coalition with the Democrats for his benefit. All in vain. The greatness built upon the power to grant favors and to punish opposition began at once to crumble. It was at last discovered that he was not genuine—not genuine as a statesman, for he had not been a leader of opinion; not genuine even as a partisan, for he had not hesitated to sacrifice the ascendency of his party in order to serve his own interests. All that remained was the pomp of an impressive personality, the reminiscence of former power, and perhaps in the minds of timid persons the apprehension of a possibility that this power might be regained. But the gilt was off—the inferior metal had appeared; and even if the gilt could be put on again, it would deceive nobody, for the substance beneath was known. For this reason Mr. Conkling's defeat is one from which he can never entirely recover. As the downfall of ungenuine greatness it is an instructive spectacle, especially to young men in public life. They see a man of ability, who but a short time ago appeared to be one of the most powerful in the country, not only defeated but utterly shattered. He still deludes himself by ascribing his defeat to "forbidden and abhorrent forces," whatever that may mean. But the force that defeated him was not corruption in the Legislature, although there may have been much of it; it was the almost unanimous judgment of the people, who not only condemned his conduct but, which is worse, had actually grown tired of him.

We do not mean to say that Mr. Conkling will never return to public life. If he tried to do so at once it would only be a fruitless prolongation of the agony. But if he should now devote himself to an earnest enquiry into the great problems of public concern which hitherto he has neglected, he might at some future time easily make himself more useful than he has been in the past. He can, of course, never be again what he was, and still less what he tried to be.

RESTORING "HARMONY."

No candid man can deny that there is a great deal of truth in the review of the recent Senatorial struggle put forward in the shape of an address to the people of the State by the Democratic members of the Legislature. No one can deny, for instance, that the source of the long detention of the Legislature at Albany was "a question of official patronage or the spoils of office." No one can deny that the Collector of this port was removed "in the midst of his term of service from a place where he was serving with general acceptance to the public and appointed to a place abroad—uncalled for by his friends or by the public—in which he has no experience," nor that the change was made "in total disregard of every announced principle of civil-service reform." It is true that this quarrel over the offices between the "Stalwarts" and "Half-Breeds" first resulted in the election of a "third-class man" to the Senate, and that the subsequent resignation of Mr. Platt and Mr. Conkling not only was "useless," but has cost the State a great deal of money and of self-respect as well. It is true, also, that these resignations were simply due to the displeasure produced in the mind of Mr. Conkling by his apprehension that the Custom-house might be used to reward his enemies and punish his friends. The address gives, too, a fair enough account of the objections which may be urged against Mr. Warner Miller and Mr. Lapham as representatives of New York in the Senate. Without any further examination of the various counts of the indictment, we may sum it up by saying that the Democrats treat the whole contest as a mere squabble over the offices, which has been carried on in such a way, and has produced such results, as to show that the Republican party is wholly unfit to continue in power.

The Democrats evidently feel that it is unnecessary for them to do more at present than to "arraign" their opponents, and call the attention of the public to the exhibition they have been making of themselves, to carry the State this fall. They will, of course, in the fall hold a convention and put forward some very fine principles in a platform that will contain a resolution loudly calling for civil-service reform; but their main reliance will be upon the split between the "Stalwarts" and the "Half-Breeds," and the paralyzing effect

which such a split may be expected to have upon their adversaries. The quarrel has already furnished the Democrats with a good deal of valuable political capital, and one of the most important questions in politics at the present moment is how their attack is to be met.

It can be met in only one of two ways—either by the unsparing use of patronage for the formation of an Administration Machine to take the place of the Conkling Machine, or by an appeal to popular sentiment through the adoption of such a course as will show the public that the day of Machines is over. The supporters of Mr. Conkling must be filled with alarm and despondency at the result of their struggle and their present position, and their most serious interest just now must be connected with the patronage on which they are so fast losing their hold. Now, with politicians who are in this frame of mind the offices may be undoubtedly used so as to heal the breach which has been opened. Some may be placated by being given an opportunity to help in the management of a new Machine, in which they shall exercise their old power and influence, but for the benefit of the Administration rather than of its enemies; others may be driven into obscurity by having their places in the Machine taken away from them, and so on. This is one way to restore "harmony" in this State, and it is the one which commends itself to some of the most skilful managers of the "Half-Breed" and the "Stalwart" persuasion. This method, however, while it eliminates or crushes out discontent among the conspicuous officeholders who manage the Machine, has no necessary effect upon the body of the party at all; and if it be conceivable that the public at large has become thoroughly disgusted with this old-fashioned way of restoring "harmony," it ceases to answer its end. You may make a Speaker of the Assembly, and even a Commissioner of Public Works, thoroughly "harmonious" in this way, so that the Machine which they manage will run without a creak; but if the spectacle of a Machine run in this way excites public disgust, their "harmony" will be of no practical use whatever. Now this, we believe, is just what has happened. The public disgust aroused by the proceedings at Albany has not been merely with one particular kind of Machine, but with the institution itself, and any further use of it now by the Administration to offset its preceding use by the Conklingites will only excite further dissatisfaction.

This throws us back on the other method, which is the abandonment of the Machine altogether, and an appeal to popular sentiment on the subject by a determined effort to sever once for all the connection between the conduct of the business of the Government and the conduct of the business of ward meetings and conventions. There is no State where the experiment could be made with more safety than in New York, where the existence of a considerable floating vote, undetermined and undeterminable by any amount of "harmony" among the managers, is admitted.

A third method, that of producing "harmony" in the party by dividing the offices between the two factions, has been already tried, but has failed so completely that it will probably never be resorted to again. There cannot be two "Machines" of the same party at one time in any State, and the attempt to make an equal distribution of offices between "Stalwarts" and "Half-Breeds" can only embitter their differences. In fact, it was the attempt to do this which led in a great measure to the ferocity of the late conflict.

TAXATION IN VERMONT.

THE citizens of Vermont are, it seems, very much pleased with the practical results of the new tax-law of that State. This enactment requires every taxpayer to make a sworn return of all his property to the assessors, and authorizes the assessors, in case this is not done, to ascertain the amount of his property and double his assessment, and provides that all property shall be assessed at its full value. Simple as these provisions appear, says a correspondent of the *Times*, their effect has been to add $63,000,000 to the tax-lists.

The requirement of a full list of property is said to have at first "created considerable feeling, particularly among business men"; but it was complied with by all but a hundred of the seventy-three thousand taxpayers of the State. Those who refused obedience, however, were some of the wealthiest men in Vermont, and one of them, "to the shame of the judiciary, be it said," was a judge of the Supreme Court. Another judge of the same court, however, has given expression to the general public sentiment on the subject in a charge to the Grand Jury, in the course of which he said: "If the enforcement of this tax-law should fill our prisons, or drive off people not willing to bear their equal share of public burdens, the better it will be for the State. Better a small population of honest men than a large one of perjurers and shirks."

The provisions of the Vermont law seem to have been copied from that of New Hampshire, and also closely resemble those of the Massachusetts law, which gives the assessors power to "doom" any taxpayer who fails to make a return by an arbitrary valuation of his property. In other respects the tax-laws of New England do not differ much from those of New York, but these penal features constitute an innovation which originated with, and, we believe, is still confined to, that part of the country.

Economists and people who allow themselves to be misled by economists will perhaps find it hard to understand why the Vermonters should be so hugely delighted with their new law. This, however, is because the New England view of taxation is very different from that taken by economists. According to the latter, taxation, being an impost levied upon the profits of industry, is a burden which ought to be made to weigh as lightly as possible upon the community, and hence they have generally agreed in regarding it as an essential feature of a good system of taxation that it should be levied upon as few articles as possible, that the machinery for its collection should be simple, and above all not inquisitorial.

In New England the view taken of the whole subject is quite the opposite of this. The New England theory of taxation is not only that a tax ought to be collected on everything, but that the machinery for collecting it should be so oppressive and inquisitorial that the taxpayers must either "pay up" or leave the State. Indeed, with many persons in New England the old notion that the primary object of taxation is the collection of revenue, has been supplanted by the idea that the principal use of a tax-law is to ascertain the moral character of the community, and, as Judge Veazey says, to drive away "perjurers and shirks." This theory of taxation has, perhaps, been most completely developed in Massachusetts, where the most interesting discussions have been carried on in the Legislature as to whether the simple device of taxing both land and the mortgages on land really adds to the taxable wealth of the State.

It seems to be admitted that the New England system of taxation does lead to evasion, and in Boston it has long been the custom of wealthy taxpayers to lighten their burdens by moving out of town early in the year, so as to have a legal residence in a town where the rate of taxation is low. Of course this diminishes the tax-list of Boston, and would in some communities probably lead to a suspicion that the law was not altogether what it ought to be. But in New England the view of taxation we have been considering, while it leads to severe condemnation of the "tax-dodger," makes any examination of the causes which produce "tax-dodging" unnecessary. Of course if the Vermonters like their new law no one outside of Vermont need object to it, but it is founded on a view of taxation the spread of which deserves the thoughtful attention of all property-owners.

GERMAN RAILWAYS.

ONE of the most important of recent contributions to the literature of the "Railway Problem" is embodied in the official correspondence of the State Department for 1880, being a sketch of the railway history of Germany made by Dr. R. T. Ely, a fellow of Columbia College, at the request of Mr. Andrew D. White, our late Minister at Berlin, and by the latter transmitted to our Government. Dr. Ely, it appears, had spent some three years in studying this and similar questions in Germany. His observations and conclusions are given in the space of fourteen pages of the volume of diplomatic correspondence. Every point relating to the political, military, and economic bearings of the Prussian railways is elucidated in this painstaking and admirable dissertation.

Railway-building commenced in Germany in the year 1835. In 1838 the Prussian monarchy (which was not then allowed to contract debts unless with the consent of the "estates

of the realm," which could not readily be obtained and without which it was impossible to raise money for constructing state-railways) passed what might be called a "general railroad law," which is still in force, fixing the conditions upon which such undertakings might be confided to private enterprise. Some of these conditions might have been adopted with advantage in this country. For instance, all shares subscribed for must be paid in full in cash and the money applied to the work before any borrowing can be done. No loan for construction purposes can be effected without the consent of the Government, which has a right to require a sinking-fund to be established for the liquidation of the debt. Railway tariffs must be conspicuously published, and no change which increases rates can go into effect until six weeks after publication, and no discrimination can be made between persons. When the profits of a railway exceed ten per cent. upon the actual cost the tariff must be reduced. (This provision, by the way, has always been evaded.) At the expiration of thirty years after the opening of any railway the state has the right of purchasing it at a maximum price equal to twenty-five times its average annual dividend during the five preceding years.

Under this law rather more than one-half of the Prussian railways have been built. With the adoption of the Constitution of 1850 the Government acquired the means of constructing railways with its own resources, and it built several roads which were deemed too expensive or too little remunerative for private enterprise, the most important of which was the one extending from Berlin northeastwardly to the Russian frontier. No definite railway policy was adopted by the state, and the two systems —that of private ownership and that of state control—grew side by side until the year 1866, when there were 3,600 kilometres in the former category and 3,300 in the latter. About one-half of the roads operated by the state were held under lease, the other half being owned by the Government. By the political annexations of 1866 the Government came into possession of all the railways owned by the annexed kingdoms and duchies. Nevertheless private enterprise outran the Government until the beginning of 1873, when private companies operated 7,000 kilometres against 5,750 operated by the state. In this year Dr. Lasker made his famous attack upon the Minister of Commerce, Count Itzenplitz, charging corruption in the administration of the general railroad law, whereby "concessions" or charters were granted to certain favorites of the Minister, and especially to Dr. Strousberg, and withheld from others. A protracted investigation was had which substantially sustained Dr. Lasker's charges and led to Count Itzenplitz's resignation. The committee of investigation were charged among other things to enquire how far the intentions of the Government in granting charters to private companies had been fulfilled. Under this head they reported that "railways are public highways resembling in essence and purpose other highways. The only means of justifying the Government in relinquishing them to private industry and speculation is financial necessity. It appears desirable to transfer to the Empire a controlling power over all German railways."

Nothing was done to carry this recommendation into effect until 1876, when Prince Bismarck brought in a bill in the Prussian Parliament to authorize the Government, if it should desire to do so, to sell all the Prussian state railways, together with the Government's right to acquire the private railways, to the Empire. Inasmuch as the Prussian system is the preponderating railway force in Germany, its acquisition by the Imperial Government would give to the latter a great access of power as against the "Particularists" or State-rights party, who constitute the dominant faction in Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Saxony. Prince Bismarck, in advocating the measure, made a speech which would have delighted our Anti-Monopoly League.

The bill was passed by the Prussian Parliament. It remained for the Empire to complete the bargain by purchasing the Prussian railways. The "Particularists" rallied against it in such force that it was never brought before the Reichstag at all. But Bismarck was not deterred by adverse public opinion; he seldom is. He redoubled the exertions of the Government to gain possession of the private railways of the Kingdom, in order to bring against the non-Prussian state railways the powerful competition which the united Prussian system, under a single control, is able to compass. By measures adopted in 1879, partly by purchase and partly by building new lines, the Government became possessed of fifteen thousand kilometres (about ten thousand miles) of railway, or three-fourths of the entire mileage of the Kingdom. It is now in a position to secure the remaining Prussian railways on its own terms, since it can destroy the value of their property by competition.

Prince Bismarck's railroad policy is bottomed upon political and military, rather than upon economic, considerations. His leading idea in this, as in all his other large undertakings, is to consolidate the Empire and extinguish the power of the separate states. He has no objection to the existence of courts and thrones at Dresden, Carlsruhe, Munich, and Stuttgart, provided they confine themselves chiefly to parade and dumb show, and leave the essentials of government to Berlin. But railways are a source of réal power, and so long as the local governments of Saxony, Bavaria, and Würtemberg own the lines within their borders they are of separate consequence in the councils of Europe. Bavaria, for instance, lying between France and Austria, holds a very important key of communication in Central Europe, and one which she is by no means disposed to surrender. Nevertheless, Bismarck's policy, in the opinion of Dr. Ely, will eventually prevail, and the Empire will come into possession of all the German railways it desires to own, though not perhaps in Bismarck's lifetime. The destiny of all French railways, by the terms of their charters, is to fall into the Government's possession, without money and without price, at the expiration of ninety-nine years after their completion. This contingency operates as a powerful aid to Bismarck's plan for controlling the German railways, since it is deemed necessary to put the Empire on a footing of equality with her most dangerous neighbor.

While economic considerations are not of prime importance in bringing about this great change, they will be by far the most important when it is once effected. The advocates of state-ownership point to many advantages of the system which it is reasonable to suppose may be realized—namely, uniformity of tariffs, non-discrimination as between individuals and localities, the assurance that tariffs shall not be higher than necessary, and shall not be changed without good cause or without sufficient notice, the public satisfaction that must result from knowing that all surplus receipts go into the common treasury, etc. All these things may be realized in a country which has a civil service as rigid and business-like and free from political interference as the New York Clearing-house, and without which the system of government ownership would be as much worse than that of private corporations as the Star-route system of mail transportation is inferior to that of Wells, Fargo & Co.

THE REVISED NEW TESTAMENT AND ITS RECEPTION IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, July 12, 1881.

NEARLY two months have passed since the Revised Version of the New Testament appeared, yet there has been comparatively little criticism of it in the press and less appearance of public interest than might have been expected. The sale was, of course, enormous and still continues. In the long run a very considerable effect will be produced upon the religious ideas of ordinary persons. But our people are a slowly moving people; they are sound sleepers; they usually take a long time in rubbing their eyes before they get them well open, and do not for some time see objects clearly. Even when they have read a book and some criticism on it they do not at once make up their minds about it, still less draw all the conclusions which it suggests; and of course those who are most interested in theological questions are not usually those who can give a sound opinion on questions of translation from the Greek. Though every man who pretends to cultivation has learned classics at school or college, few indeed are those (except, of course, members of the teaching profession) who keep up their classical studies in middle life. Not one man out of fifty who takes his degree at our universities (teachers again excepted) reads any Latin once a year; not one in two hundred takes up a Greek book. Even among the clergy, whether Anglican or Nonconformist, the level of scholarship is not high. Hence in discussing the reception which the Revised Version has met with here one must remember that the opinion of scholars is the opinion of a very select body, on which the opinion of the public partly depends, and for the rest is formed entirely from comparing the former or, as we call it, the Authorized Version with this new one.

Scholars are a good deal divided in their judgment. The majority hold that the revisers have done well in taking as the basis of their translation a better Greek text, and are disposed to doubt whether they might not have been even somewhat bolder in their deviations from the received text. There is, indeed, an opposed view—that the *textus receptus* ought to have been adhered to, so that no corrections should be made except in the English version; and the desirability of having one uniform Greek text for all the Protestant world is urged, even though that text should not be the best. But this notion, which would have perpetuated false readings that have been long admitted and obelized, finds little favor. As to the details of the new translation there is, of course, an infinite diversity of view. Some think that renderings have been changed which were substantially right in the old version; others, that passages which needed improvement have been left untouched. For instance, one of our most illustrious public men maintains that if anything ought to have been mended, it was surely the translation of ψυχικός ἄνθρωπος by "natural man" in 1 Cor. ii. 14. A warm controversy rages over the question of "evil," or "the Evil One," in the Lord's Prayer —*i.e.*, whether τοῦ πονηροῦ is to be taken as neuter or as masculine. Agreement on such matters was not to be looked for; and no one will deny that the revisers have, as might be expected from the great advances which Greek scholarship has made since King James's days, presented a far more exact expression in English of the meaning of the Greek original than the Authorized Version contains. Probably no translation of any Greek or Latin author can be pointed out in which so much attention has been paid to every shade of sense and turn of phrase. There is really nothing in this new version which can be called an error; even those who disapprove of the decisions at which the translators have arrived in particular passages must admit that there is always much to be said for their view, and that it would be impossible to imagine any work done with more scrupulous care or a more competent skill in the usages of Hellenistic Greek. The question rather is, whether they have not thought too much of accuracy and too little of the effect to be produced on ordinary readers; whether in their anxiety to convey every shade of meaning they have not put too fine a point upon their English and, so to speak, whittled away some of the strength and broad simplicity of the original.

This brings one to consider the sentiments with which the general public has received the translation. Though, as has been already said, England has not yet finally expressed its mind, still the general feeling can hardly be mistaken. It is a feeling not precisely of displeasure, but of discomfort. The traditional phrases which familiarity and the associations of childhood had hallowed have been so modified as to lose their charm. The cadence of the sentences to which the ear had grown so accustomed that they were always read with particular inflexions of the voice has been broken, so that much practice will be needed to get new inflexions that will give equal pleasure. People who have tried the new version by reading it aloud at family worship complain that they are constantly being pulled up and stumbling over small changes in expression which do not seem to them to make any perceptible difference to the meaning. And many individual passages have been indicated where words of Latin origin have been substituted for the Teutonic words of the Authorized Version, giving a sort of flatness and commonplaceness as well as modernism. The new version, in short, is accused of being less picturesque and more prosaic than the earlier one. Taste is extremely sensitive in these matters, and it cannot be denied that the occasional archaisms of King James's version had the effect of enhancing the dignity of the Bible. They removed it from modern associations; they made people feel the better that it belongs to a remote time; their very peculiarity caused the memory to be more tenacious of them.

It is not altogether easy to estimate the worth of such criticisms, because a great deal must be allowed for the mere aversion to change which all men feel in matters that touch their inmost emotions and most settled habits. Even undoubted improvements are not at first welcome. The Scotch, for instance, regard their metrical version of the Psalms, which seems harsh and bald to Englishmen, with an affection incomprehensible to those who have not learnt it by heart in childhood. When the new version has been in use for fifty years it may well be that many of the alterations which now excite dislike will have been approved of, and that the new cadences will be thought as perfect as the old ones. Still, after making every allowance for these feelings, it may be admitted that the revisers have to some extent misconceived the nature of their task. They have been too much Greek scholars and too little English writers. They have proceeded as if the main thing to be done was to weigh out with precision every ounce of meaning that the Greek text contains. They have not sufficiently remembered, in the first place, that they were dealing with an existing version, which ought not to be altered unless where some distinct and substantial improvement was to be obtained; and, secondly, that the most literal rendering is not necessarily that which best conveys the sense to a reader in another tongue. It is not for professed theologians that a revised version was needed, since they must in any case go to the original and conduct their discussions with reference to its words, comparing the use of the Greek term in one passage with its use in another. The accuracy needed for ordinary readers is different. It is only such an accuracy as may keep them from misconstruing the Scriptures, and drawing from them unwarranted conclusions either of dogma or moral precept. What is wanted is that the meaning should be presented in a broad, plain way, with such simplicity of language as will make it comprehensible to common intelligences, and such force as will enable it to touch the heart and dwell in the memory. The ordinary reader reads to be edified and interested; if the alternative is between a rendering which will impress and stimulate him and another which will best carry to a subtle mind all the finer tinges of thought in the original, the former is rather to be preferred, and certainly the more so if it has already established itself in the affections of the people. Truth, of course, comes first; and if one were forced to choose between the Authorized Version with its occasional serious errors and the Revised Version with those errors removed, but some of the purity and raciness of the style also gone, perhaps it would be necessary to choose the Revised. But would it not, men ask, have been possible for the revisers to expunge those errors while leaving the rest of the translation almost unaltered? Yielding to the natural temptation to make their work as complete and finished as possible, may it not have been that they were not content to stop when the errors had been struck out? Is not the consequence to be felt in a considerable disturbance of association and an apparent loss of strength in the English New Testament as a whole? It is no secret that the Old Testament revisers, whose labors will not be finished for some three years more, have gone on a different theory, and are altering the phraseology of the English Old Testament as little as possible; in fact, only where it is plain that the present translation is wrong. They have both an easier and a more difficult task: easier, in that the text of the old Hebrew books is better settled than that of the Gospels and Epistles; more difficult, in that it is in many places almost unintelligible, whereas in the New Testament one can always make at least a probable conjecture as to the sense, and has only to choose between more or less plausible renderings.

In the state of public opinion which I have endeavored to describe, it need hardly be said that there is little likelihood of the Revised Version finding its way into official use. So far as I know, none of the more important Nonconformist bodies has adopted it for public worship. Whether a clergyman of the Church of England could now use it in the regular services of his church or not, is a question as to which high legal authorities are not agreed, though the better opinion seems to be that he could not, and that some formal legal authorization by the Crown or by Parliament would be necessary. This will not be given; it is not even talked of as possible. Further reflection and study of the new translation may modify men's views, but at present the proposal to substitute it officially for the old one would encounter the greatest opposition from the general public, and find little support even among scholars. But it would be a great mistake to suppose that the work is therefore a failure and barren of results. Even those who do not like it admit that it is a more valuable contribution to a more perfect translation than any which has yet appeared; that it supplies a basis on which a permanently satisfactory structure may be erected. To the large and increasing class of persons who desire to read the Bible intelligently and teach it in Sunday-schools, but have no knowledge of the original tongues, it is of the utmost service as throwing light on the old version, giving a better idea of the meaning of difficult passages, emancipating them from conventional phrases, and showing them how to apply their minds to make out the connection of a writer's thoughts. It is, so to speak, like a critical edition of the New Testament, prepared by an unprecedentedly capable set of editors, to use and apply which is of itself no small education in critical methods. And in this way it may be expected to give a considerable stimulus to biblical studies among us.

One, more remote, result of the appearance of this new version ought not to be forgotten, though it cannot show itself for some time to come, and has never, that I know, been referred to on this side the Atlantic. It can hardly fail to set men thinking more and more about the origin and authority of the books of which the Bible is made up. Hitherto a great part of our people have practically treated the Authorized Version as if it was an inspired English book. They have known nothing about the variations in the Greek text, nor about the different claims to authority which different books possess. All has been alike to them God's word, and so much God's word that they have constantly founded arguments on words which a reference to the Greek upsets in a moment. This

new translation, which brands as spurious or doubtful passages that stood in the old version; which in many places departs from its rendering and puts a different sense on the Greek; which admits not only that the text is in parts uncertain, but that the true meaning of the text is uncertain, can hardly fail to affect the unquestioning reverence with which the New Testament has been heretofore regarded. Protestants have thought they had no need of an infallible visible church speaking through councils or a pope when they had an infallible book. But what if it be necessary to enquire into the credentials of the book itself, into its date and its claims to bear the name under which it passes, as well as into the purity of its text? All these questions point, as so many other new controversies here point, to a reconstruction of the basis of Protestantism; a process which may not be an easy or a speedy one, and during which some temporary advantages may be gained by other forms of religion, not to speak of the advocates of negation. Yet the willingness which the Presbyterians of Scotland have recently shown, in the case of Prof. Robertson Smith, to consider all questions regarding the origin and history of the Scriptures as fair matter for discussion, shows with how little alarm even ultra Protestants are prepared to enter on this new range of enquiry.

Y.

A FRENCH VIEW OF THE TUNISIAN CONQUEST.

PARIS, July 8, 1881.

UNDER the Second Empire of Napoleon III. the whole web of diplomacy was spread round the Emperor. He was in the midst of it, like a gigantic spider, ever watching *quem devoret*. The *Kladderradatsch* of Berlin never spoke of him except as *Er*. After every comment upon the questions of the day it used to add, "What thinks *Er?*" Europe has another *Er*. There is not much done without *His* permission; and it must be confessed that the new primate of European politics has more statesmanlike views than his predecessor. The Tunisian affair, which now occupies all Europe, can be traced back to a few conversations held in Berlin during the late Conference and the Congress which had to settle the Eastern Question. Prince Bismarck gave an intimation that, in the general breaking down of the Ottoman Empire, he should have no objection if France seized the Tunisian portion, and thus aggrandized her African empire. Lord Salisbury seems to have viewed this eventuality with the same philosophy, though he has since attempted to add shades and reserves to the formal expression of his opinion.

It is clear that the Tunisian question is not an invention of the day. It has been prepared, and it is no mystery that Germany has given France a sort of *carte blanche* in Africa. There are, of course, many people who think and say that Prince Bismarck, in encouraging the efforts of France in Africa, has no other object than to weaken her—to oblige her to maintain a large army in districts always ready for revolt; that he wishes, also, to create between France and Italy a permanent cause of irritation; that he is not displeased at making the *entente cordiale* between England and France less cordial. In fact, those who pretend themselves the wisest repeat, in melancholy tones,

"Timeo Danaos et dona ferentes."

The Tunisian expedition took everybody by surprise, even the French nation. Nobody was prepared for it. We knew very well that there are always on the frontiers of Algeria some unruly tribes which live by plunder, but the Kroumirs were not, it was felt, the real cause of the war. France had entered on a course which must, sooner or later, conduct her to the annexation of Tunis; but it was not felt necessary to go immediately to Tunis. A railway built between Guelma and Tunis, on Tunisian territory for the greater part, had received, a few years before, the guarantee of a minimum of interest; the Chambers voted this guarantee, and nobody in Europe remonstrated, though such a vote indicated an evident desire to give to French enterprise in Tunis all the help of the French state. France has now great interests in Tunis, and the rivalry between the French and the Italian consuls precipitated matters. The Orientals believe in nothing but force, and when a French general, with his staff, brought to the Bey of Tunis a treaty prepared by M. Roustan, and gave him only a few hours for meditation, the old Bey recognized the necessity of siding with France. He accepted the protectorate which was offered him, and his favorite minister, Mustapha, who was previously so much inclined towards Italy, is now at the Grand Hôtel in Paris, and we can see him every night at some theatre, surrounded by his followers in black coat and fez.

There has been in this Tunisian affair something artificial, which produces on the mind the conviction that the details of it had been arranged beforehand between the parties most interested. Those who were not in the secret are not satisfied; but the silence of the two great Continental empires, Germany and Austria, and the assent of Russia, can make France somewhat indifferent to the daily interrogations which are put in the House of Commons on Tunisian affairs. It can even make France indifferent to the irritation of Italy. The French people have their doubts as to the propriety of indirectly annexing Tunis, they are far from enthusiastic in this matter; they know that the occupation of some parts of Tunis and the introduction of civilization in that part of Africa will involve great difficulties—the history of the Algerian colony is before their eyes. But certainly they cannot be much moved by the protests of a nation which, without having spent a soldier or a shilling in the late Eastern war, took for its share in the final settlement the beautiful island of Cyprus. The safety of the road to India is an argument with which we are all familiar; the safety of our Algerian colony is also an argument: we must protect Algiers, as well as we can, just as England must guard the access to India. In the general disruption of the Ottoman Empire (and England herself has quite sacrificed the cherished Palmerstonian integrity of the Ottoman Empire) we see Bosnia and Herzegovina falling into the hands of Austria, who is already allowed to turn her eyes on Adrianople; Greece, without having made any effort, receives a large territory; Bulgaria becomes an independent state; Cyprus is one pearl more in the necklace which begins at Gibraltar and ends in Egypt. It is not very absurd if France, and, I will add, if Italy, have some share in the redistribution of the territories which once belonged to the Porte.

Italy has only to say a word and she will certainly have the part to which she is entitled by her situation on the Mediterranean Sea. Napoleon I. once said: "I want the Mediterranean to be a French lake." We want it now to be a Spanish, French, Italian, and Greek lake. Tripoli, which is now in a state of absolute barbarism, would very naturally fall into the hands of Italy. The struggle which took place at Marseilles between the Italian population of the town and the French, on the occasion of the return of some troops from Algiers, is an incident of the perpetual struggle for life and the competition for labor. Piedmontese laborers are frugal, hardy, contented with small pay; they constructed not only all the new forts of our eastern frontier, but also the new forts which surround Strassburg. They are very good navvies, and our contractors employ them everywhere on the new railway lines. The workmen of the port of Marseilles took the first opportunity to vent their bad humor on the industrious Italians who live among them, and who compete with them. I cannot attach much importance to the demonstrations which took place at Palermo, at Turin, at Rome. They were the work of the "Italia irredenta" party, which has no great importance. The Irredentists spoke some time ago very loudly of the province of Trent, but as soon as the Austrian Government desired it they remained perfectly mute on the subject. Italy has become too great a nation to be the instrument of the ambition of a few politicians; she cannot be so unwise as to compromise her situation in Europe without any adequate cause. She is just now making a great loan in order to return to specie payment; in order to destroy the paper which has been her only circulating medium she must find six hundred millions of lire in gold, and lock that gold up in Italy for two years. This gold would have been found in Paris, and a loan was already arranged with the house of Rothschild when the anti-French agitation in Italy prevented the success of the negotiation. The loan is now issued in London, but London must come to the Bank of France in order to get gold; at any rate, if the Bank of France raised the rate of discount the gold would flow to its vaults, and London would find it difficult to provide Italy with gold without much inconvenience to herself. The European markets have been so overloaded with all sorts of new values that a small cause might create a terrible crisis. It is highly probable that the Italians will not choose now to pick a quarrel with France on account of this Tunisian affair; it is more likely that they will enter into negotiations with France on the question of Africa in general, and discuss with her the various eventualities which may arise from the gradual and fatal decomposition of what was once called the Ottoman Empire.

England's anger against France is probably more deep-seated than the anger of Italy. It is the fate of England to be condemned herself to perpetual annexations; and it is her nature not to like in others what she must do herself. However, there are many reasons why England should not follow blindly the dictates of the instinct which makes her look with distrust on all the movements of France. The trade which has sprung up between the two countries has created moral as well as material ties. It seems at times as if England were only too fond of us, and as if her love of France were becoming a sort of mania. French novels seem to her better than English novels, French artists better than English artists; French politics console her advanced Liberals for the defects of her old *parlementarisme*, and where are these advanced Liberals not to be found? It seems at times as if a new spirit had possessed England, and as if she were becoming sick at heart of all the things which once made her so proud. Young

England has not yet destroyed Old England ; still, Young England has become so important that it is now a political factor, and Young England, contented with settling the affairs of Egypt in harmony with France, with negotiating with France for a new treaty of commerce, will not play into the hands of Old England for the sake of an old Bey of Tunis, of the port of Biserta, or of Sfax. "Leben und leben lassen" is its motto, as it is the motto of the Viennese. Besides, even Old England will not take any important move so long as the great Fürst von Bismarck keeps his masterly silence, so long as *Er* does not remonstrate with France, and gives her African efforts the support of his sympathy, or even of his indifference.

We must, therefore, expect to see the Tunisian question follow its natural course. The fanaticism of the Ottoman world, which was crushed at Plevna by the Russians, has found an eccentric theatre in the regions which lie at the south of our colony. When autumn comes our troops will have to hunt the insurgents from oasis to oasis. At the present moment war is next to impossible on the frontiers of the great African desert, but the year will not end before a great campaign will be made in Algeria and in Tunis. Such campaigns have always been necessities from time to time ; each of them creates new fields for the work of colonization, which is not only a large field for the French, but also for the Spaniards and Italians.

GERMAN SYMPATHY FOR PRESIDENT GARFIELD.

BERLIN, July 9, 1881.

IT can easily be imagined that the news of the assassination of President Garfield created a most painful sensation all over Germany. It reached the public on Sunday morning, and provoked the utmost consternation in all classes of society. In Berlin there was one cry of indignation. The dangerous condition of the Empress, whose recovery from an operation for hernia was just then very doubtful, fell entirely into the background before the President's cruel fate. The offices of the popular newspapers, such as the *Tageblatt*, *Tribune*, *Volkszeitung*, were besieged by a crowd eager for news, and every symptom of decreasing danger was joyfully hailed.

It is a consoling fact, and a strong proof of the innate goodness of human nature, that in such moments of public disaster all national and party differences fade away, and that for a time, at least, all men form a common brotherhood. So it was on this occasion. Sunday being a fine day I went to a public garden in the afternoon, where President Garfield, of course, formed the engrossing subject of conversation. A great many people did not understand how it could happen that the President of a republic who had been elected by the people should be fired at. Others said that they had had too high an idea of the public spirit of a republic to believe it possible that murder could be resorted to by a dissatisfied office-seeker. The people present all seemed to labor under the impression that the moral standards of a democracy were higher than those of a monarchy. I here again observed that among the lower, as among all half-educated classes, the notion prevails that a republic and absence of oppression are synonymous. The form of government in their eyes is more than the substance. "I thought better of the United States," said an intelligent-looking man in full earnest. "I had intended sending two of my boys over there, but that fellow Guiteau is no better than Nobiling [the German assassin], and the American people is no better either." I took my seat at a table where several mechanics, in a quite modest and unassuming way, discussed the same all-absorbing question, and came to the conclusion that the spoils system lay at the bottom of the Washington tragedy. "If the Americans do not do away with this infernal principle," said a bright little tailor to his neighbor, "they will go down the more rapidly as their resources develop themselves. In every walk of life," he continued, "man is his own master, and of course chooses whom he considers most competent to help him or to do his business ; but in the United States the Government for the benefit of the politicians chooses men as its clerks and officers who have failed in other spheres of life, and are merely rewarded for services rendered in politics, or who have at least not proved that they understand what they are bidden to do." When I asked the man how he could judge so positively of American public matters he replied that he had worked five years in the United States, in New York as well as in Chicago and Dubuque, but that on account of hard times in 1877 he had returned home.

What the tailor knew from his own experience the newspapers almost unanimously stated in their articles commenting on the murder of the President. On the whole, their reasoning was sound and much more to the point than in matters which require solid knowledge of American constitutional law. The journals, however, would perhaps not have been able to judge rightly of the causes lying at the bottom of the attempt, if for the last three months the manœuvres of Boss Conkling and the question of public patronage had not been so largely dwelt on in the American press. Of the Berlin liberal papers the *Tribune*, the organ of our secessionists, had the best comments upon the attempt—indeed equal to any in the best New York papers. The American editor of that journal, Mr. Loewenthal, was for more than ten years a resident of the city of New York. The *Provincial Correspondence*, on the other hand, the well-known Government organ, tries to make capital out of the crime for its small party purposes.

"This attempt," it says, "proves even to the infatuated of all nations that the so-called liberal and free institutions, even after having found their expression in a republican form of government, form neither a defence nor a shield against any atrocity ; and it further proves that similar crimes which have been perpetrated in the monarchical states of Europe cannot be cured by a change of principles underlying the government, nor by granting greater liberties."

As an offset to this it may be said that all over Germany not a single voice has been heard which ventured to excuse the crime, nor has any one expressed the opinion that the form of government can afford protection against wickedness or violence.

Little or nothing can be said of our home politics, since we have entered on the dead season of the summer. The different parties are concentrating their activity on the preparations for the coming elections. Bismarck expects to carry the campaign with the cry, "Help for the poor man!" but the Social-Democrats have rather lost their confidence, if they ever had any, in the uprightness of his aims, for, on the strength of the so-called Socialistic law of 1878, the state of siege has been declared for Leipzig and its neighborhood, and as a consequence thereof eighteen Social-Democratic leaders have been driven out of that city. Another defeat has been prepared for the Chancellor by his own son, who, in one of the Berlin wards, has made so impertinent and childish a speech that the Liberals instantly ordered half a million copies of the stenographic report to be distributed throughout the country. Young Bismarck, although lately appointed to the position of assistant to his father, is little of a diplomatist. His speech teemed with ignorance of the most notorious facts, and abounded in rough attacks on the character of prominent opponents and of the city government, which, without a shadow of proof, he denominated as corrupt. The young man is a mixture of the overbearing ensign and the ill-educated student.

If you have perhaps heard that the German delegates to the Monetary Conference at Paris had changed their mind in favor of bi-metallism, I can positively inform you that this assertion of Wolff's Telegraphic Bureau is utterly destitute of foundation. People here for a moment were alarmed by this unforeseen news, which, however, by the succeeding mail was discovered to be a manœuvre of money-brokers and exchange-dealers. On the contrary, Messrs. Von Thielemann and Schraut—the former a very able diplomatist, the latter a thorough master of the subject—in the sessions of the conference of July 2 and 4 referred to their old views without any remark which could be interpreted as being favorable to bi-metallism. Mr. Schraut coincided only in one point with Mr. Dumas, the French delegate's, position—namely, that in order to extend the circulation of silver it was necessary to substitute this metal for the paper denominations below twenty francs. It is very characteristic that the tenor of the official documents is very often just the reverse of the statements of the bi-metallists, who in every way try to distort and confound the real proceedings. Bismarck being indifferent to the whole subject, his subordinates will have their own way in this matter, all the more because, apart from other economical and scientific considerations, about fifty millions of marks have been spent in readjusting our monetary system on the gold basis.

Mr. Evarts's speech before the adjournment of the Conference has reached us through the New York *Herald*, and makes a rather hilarious impression. When a prominent lawyer and experienced statesman like your late Secretary of State makes a sentimental address to the heart and good-will of sober people, he cannot have business reasons for the position he has taken, and rests his case in the conviction that he will be beaten. Mr. Evarts, having gone among the financiers, had in future better follow the advice of Mr. Hansemann, a former very able Prussian Secretary of the Treasury, which is more in keeping with financial transactions and has become a favorite German quotation : "In money matters tenderness of mind ceases" (*In Geldsachen hört die Gemüthlichkeit auf*). And for this reason we Germans will also stick to the gold standard. †††

Correspondence.

THE INHARMONIOUS VICE-PRESIDENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : Allow me to call attention to the following paragraph, to which the near future may perhaps give still more pertinency. It is from Mr. Gar-

field's preface to the Marquis de Chambrun's 'Executive Power' (written in 1874):

"In discussing the relation of the office of the Vice-President to our system the author notices the fact, which I think has not been elsewhere discussed, that while the office of Vice-President is valuable for the purposes of an election—the candidate being usually selected with a view to supplementing the opinions of the candidate for the Presidency—yet this very fact makes the Vice-President an inharmonious element for the purposes of administration. The author traces to this cause the fact that, whenever our Vice-President has become President, his administration has not been satisfactory to the country. On the whole, the author doubts the value of the office of Vice-President, and says that our example in this particular should not be followed elsewhere." A. J.

NORWALK, CONN., July 25, 1881.

THE MAIN REASON FOR CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While it is true that the late attack upon President Garfield's life is drawing the attention of the country more directly to the necessity of reform in our civil service, it is amusing to observe that even some of our leading papers assume as the principal reason for this reform the added protection to the person of the Executive to result therefrom, ignoring the many advantages which overshadow this in importance. The careful preparation of youths destined to occupy positions of command in the naval and military services of the Government is so generally admitted to be needful, that any measure looking to the abolition of the training-schools would be strenuously opposed by public opinion, which, however, views with apparent indifference the selection of persons unfitted by previous technical training for offices involving duties more constant and important. The hope of radical reform in this quarter has been so often disappointed, the efforts of the declared friends of an improved civil service in Congress so faint-hearted and transitory, that every lover of his country may well prepare himself to see a continuance of the mortifying spoils system, despite the passing protest induced by the attempted assassination.

H. W. T.

NEW ORLEANS, July 16, 1881.

GUITEAU A REPUBLICAN FANATIC.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It seems to me that the fact that Guiteau was an applicant for an office before he shot the President has little or nothing to do with our civil-service methods. There is little or nothing to show that his failure to obtain an appointment made him an assassin. And when we remember that since the days of Andrew Jackson there have been every four years a hundred thousand disappointed office-seekers, we should ask something better than newspaper clairvoyance in pointing out Guiteau's motive.

Now, Guiteau himself says that he shot the President in order to unite the Republican party; and we submit that there is nothing to make this at all improbable. The assassin belongs to a class of monomaniacs, and it is not a small class, who believe that patriotism and support of the Republican party, if not synonymous terms, are always found united; who think that no man who votes the Republican ticket can be a very bad or a very dangerous man, and that the man who does not cannot be either a good or a safe man. Such a man, who thought the President wrong in his fight with Conkling and that the Republican party was in danger, would regard the death of the President as a great blessing to the country; and such a man was Guiteau.

The civil service has enough to answer for, but with all its begettings it did not beget Guiteau. —Yours, etc., B. M. T.

EAST SAGINAW, MICH., July 20, 1881.

AN ANNUAL REPORT FROM YALE WANTED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the last issue but one of your paper you give voice to what is, I am sure, the wish of a great many graduates of Yale—namely, that their Alma Mater should let them know every year how she stands pecuniarily, and what changes she has made in discipline and instruction. The New England college of twenty or thirty years ago was a poor dead-and-alive place, devoid of enthusiasm; a place where the best students were not allowed to get along any faster than the worst could be forced to do. We want to know for certain what colleges no longer deserve this reproach before we make choice of a college for our sons, and we want to know how the funds of our own Alma Mater are invested and expended before we subscribe to increase them. There are, to be sure, New England colleges which have a good deal to conceal. There is one in which recently the trustees swelled the total of the Freshman class by admitting a number of candidates whom the Faculty had rejected for deficiency of scholarship. But Yale is certainly not to be classed with these. The Yale catalogue is sent every year to its graduates, but it contains at present very little but names of men and of text-books, which nobody cares about. It might well contain information of various sorts which the parents of students and the constituency of the corporation have a right to demand. What are the regulations for the government of students? Is it the policy of the college to employ as tutors men who are going to teach and study all their lives, or does it advocate rotation in office and the continual infusion of fresh blood into the lower (*i. e.*, the more fundamental and important) arteries of instruction? Are tutors appointed to teach each his specialty, or do they accept office and then first learn to what department they are assigned? Are there advanced sections for the more competent students? Do members of different college classes recite together? May a student question his instructor during the hour on doubtful points which arise, or is he forbidden (as I was) to ask anything until the class is dismissed?

I have myself made personal enquiry and am able to answer one or two of these questions. Tutors are still appointed "maids of all work," and the junior tutor teaches what is left after his seniors have had their pick among Greek, Latin, and Mathematics. If this seems incredible, it must be remembered that, according to Hillebrand—whose book, however, I have not at hand—even professors of law in France do not know what part of the law they are to lecture upon, until a specialty has been assigned them by their superiors. Furthermore, there *are* advanced sections, and seniors and juniors are sometimes found on the same benches at recitation. As not one graduate in a hundred knows these things I venture to publish them here. But I wish I could find out whether a student may go out sailing now without asking the president, . . . and a great many other things. I infer from the silence of the catalogue that a Freshman who has been over the Freshman mathematics at school must still, as in 1852 or 1853, take them all over again with his class.

Men or boys who have been together a long time will be pretty certain to feel an affection, which scoffers will, perhaps, call sentimental, for what kept them together, it makes no difference whether this was a college or a man-of-war, an Arctic expedition, a boarding-house, or a secret society. There is plenty of such affection expressed at the alumni or class-meetings of every college in the Union, and everybody present enjoys it and sympathizes with it. But the familiar enthusiasm for "old" Brown, or Yale, or Williams, or Wesleyan is neither a measure of the real worth and significance of these institutions at present, nor a measure of the pecuniary aid which these same graduates, who cheer so loudly, will grant when called upon. Neither will a thoughtful man send his son to the college he becomes so enthusiastic about when he revisits it, unless there is no better college to be had. Now, the presumption is that the college which is most willing to tell all it does, to take its alumni and the public into its confidence, is the best college. Such a course provokes controversy, but on the one hand controversy is the best of advertisements, and on the other it is only by letting us know what the college is to-day that we can retain any other than a sentimental regard for it.

Last commencement a pamphlet with the following title was distributed in New Haven: "Yale College in 1881. Some Statements Respecting the late Progress and Present Condition of the various Departments of the University for the Information of its Graduates, Friends, and Benefactors. By the Executive Committee of the Society of the Alumni." I am sorry to say this pamphlet belies its title. In the first place, it is not written by the Executive Committee of the Alumni at all, but by members of the different faculties, who remain anonymous. Neither is there any editor named, nor is any editor, in fact, responsible to the Committee of the Alumni and the public for the whole. The definiteness, detail, and novelty of its statements, and the literary skill and logic which characterize it, are sufficiently illustrated by the following extracts, with which I conclude my long letter:

"It is believed, too, that the general love of good scholarship has been well maintained by the students, among whom, to their credit be it said, good scholarship and the achievement of success in any field of science or literature has [*sic*] always [!] commanded the highest respect."

"It would not be proper in this pamphlet to pass any compliments on our colleagues, but this may at least be said, that the students of this college have never enjoyed better opportunities of instruction than they do now.

"We may congratulate ourselves on the truth of the foregoing statements. A college is primarily a place of education; and if students of a right spirit assemble in satisfactory numbers, and there is a sufficient force of competent and laborious instructors to ensure their right intellectual activity in the acquisition of knowledge and discipline, the conditions of substantial success are met. Large pecuniary endowments are not indispensable to a high degree of prosperity. To prove this we need only look at the record which Yale College made during its first hundred and thirty years—a record of which every Yale graduate is proud. . . . On the other hand, the history of the next half century, which ends with the present year, illustrates strikingly the power of pecuniary endowments to stimulate and promote the stable growth and productiveness of such an institution. . . . The bequests do not all immediately mature; but the certainty of future endowments, no matter how far off the pos-

session may be, is a ground of confidence which is only inferior to actual possession."

"It would . . . be well for the citizens of Connecticut to see to it that there be no decline of the higher education within her borders. We trust that they are not alarmed at the indications of a tendency towards a too liberal policy on the part of the clerical members of the Corporation of the college. It cannot be denied that, as the generations have passed, these successors of the Congregational divines who founded the college have introduced great changes in liberal directions. They have themselves opened the door by which no less than eight men of other Christian denominations, or of no denomination whatever, may enter their small corporate body; they have ceased to require the officers of the college to subscribe to the Saybrook Platform; and at the present moment they have, by their own appointment, no less than fourteen professors holding offices of instruction and government in the college, who are not Congregationalists nor Presbyterians, but are connected with other Christian denominations; and what is a more serious matter still, they permit these non-Congregational professors to have more to do with the selection of new professors, as vacancies occur or new professorships are established, than they themselves have.

"We commend these facts to the consideration of those whose minds are in any degree exercised on this general subject.

"But it is to be hoped that the constitution of the Board of Corporators will suffer no further change; for so much of unity as the clerical portion of the Board still have in being connected with one denomination is believed to be the best means of securing the management of the college in the quiet spirit of a just Christian liberality. We do not share the fear that under their care the college will cease to be a Christian college. For so long as the great English universities, after which we were modelled, maintain their distinctively Christian character and call their undergraduates to daily worship, so long as our own houses of legislation and our courts of justice are opened with prayer, so long as our soldiers, in the field and in their barracks, although of mature years, must obey the roll-call of their chaplain, and our marines are piped down to prayers, so long, at least, we doubt not, our Corporators will find it proper that the undergraduates of such a college as this should be called together to worship God and to crave His gracious blessing on their daily life."

"The various courses undergo every year the modifications and improvements suggested by observation and experience which the means at the disposal of the Governing Board [of the Scientific School] allow them to make. . . . They feel a certain degree of pride in the knowledge that no other Scientific School in the country, however ample its means, ventures to claim that the instruction furnished by it is superior, even if equal, to that imparted here, or that the results it accomplishes are more valuable than those accomplished by this institution with its comparatively scanty revenues."

Yours truly, A GRADUATE.

YORK HARBOR, MAINE, July 18, 1881.

NAMES OF THE "BLUE-WATER" INDIANS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The proper name of a small tribe of Indians who have lived for time out of mind in this Territory, in Cataract Cañon, near the Grand Cañon of the Colorado, without attracting much attention, seems likely to come into question, now that a reservation of land for their exclusive use and benefit has been declared and defined by the United States. The name by which these Indians are known, as far as they are known at all, has no fixed orthography, and of its derivation and signification probably few persons are aware. It is commonly written "Yavai Supai" or "Yava-Supai," or the same without the hyphen and capitalization of the following letter; the plural in any case being formed by adding "s." As I hear it spoken, both by the Indians themselves and by an interpreter, the final syllable, "-pai" or "-pais," is often or usually dropped, the remainder of the term being sounded "Yavazu," or "Havazu," or "Avazu." On some maps the name is printed "Suppai," omitting the most characteristic part and needlessly duplicating a letter. The phonetic rendering of the word in conversation gives the clue to its meaning and derivation. Literally translated into English, "Yavazu" is "blue water," the stream flowing through Cataract Cañon showing that color perceptibly. Notwithstanding the great arbitrary transliteration the word really differs little in sound from the Spanish *Agua azul*, from which it is thus evidently derived, with modification of the initial impulse of the breath, softening of "g" into "v" or "w," and elision of the final "l." To the Spanish word thus corrupted has been suffixed a native term, "pai" or "pais," of very frequent occurrence in the languages of Arizona Indians, said to mean all or every—the sum or totality of anything; and thus, in its application to persons, a whole tribe, or "the people" collectively or generically. In this view, "Yavai-Supai" signifies "all those of the blue water," or, more simply, "Blue-Water Indians."

The emended orthography "Aguazulpai" or "Aguazul" may be suggested and recommended for usage, as being phonetically near enough to the fluctuating corruption to prevent misunderstanding, while it is more elegant, and has the decided additional advantage of preserving and displaying the true etymon.

Yours truly, ELLIOTT COUES.

"SUPPAI SETTLEMENT," ARIZONA, June 20, 1881.

CAMPBELLITES ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: When "intelligent people" (of whom certainly Mr. Tomlins is one, *vide* the *Nation* of July 21) come to understand the position of those Christians who refuse to be called "Campbellites," or by any other human name, they will find that this is not because they claim to be the *only* Christians, but because they refuse to be anything else than Christians. They freely and gladly allow that there are many Christians in the various other sects, Protestant and otherwise, but they hold, which goes without saying, that this could not be unless these sects, differing so widely among themselves, had added somewhat that is not essentially Christian. That is to say, they are Christians not because of their peculiarities but in spite of them.

And it is certainly the part of courtesy to allow a people to announce to the world that they are trying to follow only Christ, and that they are trying to be neither more nor less than Christians. Surely it is nothing against their sincerity that they can claim a separate organized existence of little more than fifty years. And since an appeal has been made to facts, let it be distinctly stated that this "organized" existence was not by their own will, but because other denominations refused to be *simply* Christian. The ground on which a man calls himself by that name is not that he can trace his spiritual genealogy back to Pentecost through an unbroken line of human spiritual progenitors, but that he is now a personal and practical believer in Christ. The same is true of a church.

M. J. FERGUSSON.

DANBURY, CT., July 25, 1881.

ENGLISH OPPRESSION IN JAPAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My attention has recently been called to the letters of two correspondents in a late number of the *Pall Mall Budget*, in which one honest fellow stands aghast at the frightful picture of English oppression in Japan as revealed by Mr. House in his article entitled "The Martyrdom of an Empire" in the May number of the *Atlantic Monthly*. A few such enquiries as his, if properly responded to, might arouse the English people to some course of just action, or at least to some sense of shame at the deplorable results of their Government's policy in Japan. Unhappily, however, the second correspondent replies by denying every one of the charges of Mr. House as not only false but utterly absurd, and refers to the Blue-Books. At the time, neither of these correspondents had seen an article in the *International Review* by a Japanese student, Mr. Mitsukuri, wherein attention is called to precisely the same points made by Mr. House.

The second correspondent signs himself "An Eight-Years Resident in Japan." Surely in that time he should have seen the broad and generous acts of the British minister in helping, with a patient and Christian spirit, the efforts of a brave and gentle people who, having been forced to come into the company of Christian nations, were doing all they could to fit themselves for this high honor! And furthermore, this "Eight-Years Resident" must have recorded the prompt severity with which the British minister rebuked the English press at Yokohama for their hostile and defamatory criticisms of the Japanese Government. It is true one might reside for eight years among the Ainos of Yeso without being able to note these things. One has a right to challenge this "Eight-Years Resident" as to whether he is a competent witness. He hails from Lincoln's Inn. It is a singular coincidence that another "Eight-Years Resident" hails from the same place; and this one, at a recent meeting of the Anthropological Society of London, in discussing Mr. E. B. Tylor's interesting communication on the early use of the plough, did not remember having seen the plough used in Japan, where ploughs of several different types are in common use from Idsu to Satsuma. He also attempted a review of an archæological work published by the University of Tokio, and a Japanese student in London called attention to his blunders in Japanese history, while a correspondent in the *Japan Mail*, an English paper published in Yokohama, rebuked him for his many mistakes, and ended by saying that he was "criticising a work on a subject of which he evidently knew little, if anything."

Any attempt to present a picture of English oppression in the East is sure to be thwarted by such apparently authoritative letters as that of the "Eight-Years Resident," who, if he remained thrice eight years, would probably show the same inscrutable blindness to the injustice and oppression which have always characterized English policy there, defended at the same time by a brace of English journals which have never lost an opportunity to malign the Japanese or defame their country. In the meantime, Japan suffers at the hands of a nation that should now be foremost in her efforts to repair the almost irreparable injuries inflicted by her on a patient and inoffensive people. E. S. M.

SALEM, MASS., July 21, 1881.

Notes.

J. E. Potter & Co., Philadelphia, have in press and will shortly issue a work on French Syntax, founded upon Eduard Mätzner's, by James A. Harrison, Professor of Modern Languages in Washington and Lee University.——A. S. Barnes & Co. announce that a second edition of Mr. Kwong Ki Chiu's remarkable 'English Phrase-Book' has already been called for.——There is no end to the variety of editions of the revised New Testament. Fords, Howard & Hulbert have brought out what they call the American version—*i.e.*, the readings preferred by the American Committee have been incorporated with the text, the English readings relegated to the margin. I. K. Funk & Co. are preparing a teachers' edition, of which the chief feature is the printing in full in the margin of the parallel passages only referred to in the Bagster and other Bibles.——Mr. John Austin Stevens's illustrated 'Yorktown Centennial Hand-book' gives the history, rather summarily, of the Pennsylvania Campaign of 1781, with biographical notices of the chief French officers; the proceedings of Congress consequent upon Cornwallis's surrender; particulars of the movement to celebrate the laying of the monumental corner-stone next October; and a short account of the Peninsula campaign during the civil war. This is succeeded by a topographical guide to the York Peninsula, to Norfolk, Richmond, etc. More abundant and better-printed maps might have been looked for; and it is a pity that Mr. Johnston's account of the Cornwallis siege, in the current *Scribner's*, could not have been obtained for this Hand-book.——The latest of the "Personal Narratives of Events in the War of the Rebellion" published by the Soldiers and Sailors' Historical Society of Rhode Island is also one of the very best, and pertains to one of the most important and memorable engagements—the battle of Chancellorsville. The author is Horatio Rogers, late Colonel 2d R. I. Volunteers.——Vol. ii., No. 6, of the *Journal of the Military Service Institution of the U. S.* consists of three essays on "Our Indian Question," the first being the prize essay by Brevet Major-General John Gibbon, for which a gold medal was awarded. The subject of the next competition is, "The important improvements in the Art of War during the past twenty years, and their probable effect on future military operations." Essays must be sent in triplicate to the Secretary, Governor's Island, N. Y. Harbor, on or before Nov. 1, 1881.——The annual report of the operations of the Engineers' Department of the District of Columbia for the year ending June 30, 1880, has just been issued from the Government Printing-Office. Lt. R. L. Hoxie treats of sewage and water-supply; Lt. F. V. Greene of streets. The latter officer accompanies his report with a fine topographical map of the District, and with twelve statistical colored maps, which may well serve as a model to our city ediles everywhere. The first shows the valuation of real property, with its centre at the junction of Pennsylvania and Louisiana avenues; No. 2, street grades by contour lines; No. 3, varieties of street pavement, the wretched wooden pavement still covering nearly 17 miles; No. 4, varieties of shade-trees, 21,150 being maples out of a total 53,050, extending 120.4 miles; No. 5, gas-lamps, 4,826, or 112.38 miles; No. 6, water-mains, 175.37 miles; No. 7, sewers; No. 8, public schools; No. 9, police and fire stations; No. 10, telegraph lines and companies; No. 12, street-sweeping—daily only on Pennsylvania avenue from the White House to the Capitol.——The author of "The Student's Dream," who may be addressed care of F. Leypoldt, 13 Park Row, offers a prize of $500 for an essay confuting the theory of that work, viz., that "all phenomena are explained by motion."——The Lisbon correspondent of the *Athenæum* announces that the African travels of the some-time companions of Serpa Pinto, Capello and Ivens, are about to be published in many languages, under the title, "De Benguella ás Terras de Jácca," etc. The causes of this estrangement from the hero of the "King's Rifle" will probably now come to light.——It used to be mentioned as somewhat remarkable that 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' had been translated into Armenian. In these latter days versions into "outlandish" languages are becoming common. The latest announced is Bluntschli's "Völkerrecht," which has been rendered from Lardy's French version into Chinese and published at Peking, and the same writer's "Lehre von dem modernen Staat," translated by a Japanese who had studied at Heidelberg, and printed at Tokio in Japanese character but European book-form.——Both the *Revue politique et littéraire* and the *Revue scientifique*, published weekly in Paris by Germer Baillière et Cie., were founded in 1863. On the first of January, 1881, twenty-six volumes of each review had appeared, or fifty-two of the two together; and to these fifty-two volumes a topical index has just been prepared and published at the low price of twelve cents. Some of the best work of M. Scherer, M. Sarcey, M. Charles Bigot, M. Renan, M. Pressensé, and other important French authors has first appeared in the *Revue politique et littéraire*. It has recently begun the publication of short stories, chief among which have been the "Vieux Portraits" of Turgeneff.——M. Scherer has recently contributed to several numbers of the *Temps* an elaborate study of Wordsworth.

—"The Indians, with that fine occasional instinct which is in such odd contrast to other of their characteristics, gave the place [Rhode Island] its pretty name. Aquidneck, the Isle of Peace, they called it." So writes "Susan Coolidge" in the opening paper (on Newport) of the August *Scribner*. By "fine occasional instinct" we suppose is meant a departure from the habitual formation of Algonkin place-names with reference to topography, history, a natural product, the animals of the neighborhood, or "position, or direction from places previously known." These are the only categories allowed by Dr. Trumbull, and there is not room under any one of them for an abstract conception like "Isle of Peace." Moreover, the same authority identifies *Quidnic* and *Aequidaneck* with a compound meaning "place at the end of the hill," or possibly "place beyond the hill." This difference among the interpreters detracts in nowise from the readable and other good qualities of the paper in question, in which the title is not maintained as a thesis, and which is charmingly illustrated. A writer new to us, Mary G. Loring, gossips with noticeable cleverness about the Normandy watering-place of Etretat. Professor Thurston furnishes a discriminating introduction to a letter of Robert Fulton's to Jefferson, relating, with the aid of diagrams, the former's experiments in submarine gunnery for a floating battery—a sort of forerunner of Ericsson's latest contrivance in the same direction. This document, never before published, is printed verbatim, and possesses a high degree of interest. "Uncle Remus" ends his rainy day to the regret of others besides "the little boy." While the fables of the evening perhaps fall below those of the earlier part of the day, the colloquial scaffolding of the story-teller extorts renewed admiration. In a first paper on "Poetry in America" Mr. Stedman clears the ground for an explanation of the sudden appearance of the group of poets, now veterans or departed, who ushered in "the first period of what may be called, for want of a better term, a true American school"—to wit: Longfellow, Poe, Whittier, Emerson, Lowell, Whitman, "and others." This involves, of course, a consideration of the obstacles to the cultivation of poetry during the first two centuries of the settlement of the now United States, as well as of the more recent limitations which have closed one period before the next has opened—at least with anything like the *éclat* and promise of the earlier.

—Mr. Albert Stickney, in his second paper on "The People's Problem," outlines his scheme of political reform, which may be briefly described as a reduction of electoral districts to the manageable size of a town-meeting, for the conduct of local affairs and for the election of delegates to sundry electoral conventions. "The delegates thus chosen to an electoral convention would in their turn meet as one body, at one time and place, and would elect the mayor, or member of the State legislature, or governor, or presidential elector, or representative to Congress." It might and probably would be found necessary to have intermediate conventions "to choose the members of the final electoral convention, which should elect the officer himself." The chief executive of the city, State, or nation, and the legislators, State and national, alone should be elective. The executive should be charged with the responsibility of appointing heads of department, each officer having the appointment and removal of his own immediate subordinates. A two-thirds vote of the legislature would, according to Mr. Stickney, check the abuse of this power at its source by summary removal. In his next and final paper he will indicate a way for putting his system into effect.

—An anonymous paper on "The Pension Office" in the August *Lippincott's* belongs to not the least useful class of magazine articles. The descriptive portion of it, giving the peculiarities of the office and of the law under which it operates, is of quite as much value as its recommendations, so far as the general reader may judge of these on the face of the article; and they excite regret that the writer, who is an ardent friend of the office, should not have lent them the weight of his name. In "The New York Fresh-Air Fund" Mr. P. G. Hubert, Jr., relates the origin and successful execution of the charity with which readers of the *Evening Post* have long been familiar. One anecdote of several which Mr. Hubert has collected is worth quoting. An urchin who did full justice to the breakfast provided for his party remarked that he enjoyed it hugely, but criticised the untimeliness of the meal. It appeared that one meal a day was the rule of his experience, and his surprise and satisfaction at dinner were redoubled at supper. "His last direction to his neighbor in the next crib, as he fell asleep that night, was, 'Wake me if they sets that table again in the night.'" Dr. Oswald writes about "Secretiveness" in his popular series, "Zoölogical Curiosities," and an analogous paper on "The Home of the Giant Squid" (the Newfoundland Banks) is readable. The same can scarcely be said of the rest of the number, which is mainly made up of that kind of light reading

which, unless one is in the mood for it, seems particularly heavy. "Housekeeping in North Carolina" ought, perhaps, to be excepted as a brief narrative of personal experience dealing with the habits and manners of the blacks of the region, though it is hardly more than a fragment of the story of shiftlessness and loose morality, several chapters of which we have had lately. The serial "Craque O' Doom" concludes in an anti-climax of disagreeable and sentimental absurdity, and is to be followed next month by the first instalment of a story by "Sherwood Bonner," which will perforce be a pleasant substitute, and probably of merit in itself, judging from some of the author's previous performances. The "short stories" and poetry of the number amount to very little.

—Mr. George W. Julian's Reminiscences (of the Thirty-first Congress), which begin the *International Review* for August, are interesting, as all retrospect of the sort must be, for their personal quality, and of more or less historical value; and though the time concerned has, of course, been pretty thoroughly gone over heretofore, we cannot have too much about it. Until our history comes to be written, at least, the more material of this kind that accumulates for the writing of it the better. Mr. Charles F. Thwing narrates and accounts for the steady decline of "College Graduates in the Ministry." This year the proportion is less than ever—nine per cent. at Yale, and less than two per cent. at Harvard, for example. The chief causes assigned are the growing demand of a wealthy country for educated men in all pursuits, and the prevalent scepticism, the ranks of the clergy being only recruited when creeds are generally stable. "An American Bonaparte" is one of Mr. Eugene L. Didier's articles on the Bonaparte-Patterson literature. Mr. Waldorf H. Phillips, in "The Divorce Question," recounts some of the enormities inevitable under the present system, or rather lack of system, and prescribes a Congressional enactment providing for the recognition by every other State of all regular divorce proceedings in any State, or else a constitutional amendment prohibiting the granting of a divorce "when both parties are not within the actual jurisdiction of the court, except by the court of the State where the marriage was contracted or consummated." "Why Ireland has been misgoverned" is explained by "A Celt," as perhaps the reader would have divined unassisted. "Some Curiosities in Horological Reckoning," by W. F. Maffin, has the interest, at least, of curiosity, and contains a practical suggestion for making the value of hours absolute instead of, as now, merely relative. The article of the number, however, is Mr. Wasson's discussion of "Rights," a philosophical and political study eminently deserving of being read by advocates of "natural" rights, as opposed to rights deducible from and dependent on duties. The fact that Mr. Wasson pushes his argument into the realm of logical speculation does not conflict with its value as an examination of the testimony of consciousness on the subject.

—Among the multitudes of subjects whose investigation has been undertaken by the Census is that of the ownership of the United States registered bonds. A bulletin giving a summary of its character and distribution, by Robert P. Porter, has just been issued by the Census Office. The status of ownership was taken at the date of the payment of interest nearest to the census day—*i.e.*, in the case of the 4 per cents, July, 1880; of the 4½ per cents, June, 1880; of the 5 per cents, August, 1880; of the 6 per cents, July, 1880. The total amount of registered bonds at these dates was $1,173,749,250. Of this amount, $528,100,950 were 4 per cents, $170,280,800 were 4½ per cents, $294,440,800 were 5 per cents, and $180,926,700 were 6 per cents. Omitting the 6 per cents, the interest on which was payable in the ten principal cities only, there is left a total of $992,822,550. Of this amount, $644,990,400 was held by individuals and corporations, $27,894,350 in foreign countries, and $319,937,800 by national banks to secure their circulation. The total number of holders of 4, 4½, and 5 per cent. registered bonds was 73,114, owning, as above, $644,990,400. Of these, 1,527 were corporations, holding $227,451,550, or 35.26 per cent. The male holders numbered 42,262, owning $327,185,500, an average of $7,741.84, while the female holders numbered 29,325, owning $90,353,350, with an average of $3,081.10. The following table shows the number of holders and amounts held by individuals, classified by the amounts of individual holdings:

Classes.	Male holders.	Amount held by males.	Female holders.	Amount held by females.
Amounts exceeding $50,000	850	$176,229,350	168	$23,344,900
$25,000 to $50,000	1,018	36,608,100	281	10,747,850
$10,000 to $25,000	2,326	36,861,750	953	15,395,600
$5,000 to $10,000	3,416	270,090,900	1,571	12,235,400
$2,500 to $5,000	5,490	21,466,300	2,861	11,032,950
$1,000 to $2,500	7,505	13,402,300	4,871	8,552,850
$500 to $1,000	8,368	7,449,750	6,372	5,591,100
$50 to $500	13,309	4,067,050	12,248	3,472,700

From the above table it appears that nearly one-half of the total amount of that held by individuals was owned by about 1,000 persons, and that 2,206 persons owned nearly 60 per cent., while 4,500 persons owned fully 70 per cent.

—Examining the geographical distribution of the bonds and their holders it is seen that New England contained no less than 36 per cent. of the holders, but only 11 per cent. of the amount of the bonds; the Middle States 42 and 43 per cent. respectively; the Southern States but 3½ per cent. of the holders and 2 per cent. of the bonds; while in the West resided 15 per cent. of the holders, owning 8 per cent. of the bonds. The corporations, numbering but 2 per cent. of the holders, owned not less than 35 per cent. of the amount. Of the States severally Massachusetts takes precedence in the number of holders, followed in order by New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Illinois, and ending with Oregon. Considering the number of holders with relation to the population, the series is quite different. It commences with the District of Columbia, which, out of 100,000 population, has 1,320 holders. Then follows Massachusetts, with 950, and the other New England States, interrupted only by New York, which enters above Maine. The Middle Atlantic, as a rule, follow next, while the Southern States are near the end of the list. In respect to amounts held, again, the order is quite different from either of the above. New York comes first, followed by Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Ohio, District of Columbia, etc., ending, as before, with Oregon. Out of the total number of individual holders 50 per cent., owning 77 per cent. of the bonds, reside in 117 of the principal cities of the country, the remainder being owned in the smaller towns and the rural districts.

—The above notes and tables show, 1st, that the great mass of the registered bonds are held in the northeastern part of the country, in New England and the so-called Middle States; and 2d, that they are by no means "popular loans" (meaning by that term that they are held in small amounts by large numbers of the people), since, on an average, there is but 1 holder in 700 of the population. But in another sense they are popular loans. Large quantities of these bonds are in the possession of banks, savings institutions, insurance companies, etc., which hold them as investments, and through them large numbers of people are directly interested in them—as is estimated, about one in five of our whole population.

—Near a fortnight ago it was reported that Professor Stone and his assistant, of the observatory at Cincinnati, saw the comet "separate before their eyes, forming a double comet." This remarkable phenomenon has not been confirmed with better instruments elsewhere. It is well known that Biela's comet did separate, but no observer actually saw the process, which, it is safe to say, must have been very gradual. As the present comet describes more and more of its arc of visibility, it becomes certain that it cannot be a return of the great comet of 1807. This object has yielded unparalleled opportunity for research on the physical constitution of comets: it has been abundantly photographed by Draper and Common, and a series of drawings has been made by Holden; a thorough optical examination of the comet's spectrum has been made by Young, Harkness, and Pickering; the spectrum has been photographed by Draper and Huggins; the light of different parts of the comet has been photometrically determined by Pickering, the results being expressed in stellar magnitudes on Pogson's logarithmic scale, showing the comet to be of the seventh magnitude very near the nucleus, and the tail at four degrees from the nucleus to be of the 11.6 magnitude; and, lastly, the polarization of the comet's light has been observed by Wright, establishing the fact that the light emitted by the tail is polarized rather strongly in a plane passing through the sun's place, the percentages indicating that reflected sunlight constitutes the greater part of the light of the tail. Early last week the discovery of a fairly bright telescopic comet, 1881 (*c*), was reported by Schaeberle, of Ann Arbor. Professor Swift has already seen it with the unassisted eye, and says it has a tail one degree long. It will increase in brilliancy very rapidly until after the perihelion passage (which occurs about August 18). We may, therefore, expect a very conspicuous object, as it will be nearest the earth a day or two after its perihelion passage, and will be visible in a moonless sky. It is early yet to say certainly whether the comet has ever been seen before. Some astronomers surmise its identity with the comet of 1337, observed in Europe and in China, and visible three or four months. But the elements of the best orbit yet computed—that by Mr. S. C. Chandler, Jr., of Cambridge—bear no special resemblance to those of any known comet.

TROLLOPE'S CICERO.

The Life of Cicero. By Anthony Trollope. New York: Harper & Bros. 2 vols. 1881.

Lord Macaulay, in his essay on "History," alludes to Scott as having skilfully "used those fragments of truth which historians have scornfully thrown behind them," and adds that "a truly great historian would reclaim those materials which the novelist has appropriated," and that the perfect historian for whom we wait will possess many of the qualities of the novelist. The essayist him-

self, in his 'History of England,' though certainly not a perfect historian, did nevertheless carry into execution in a most brilliant manner this part of the historian's work which he here describes; and it is certain that this essay, and his own practice built upon it, have formed an epoch in historical literature. Mr. Motley no doubt owed some of his success as an historian to his having tried his 'prentice hand at novel-writing; and one of the most interesting of recent works in this field is the 'History of Our Own Times,' written by the novelist Justin McCarthy.

It is, therefore, no intrusion when a novelist like Mr. Trollope appears in the ranks of the historians—especially a novelist so distinguished for simplicity and truthfulness of delineation. It is a satisfaction, too, to find him in the field of ancient history. The Greeks and Romans seem at an immeasurable distance from us, not so much because of their distance in time as because of the difference in religion, and still more, perhaps, the wide contrast in the details of life—the house, the food, the dress, etc. So there is a certain unreality about them which the most picturesque historians have not been able to dispel. Even Mr. Froude's 'Cæsar' is the life of a person belonging to a different world from us. But Mr. Trollope has succeeded in giving to his narrative a remarkable degree of actuality, and making the men and women of Cicero's time more real, we are inclined to think, than any historian of antiquity has done. This is an excellence for which we should be willing to barter a large share of special scholarship. Mr. Trollope is not a philologist by profession, and there are many details of classical antiquities which he cannot be expected to know, though he is a well-trained scholar of the English pattern, with a genuine English comprehension of practical life and practical politics. For example, it is a singular misconception to speak of "the Bona Dea, or goddess Cybele" (vol. i. p. 255); for although the "Great Mother" of Pessinus embodies the same religious conception as the Roman goddess, and there was considerable analogy in the mystic rites of the two, yet they had a totally distinct cult, one being entirely foreign, the other purely native. Again, it is a mistake to say (vol. ii. p. 29) that in regard to prætorian provinces "the people had the right of voting." Neither does the author appear fully to appreciate (vol. i. p. 188) the fundamental change made by Sulla in the character of the executive offices: he speaks as if the consuls ceased to take actual command of armies because of the distance of the wars, whereas it was the result of the formal withdrawal from them of the *imperium militiæ*, the extension of the bounds of the city so as to embrace the whole of Italy, and the confinement of the magistrates of the year within these limits.

But, after all, there is very little even in the line of antiquities to which exception need be taken, and as a vivid, picturesque life of a great man, this deserves to rank high. It is not, however, a mere biography, nor is it simply as an accurate picture of a man and his times that its author would have it judged. It is a book written with a purpose—called out, it would seem, by Mr. Froude's 'Cæsar,' and designed to controvert the view of Cicero taken not only by Mr. Froude, but by most writers of the present day, with Mommsen at their head. It appears at first sight as if this thesis could have been sufficiently well argued in a review article; and indeed, if it were not for the intrinsic excellence of the biography, Mr. Trollope might have stopped with his introduction, in which he presents his case forcibly and well. In fact, the principal fault of the book is that he recurs too often to his theme, and that too large a proportion of space is given to arguing in Cicero's vindication at one period of his life after another. It would be better, after a full and elaborate introduction, to let the story be its own argument, and the life of the great orator be its own vindication.

When he reaches Cicero's death (vol. ii. p. 245), he sums up his alleged faults as "dishonesty, cowardice, and insincerity," and defends him at some length against the several charges, as he has done upon so many occasions during the recital of his life. But the real and serious charge is that of a want of political consistency. Mr. Trollope finds it easy to show that, as compared with other men of his own time, and even when judged by the standard of our times, Cicero was not as a man, nor even as a public man, markedly dishonest, cowardly, or insincere—in fact, that he was conspicuously free from these faults. But the scorn which Mommsen and those of his school heap upon Cicero has less reference to his personal qualities than to the part he played in the great drama of his day—one of the great tragedies of human history. He was, they say, a dilettante politician, with neither head nor nerve to fit him for the place of a leader, but nevertheless with an inordinate vanity and ambition which would not let him rest in a second place; with no adequate appreciation of the real issues of the time, and no clear policy—a straw tossed upon the eddies of a great revolution. Mr. Trollope practically admits this, only insisting that Cicero has a right to be judged in the light of facts and motives present to his generation, not by the wisdom which comes after the event. He says (vol. i. p. 75):

"We are inclined to agree with Mommsen, because we have seen what followed. But that Cicero, living and seeing it all as a present spectator, should have hoped better things, should not, I think, cause us to doubt either Cicero's wisdom or his patriotism. I cannot but think that, had I been a Roman of those days, I should have preferred Cicero, with his memories of the past, to Cæsar, with his ambition for the future."

This is a perfectly defensible position, and we are inclined to think that it is an adequate explanation of what seems to be blindness and vacillation in Cicero: it is no discredit to a patriotic man to refuse to despair of the commonwealth, and to be unable to see the necessity of a change ushered in by treason and civil war. And, at any rate, the last six months of his life were a period of unqualified glory. At many points of Cicero's career, moreover, it is well to bear in mind that he alone of the leading men of his day stood in a peculiar relation to the parties in the state, belonging wholly to neither one nor the other. He was by birth an equestrian, and he never ceased to reckon himself as belonging to this order; but by his political career he raised himself to the ranks of the nobility—not as being a noble himself, for he was a *novus homo*, but as having all his interests and future career associated with the nobility. Among the nobles, therefore, but not one of them, and never heartily liked by them; a part of the machinery of the oligarchical government, but with personal and family associations which connected him with the opposing faction, he was almost by necessity a "trimmer" of the type that Macaulay describes in Lord Halifax, and, like all trimmers, failed to please either party.

We have mentioned it as one fault of the book that the biographer and historian slips too readily into the language of the advocate; another fault is indicated by what we have already said, that the nature of the struggle, as based upon the character and workings of the Roman constitution, is not very clearly depicted. It is, in short, a biography rather than a history, and, in so far as it is a history, it is political rather than constitutional. The preliminary sketch of "the condition of Rome" (chap. iii.) is defective from this point of view: men and parties are excellently depicted, institutions are not well described. The constitutional question between Cæsar and Pompey at the outbreak of the civil war (vol. ii. p. 116)—probably the most difficult as well as most important question of this nature in ancient history—is hardly touched upon. It is, to be sure, a life of Cicero, not of Cæsar, but then Cicero's course at this juncture must be judged largely in view of the constitutional principle which was at stake.

On the whole, we are heartily glad that this aspect of Cicero has at last found an advocate; if not absolutely correct, we are inclined to think that this view is nearer correct than the opposite. And whether we agree with it or not, we must say that there is no book within our knowledge which will give to persons who are not scholars by profession so graphic and living a picture of the Roman republic as this.

A CYCLE OF CELESTIAL OBJECTS.

A Cycle of Celestial Objects, observed, reduced, and discussed by Admiral William Henry Smyth, R.N., K.S.F., D.C.L. Revised, condensed, and greatly enlarged by George F. Chambers, F.R.A.S., etc. Second edition. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1881. 1 vol. 8vo, pp. xxiii.–696.

THE first edition of the 'Celestial Cycle' was published in 1844, and now sells for about $25. It has long been out of print, and this second issue may be said to come in answer to a demand. Before examining the distinctive features of the new work, it will be instructive, and perhaps not uninteresting, to give the pedigree, as it were, of the volumes upon which it is based, and to see the origin of the demand.

Admiral Smyth was born in 1788, and entered the Royal Navy in 1805. In the course of his professional duties he was called upon to make a survey of Sicily, and while engaged upon the work he visited Palermo and met the venerable Piazzi, then the dean of astronomers. This meeting had an important effect on Admiral Smyth's future inclinations. He became a devoted amateur of astronomy, and for years was perhaps the best-known private astronomer of England. He was a friend and admirer of the most famous of English astronomers, Airy, John Herschel, and South; and he finally settled himself at the house of his friend Dr. Lee, where he engaged in observations mostly of double stars and nebulæ. From Hartwell House (Dr. Lee's manor) he published privately 'Ædes Hartwelliana,' 'Speculum Hartwellianum,' as well as 'Sidereal Chromatics,' etc. Various other works and translations are also due to him, all on important subjects. Thus it appears that, judged either by his companions or by the titles of his books, he was an important personage in astronomical England. These works were always interesting, because they were practically transcripts of what his conversation might have been, and because his varied experience and a natural

bent towards odd and recondite bits of knowledge gave him a store of anecdote and allusion not common to the makers of star catalogues. These last are usually dry numbers arranged in parallel columns and void of poetry, except in the Admiral's most important work, the 'Cycle.'

His distinction was purely a personal and largely a social one. He was not unlike Thackeray's courier, who could be ungrammatical in all the languages of modern Europe, and who, nevertheless, was a very interesting fellow. The works on the Egyptian tablets at Hartwell House, on the incidents of the stay of Louis Philippe there during his exile, on the building of the observatory attached to the manor, are all of real interest, well recounted, and worth the reading, if not of high scientific impo.t. These works, moreover, are well illustrated by engravings made under the Admiral's own eye. One of these engravings represents Admiral Smyth himself making an observation with the transit instrument; and this plate contains a picture of a clock whose pendulum must either have been a very crooked bar or else have been suspended a foot or so *outside* the top of the clock-case. This will, perhaps, illustrate his minor inaccuracies, which influenced not his dramatic effects but his astronomical preciseness.

For some years previous to his stay at Hartwell House he observed double and colored stars with diligence, and as the results of these labors he published the 'Celestial Cycle.' This was in two volumes; the first was a popular treatise on astronomy, the second was the "Bedford Catalogue." The appearance of this work was hailed by friends and admirers, and the Royal Astronomical Society gave its gold medal to the author of the "Bedford Catalogue," thereby approving his results. To appreciate this distinction we must remember that this same gold medal was the reward of Encke for the researches on the comet which bears his name, of Struve for his discoveries of double stars, of Herschel for his observations of nebulæ, of Bessel for the parallax of 61 Cygni.

In the "Bedford Catalogue" each object has a paragraph to itself. Its place in the sky is given, and then, if it is a double star, follow the measures of the Herschels, of Struve, etc., and then the measures of Smyth himself. After this comes an amusing farrago of doggerel verse, Arabic lore as to the stars (the Admiral had picked up Arabic in the Mediterranean), notes on the colors of the stars, and speculations on various points. As an example of the lore we may quote from page 430 of the first edition, as follows, a part of the description of the constellation *Aquila*:

"The asterism into which the Sporades are here constellated has ever been regarded as a needless memorial of a 'sporco nume,' and one which might now well be dispensed with. Ptolemy evidently eschews it, for, after tabulating *Aquila*, he places half a dozen *amorphotæ*, from which, he says, if you like, you may form *Antinous*; wherefore Bailly's reprimanding him for the exaltation is not altogether in place, since it seems that the Bithynian was never regularly gazetted by the ancients."

Or this for poetry:

"From staid Polaris cast a glance to beauteous Lyra's lines,
'Twill guide, rectangular from these, to where Arcturus shines:
Or lead a line from two bright stars, in Ursa's tail the last,
The same, prolonged thrice ten degrees, will on that gem be cast."

The "gem" in question is the bright star Arcturus. Here is another sample:

"To strike th' insidious Serpent's heart a line from Altair wield,
From thence below Ras Alague across th' Arabian field;
And when as far again you've reached as those two stars may be,
The middle one of three fair gems, Serpentis Cor, you'll see."

The verse, the Arabic lore, and the speculations (if original with the Admiral), are no longer thought of. The colors assigned to his stars are known to be usually wrong. But the measures of his stars being expressed in figures, and according to the usual forms, had for long a vogue as results of genuine value. These measures of double stars were of two classes: the first class had usually been measured by other astronomers before Smyth, by Herschel, South, or Struve, and it is a noteworthy fact that in nearly every such case the Admiral's figures agree with those of his able predecessors, and are therefore right. Another class of stars, not properly double at all, consisted in bright stars with very distant minute companions. This class is the Admiral's own property, and the results are almost invariably wrong, and wrong by incredible amounts. On the faith of these measures stars have been supposed to have disappeared, a nebula to be in rapid motion, etc. But the lost stars have all been found, and the nebula is shown by observations, both before and after Smyth's, to have remained in the same place.

These facts have been lately pointed out with some acrimony in the Royal Astronomical Society; and the quarrel as to whether Admiral Smyth was right or wrong has not been settled by an appeal to the sky, but has in a mysterious way become intermixed with the other chronic feuds of the society, in which the names of Col. Strange, Mr. Proctor, and Mr. Lockyer continually resound. This quarrel was at first a purely domestic one, but in the course of it the opinions of a distinguished American observer were quoted, and this became the signal for letting loose vials of wrath upon his head also. But, in the expressive language of the new Northwest, "they waked up the wrong customer," for after a short delay the American observer presented to the Society a brief and temperate critique on the 'Cycle,' accompanied by a complete remeasurement of all the Admiral's objects. This showed that the results of the 'Cycle' were erroneous in the mean of one hundred and twenty-six cases by 25″ in distance and 7° in angle! There was really nothing more to be said, and the 'Cycle' as a source of original data was thus shown to be without value. As its amusing doggerel, its erudition, its speculations, and its original measures are of no use, there remains to it only the distinction of being an observing list of the brighter nebulæ and double stars, written by an agreeable man of pleasant social qualities and varied information.

We now come to the second edition, which is edited by Mr. G. F. Chambers, already well known by his admirable 'Descriptive Astronomy,' which has reached its third edition. The new work consists essentially of two parts, of which one is what remains of Admiral Smyth's original text, and the other is due to the hands of the editor. Mr. Chambers gives an introduction of nine pages before proceeding to the main purpose. He says that in dealing with the objects registered by Admiral Smyth he has done his best to revise all the items of information, to cancel erroneous passages and observations, and to omit unnecessary comments. He has also stricken out a few uninteresting objects, and he might well have omitted more. In his own additions he has given a considerable number of isolated objects, as clusters, nebulæ, doubles, variables, and colored stars, and has included a number of objects in the southern hemisphere. The additions made by Mr. Chambers do not seem to us specially well chosen. In particular many doubles of Struve's lists are added which are simply interesting as being *double*, and which, so far at least, have shown no evidence of a binary character. He might easily have made better selections from Flammarion's recent valuable work on Binary Stars (1878). The nebulæ added are also often quite uninteresting to the amateur, for whom the book is especially intended. As a whole, the selection of objects does not seem to us as judicious as that given by Webb in his little work, 'Celestial Objects for Common Telescopes,' and the latter book is only a third as costly or as bulky.

We must also object to Mr. Chambers's rather crude remarks on star magnitudes and on the revision of the southern constellations by Dr. Gould. It is not necessary to defend Struve against the remarks on magnitudes (p. xix.), nor Gould against the criticisms on "what he calls his catalogue" (p. xxii.). Time has decided in favor of the one, and will decide in favor of the other also. The form for recording observations on page xxiii. is entirely unpractical, and we seriously doubt if a single competent observer uses it to-day. Other technical points of this nature, as the order in which the separate measures of triple stars are given, need not be objected to here. It seemed necessary, however, to mention the points likely to be confusing to a young observer's ideas in a book specially intended for amateurs. The main object of the work is undoubtedly this, and on the whole this new edition of an old work seems to us not the best one to recommend to the possessor of a small telescope. We should rather advise such a one to provide himself with Chambers's 'Descriptive Astronomy,' Webb's 'Celestial Objects,' and Flammarion's 'Catalogue des Étoiles Doubles en motion relatif certain,' and only to add the new edition of the 'Cycle' in case the latest measures (1880) are wanted.

CHANDLER'S MEMOIR OF ANDREW.

Memoir of Governor Andrew, with Personal Reminiscences. By Peleg W. Chandler. To which are added two hitherto unpublished Literary Discourses and the Valedictory Address. Boston: Roberts Bros.

THE Massachusetts Historical Society is one of those institutions which still retain the good old academic practice of pronouncing obituary orations on deceased members. In the opinion of a late secretary of that society, Edmund Quincy, this custom adds new terrors to death, but it has its advantages. In case of the obscurest man, the habit preserves a name which would otherwise hardly be remembered; it records facts which would otherwise be forgotten. Just now nobody may be grateful for this; but a half-century hence, when this man's grandson has done something extraordinary, everybody will be wishing to trace back his hereditary qualities. Even Miss Anna Seward's memoir of Dr. Erasmus Darwin has become worth reading since Charles Darwin has revolutionized science. Then in the case of a really eminent man there is always a possibility that his full biography may be, for some reason, indefinitely postponed, and that each person who undertakes to fill the gap may prove to have stood too near to see the real proportions of the man. It is undeniable that very much this state of things has existed in the case of Governor John A. Andrew, of Massachusetts; and it is fortunate that the duty of preparing his memoir has been placed in hands so good as those of Mr. Chandler.

Hitherto the best-known sketches of the Massachusetts war-governor have been those of his secretary, Col. A. F. Browne, and of his pastor, Rev. Dr. J. F. Clarke. The latter, indeed, often refers to his eminent parishioner, and it is needless to say that his delineation is always warm-hearted, sympathetic, admiring, and sincere. But it is needful to say, for the sake of historic truth, that the John Andrew whom he portrays is not always the John Andrew of every-day life, whom thousands of his constituents saw often and knew well, in those days. It is impossible to accept that figure of unvarying blandness and sweetness as a substitute for the high-minded, ardent, generous, choleric little man who was the civilian Miles Standish of Massachusetts during the War of the Rebellion. Nor can we recognize as one who "never had an enemy" a man who loved General Butler very much as Miles Standish loved the Indian chief Pecksuot, except that in the more modern instance the knife in the nape of the neck was wanting. Writing with the best intentions, Dr. Clarke and others have smoothed away much of the vigorous individuality of their subject. Fortunately it is not yet too late to repair the error, and Mr. Chandler has done something towards it. Brief though these pages are, they recognize the boyish side of Andrew, as well as the manly and heroic side; they give us his impatient utterances, his exceedingly strong language, his often turgid rhetoric, and the "something like contempt and even abhorrence" (p. 29) to which he was so easily aroused.

It is peculiarly desirable that all these qualities, and those kindred to these, should be frankly handled; for never was there a man in public life more guilelessly transparent than Andrew himself. All his gifts lay in that direction; he could not have dropped a curtain over his policy, or have lowered his voice to a whisper, had the fate of the commonwealth depended upon it. At the State-House, where his predecessor, Governor Banks, had loved to sit with closed doors, and to consult mysteriously with the most commonplace intruder, Governor Andrew met all the world in presence of all the world; and the most timid applicant must have his affairs discussed before any chance comer. The governor had, moreover, a great taste for letter-writing, and he liked to read aloud his own letters; and some point involving really difficult political strategy—as in the long contest with Butler, who undertook practically to officer his own regiments—would be discussed in resonant tones for all to hear. Such a man needs on the part of a biographer a frankness like his own. Greater than his own it could not be.

Governor Andrew had no undue personal sensitiveness, and no tact but that of a kind heart; his likes and dislikes were very strong and were never concealed; he took no pains to adapt himself, exaggerated the merits of those whom he liked and the sins of those he disliked, and never learned to guard his expression or policy in dealing with either. The task which he had to perform in organizing and officering the State regiments was something enormous. He performed it, of course, with absolute uprightness; if he discriminated against anybody, it was against his personal friends and associates. It was a great deal to know that such entire integrity was at the head of affairs. But in many ways he was, and used to own that he was, very little fitted by nature for the work; he had no military instincts or aptitudes, and no eminent gift for the very difficult problem of discerning in advance the right men for army appointment. Always upright and fearless, he was often whimsical, impulsive, unreasoning. Probably there was not a State in the Union where fewer merely political appointments were made than in Massachusetts; but there never was any security that a man might not be appointed for the reason that the Governor distrusted the motives of those who opposed him, or because the man himself had been previously refused a place and had behaved remarkably well about it. The motives and methods were never petty or ignoble, but they sometimes seemed inadequate and not quite solid. Then he had imbibed his full share of the reverence felt at that day for any man who had spent a year or two at West Point or in any foreign army, and this sometimes misled him. He was, moreover, pretty sure to support his nominee through thick and thin, even if it kept a whole regiment in hot water. If the appointment was criticised, the governor only grew indignant: it was because other men were jealous of the candidate's superiority; he was worth all the other officers in his regiment—worth all the officers in all the regiments put together. But if this paragon fell from the governor's grace at last, he fell, like Lucifer, never to rise again.

Mr. Chandler sums it up well by saying that "Governor Andrew more often made mistakes in regard to men than measures" (p. 106), and he records with praiseworthy frankness (p. 125) that extreme emphasis of speech which was a familiar fact to those who knew Andrew well. He frankly recognizes also that element in greatness best stated in the French proverb "Il faut venir à propos," and admits that in ordinary and peaceful times his hero might not have been very prominent. The only point where he seems a little less than fair is in his references to Governor Andrew's celebrated argument against the prohibitory law. It is not quite just to attribute only to "malignant philanthropy" (p. 65) the disapprobation with which this particular speech was received by many. It must be remembered that the orator thought it necessary in that argument not merely to attack the prohibitory law, which was fair enough, but to attack almost as strenuously the whole practice of total abstinence—a practice found necessary by some, and approved by great numbers who are opposed to prohibition. No doubt many unreasonable things were said and written about this address at that time, but most of the sober opposition had less reference to what it said about prohibition than to what it said about total abstinence. It must be remembered, also, that the argument then offered by Andrew did not proceed from him as governor, but as the paid counsel for the anti-prohibitory petitioners; and the fact that he received a fee, and a large fee ($5,000), for his services naturally gave less popular weight to his utterance than if he had spoken officially.

Mr. Chandler has added to his original memoir a series of "personal reminiscences," which cover the same points with the memoir, and might better have been worked in with it, giving us one sketch instead of two. They are valuable, however, in any form; and the book is farther enlarged by three addresses delivered by Governor Andrew, two of which appear in print for the first time. We find in the whole work much that is excellent, and very little to which exception can be taken. Mr. Chandler's statement that Mr. Andrew never earned as a lawyer "more than enough for the decent and comfortable support of his family" (p. 141) must be read in the light of the previous statement that "he was earning at the time of his death at the rate of thirty thousand dollars a year" (p. 58). When it is said of the raising of colored troops in Massachusetts, "This was the first authorization of an act which caused the greatest excitement everywhere" (p. 33), the remark is perfectly correct if applied to Massachusetts only, but not if applied to the nation. Five colored regiments were already in existence—one raised in South Carolina, one in Kansas, and three in Louisiana—before authority was even granted to Governor Andrew to enlist any. The service rendered by him was not in originating these enlistments—for that had been already done—but in giving to them the weight of a powerful State at a time when the Confederate Government had refused to recognize colored men as soldiers, and had threatened to hang their officers if captured. More than this, the attention justly excited by the careful way in which the Fifty-fourth Massachusetts was organized and officered, its subsequent good behavior at Fort Wagner, and the picturesque and heroic death of its youthful colonel (Shaw), undoubtedly did more than any other single source of influence to secure the final adoption and popularity of the whole policy. Mr. Chandler has not in the least exaggerated the services of Governor Andrew in this direction; it is only that his statement might lead to misconstruction. As a whole, with some defects of arrangement, this is not only the best tribute yet paid to John Albion Andrew, but the best that is likely to be paid. For it is sadly true that the services of the "war-governors" were best known to their contemporaries, and will be eclipsed in the eyes of posterity—just as the vast services of the Sanitary Commission, for instance, are already eclipsed—by the dazzling records of the actual field.

Resources of Southwest Virginia. By C. E. Boyd, E.M. New York: John Wiley & Sons. 1881.

SOUTHWEST Virginia has long been known to be exceptionally rich in mineral wealth, but the information on the subject has heretofore been so vague and general that it has been of little benefit to the owners of these mineral treasures, or to capitalists seeking to make profitable investments. But now exact and detailed information upon every point which the immigrant or capitalist would desire to know is presented in the work before us. The writer, a mining engineer, has spent years in the survey and study of the geological features, mining and agricultural resources of this region, and has therefore had the best opportunities to make a complete and trustworthy guide for all who desire to become better acquainted with it. The tract embraced in this survey contains the counties of Montgomery, Pulaski, Wythe, Smythe, Washington, Giles, Tazewell, Bland, Russell, Scott, Lee, Wise, Buchanan, Floyd, Carroll, and Grayson, covering an area of not less than ten thousand square miles. Each county is taken in succession, its geological features described and illustrated by map and section, the mineral deposits traced, the character of the soil indicated, the agricultural products enumerated, and the water-power, the manufacturing facilities, the towns, villages, public improvements, mineral springs, and educational establishments described. In short, the information imparted is of such a character as to give to a stranger a very perfect picture of the country in all its aspects.

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A generous soil, extensive forests of the best timber, abundant water-power, a delightful climate, and numerous and valuable mineral springs are in themselves enough to make a rich country. But when we learn that in addition there are in Southwest Virginia ores of iron in inexhaustible quantity in every county; in several, rich deposits of copper, lead, and zinc ores, salt, gypsum, and coals, there is obviously hardly anywhere an equal area containing so many elements of wealth. From the geographical map which accompanies the volume, together with the sections for each county, a very clear idea of the geology of the whole region may be derived. Indeed, the geological features are so large and well defined that two or three sections from the Blue Ridge westward to the Kentucky line would have sufficed.

The eastern boundary of Southwest Virginia is the Blue Ridge; the western, the Kentucky line. Near the northern extremity of Floyd County the Blue Ridge bifurcates, its branches gradually separating and forming an elevated valley, or table-land, which is the highest inhabited and cultivated portion of Virginia. This table-land is occupied by the counties of Floyd, Carroll, and Grayson in Virginia, and Ashe, Alleghany, and other counties in North Carolina. The geological features of all these counties are similar, indeed almost identical. The Blue Ridge was the centre of volcanic energy which upheaved the whole Appalachian system of mountains, and, therefore, as might have been expected, the rock formations of this table-land are igneous or transition, and the soil such as would naturally be produced by their decomposition. Travelling westward from the Blue Ridge one passes in succession over the upturned Palæozoic formations—the Silurian, the Devonian (occasionally), and the Carboniferous. The counties which lie along the western base of the Blue Ridge—viz., Montgomery, Pulaski, Wythe, Smythe, and Washington—form an elongated valley. These counties are almost identical in geological character, the rocks exposed in each being mainly the older Silurian. The next westward tier of counties is composed of Giles, Bland, Tazewell, Russell, Scott, and Lee. These form a second valley parallel with the first. In the eastern portion of this valley the rocks exposed are principally the upper Silurian, and in the western portion the Carboniferous attains a full development. Still further west the counties of Wise and Buchanan are wholly Carboniferous, and, in fact, form a part of the great Appalachian coal-field.

In regard to the distribution of minerals, iron ores are found in abundance in all these counties; in the counties of Floyd, Carroll, and Grayson copper ores of superior quality; along the western slope of the Blue Ridge, in Pulaski and Wythe, lead and zinc ores, both of which are now worked with success; in Smythe and Washington, salt and gypsum in inexhaustible quantities. In Montgomery and Pulaski are coal deposits, not, however, of great extent, but in all the western counties coal is found of the finest quality and inexhaustible in quantity. Besides these minerals, which are the true sources of wealth, gold has been found in Montgomery, and there are indications of silver at numerous points in that and other counties.

Regions rich in mineral resources are generally found to possess no other source of wealth, the surface being usually too rugged or too sterile for profitable culture. Southwest Virginia is a marked exception to this rule. Overlying its mineral stores is a soil of great fertility, adapted to the growth of the cereals generally, and especially suited for pasture. Indeed, the principal available wealth of this favored territory at this time is its broad pastures and its thousands of cattle. The work of cataloguing its resources seems to have been executed by Mr. Boyd laboriously, faithfully, and, in the main, correctly. We notice, however, that in his sketch of the flora of Wythe County some familiar plants appear under strange titles. For example, *Leucothoë recurva* has been transformed into *Leucothæ Recurra*; the genus Asarum has become Azarum; Uvularia is changed to Unularia; and Clintonia to Clintoria. One would hardly recognize the sweet Lily of the Valley (*Convallaria Majalis*) under the name given in this book, viz.: *Convellata Majælis*. But we presume these are the faults of the proof-reader on one or two pages, and by no means a specimen of the general typographical character of the work. To all who desire full and accurate information in regard to Southwestern Virginia, whether with a view to making investments, or securing a home, or making a tour of its mineral springs and natural curiosities for health or pleasure, this book will be found as useful as is Murray or Baedeker to the European tourist.

A Romance of the Nineteenth Century. By W. H. Mallock. [Transatlantic Series.] New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1881.

MR. MALLOCK'S book is misnamed, in the first place: it really is a romance of the Middle Ages presented to nineteenth-century readers as a picture of their own times. Or, if its color is not that of the concentrated and morbid-visioned period of history, it should be put still further back, and, indeed, reminds the reader not a little of the epileptic enthusiasm of the early African Christians, whose feverish and spasmodic practices in plucking the flower virtue from the nettle temptation are related with a pardonable sneer in the foot-notes of Gibbon. If the scene of it were laid in those times it might be rightly set down as a very clever book, and, as nothing that is historic is of alien interest, Mr. Mallock would be entitled to recognition as well as sympathy. As it is, however, it is a thoroughly fraudulent literary performance, and the more so for being undeniably clever. We make haste to say that we avoid more than a bare epitome of the plot, to give which without offence in less space than he develops it in would be impossible to Mr. Mallock himself. It is a fragment, at best, and entirely of a piece with the rest of its author's work, which is the vague and intense dissatisfaction of a man who can find no rest for his soul outside the Roman Catholic Church, but who nevertheless is fain to remain without that communion for some reason or other. The heroine of 'A Romance of the Nineteenth Century' is a surpassingly beautiful girl, whose brain and heart show not only noble potentialities but actual qualities of the finest sort. She has nevertheless been corrupted to the lowest conceivable degree by a vulgar *roué* of the type which one finds only in English novels, who sends her presents of obscene photographs and amuses himself, while awaiting assignation with her, by carolling low ditties. The hero falls desperately in love with her, and endeavors to draw her to God through her love for him. The action is confined almost entirely to moral introspection, tinctured with animalism. The event is the death of both lovers—the girl of heart disease, and the other at the hands of the rake aforesaid.

Now, to represent such characters and action as these as belonging to the nineteenth century is, as we say, the vice of Mr. Mallock's book. It is wholly a secondary matter that the character of the heroine is an inconceivable character, and violently at variance with what the freest imagination can suppose possible in the utmost complexity of character. The girl of the first part of the book simply inhabits another moral sphere from the girl of the last half; but so far as this is concerned the story might be included with the considerable number of French romances which hinge upon moral solecisms, and might be considered a pendant to 'Mlle. Giraud, ma Femme,' let us say. What distinguishes it is the diseased spiritualism in which the author has drenched it in order to make it appear a typical story of human life—of the war of the members against the spirit. This unites it with the rest of his work, which is designed to exhibit the hollowness of any substitute for faith perceived through the affections. And, we may add, the discerning reader will find it the *reductio ad absurdum* of this theory. Whatever beneficence may exist in this view of the "life which is worth living" is eliminated on this showing; no further proof of which is needed than the fact that the book is ostensibly a moral tractate, and that it nevertheless leaves a very bad taste in one's mouth—a contradiction in terms which is final as regards moral efficacy.

The truth is that Mr. Mallock has in this work made perfectly clear what many people, doubtless, have all along suspected—the fact, namely, that he is not to be regarded as a really serious person. He is familiar with utilitarian terminology, and particularly sharp at discerning the weak points of a purely intellectual credo that claims universality, but he has never offered aught but what Carlyle termed the sprinkling of moonshine as a substitute. And his advocacy of his moonshine, instead of having any positiveness, has always taken the direction of endeavoring to prove that everything else is still less substantial. The reader of this latest book would be justified in inferring that morality and religion are inconsistent. He would, however, reflect that if this be so the sooner religion perishes the better. Mr. Mallock clearly desires to leave the contrary impression, but the sophistication upon which he relies to this end is of the mustiest imaginable odor. To attempt to clothe it in modern garb, and make it appear that the only relief from the weight of sin and the only source of spiritual consolation, nowadays, are to be sought in the attitude prescribed by St. Francis in his famous demand: "Give me not men, but corpses!" cannot be called serious by any one who has apprehended the meaning of the "process of the suns." Whether for better or worse the world moves, and perhaps there never was a better instance of the impossibility of fighting foes of the present (admitting, of course, which we should not, that Mr. Mallock's phantasms need to be exorcised) with the weapons of the past, than is implied in this attempt to adapt the Confessions of St. Augustine, so to speak, to modern needs, with the result of having produced a thoroughly disagreeable not to say nasty book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allderdice, Mrs. E. W. Over the Hill to the White House. Poetry. New York: Denison & Co. 50 cents.
Baby Rue: a Tale. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Dyer, Rev. T. F. T. Domestic Folk-lore. New York: Cassell & Co. 25 cents.
Jefferies, R. Wood Magic. New York: Cassell & Co. $1.50.
Northern New England and Canada Resorts. New York: Taintor Bros. & Co. 25 cents.
Stevens, J. A. Yorktown Centennial Hand-book. New York: Collin & Rogers. 25 cents.
Wilson, W. Poems. 3d ed. Poughkeepsie: Archibald Wilson. $1.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 4, 1881.

The Week.

THE President's condition has steadily improved during the past week, and a general confidence in his recovery has taken the place of the depression and anxiety caused by the alarming reports as to his symptoms, spread abroad at the time he began to suffer from chills. The exact position of the ball has been verified by the aid of an ingenious electro-telephonic machine, invented by Professor Bell. The ball is in the wall of the abdomen, a short distance from the surface, so that it will only require a simple operation to remove it hereafter. The President's pulse continues high, but there are no symptoms of pyæmia, nor of malaria, though the atmosphere of the White House is in so bad a condition that seven cases of the latter disease have already been reported. It is now thought that he can be removed in perhaps two or three weeks. The newspaper attacks on the physicians, for their reticence with regard to the condition of the President, have died out. The latter can hardly be expected to satisfy everybody, and if they succeed in curing their patient the question whether they ought to have talked a little less at one time to one set of interviewers, or a little more at another time to another set, will become comparatively unimportant.

The Stock Exchange markets, so far as they are controlled by speculation, were influenced during the week by reports concerning the condition of President Garfield, the crops, and the railroad war. The President's relapse was the foundation for alarming rumors, which temporarily broke down the prices of stocks. The tenor of the advices respecting the wheat harvest was rather more encouraging, and the most trustworthy estimates at the close were that the yield of wheat this year will be about 68,000,000 bushels less than last year, when it reached the unprecedented total of 480,000,000 bushels. There was no indication on the surface that the trunk-line railroad war is approaching its end, rates for freight and passenger fares at the close of the week having been lower than before; nevertheless, there were plenty of semi-confidential statements to this effect, and well-known brokers for prominent railroad managers were heavy buyers of railroad stocks. The net result of all the fluctuations in prices was a general advance ranging from ½ to 9 per cent. in the leading railroad stocks. United States bonds advanced, and the debt statement was such as to improve the public credit. Foreign exchange moved one point nearer towards gold imports, the beginning of which this month would cause no surprise. The condition of the banks changed but little. General trade continues active and profitable. Railroad tonnage is as large as, if not larger than, a year ago; and the effect of the reduction in freight-rates has been to divert traffic from the canals, and of the reduction in passenger fares to increase the travel. The price of silver bullion in London fell to 51½*d.* per ounce from 51¼*d.* The bullion value here of the 412½-grain silver dollar at the close was $0.8623.

On Monday the Collectorship of the Port of New York was formally transferred by General Merritt to his successor, Mr. Robertson. It has been frequently asserted that the latter was appointed for the purpose of making the Custom-house a political machine again, and also that he promised a very large number of appointments to a variety of persons while conducting the campaign against Mr. Conkling in the Legislature. We are glad to hear from the new Collector that, on the contrary, he will maintain in force the civil-service rules now prevailing, and also that he has neither himself promised anybody an appointment nor authorized anybody else to make such promises for him. Mr. Robertson's character permits no doubt as to the truthfulness of these declarations and of the sincerity of his purpose to adhere to them. Moreover, he cannot but be aware that nothing would shock the people more at this moment than an attempt to replace the old political machine by a new one, and that every appointment and removal in the Custom-house will now be watched with too keen an interest to permit any covert attempts in that direction to escape public attention. The best thing he can do for his own reputation, for the good name of those who appointed him, and for the general interest of the country, is to resolve firmly to follow in the footsteps of his predecessor in the best sense, and to resist any and every temptation diverting him from that purpose even in the smallest detail.

It was hardly to be expected that his election to the Senate would divert Mr. Warner Miller from his clearly-announced purpose of using his political position to further his private interests, but it would perhaps be better for him to go to work quietly in committee rather than make such speeches as he delivered last week before the Paper-makers' Association at Saratoga. He called attention to the fact that the paper business is in an unusually prosperous state, the output during the past year being fully twenty per cent. in excess of that of the year before, and the increased export amounting to 16,500 tons. He then insisted that the tariff was unfairly low, because while the average duty on all articles is forty-five per cent., paper is only protected to the extent of twenty per cent. on ordinary qualities, and thirty-five per cent. on fine. He said nothing about the demand of the laborers engaged in paper-making for a reduction of time, but strongly urged that the present gross injustice to the capital employed should be remedied by subsidies to steamship lines to South America, so that American paper-makers might be able to ship their goods direct to that part of the world instead of by way of London.

These views are not mere hasty suggestions, but the result of a study of the subject here and abroad. A few years ago, it seems, Mr. Miller travelled in Germany, where he discovered a mill which was turning out a peculiar kind of paper for Brazil. He found on his return that he could make the paper cheaper than the Germans could, but he could not put it down in Brazil as cheaply, because the only steamship lines to Brazil are from Europe. In this distressing state of affairs what can be done for American paper but subsidize the steamship men to take it to Brazil? But surely, if the fact be as Mr. Miller says, the tariff ought to be increased too. Otherwise, although subsidies may enable our paper-makers to export to South America, the English manufacturers may still in the end circumvent us by flooding North America. The only way that this can be effectually prevented is by making the tariff equal to the average tariff on all articles imported. The economic principle upon which the recommendations of Mr. Miller rest is, as we understand it, that when an industry has been protected into a flourishing condition, neither the consumer nor the laborer ought to profit by the result, but the community should be further taxed, not merely to kill off any vestige of foreign competition, but to enable the industry itself, when it produces more than the home market requires, to compete in foreign markets with foreign producers.

Death has removed the Democratic Secretary of the Senate, who leaves behind him an excellent name for probity and efficiency. Col. Burch was a man of training and experience, quite fit to be a Senator himself, and who came very near being appointed the successor of Andrew Johnson on the latter's death. Only the exigencies of machine politics could have endangered his place, in order that it might be filled by an adventurer like Gorham; and, in fact, the two-months' unavailing struggle to bring about this change marks what we trust was the lowest point in our political abasement. Col. Burch, happily, lived to see the complete downfall of the Boss who was at the bottom of this disgraceful manœuvre. Mr. Dawes, who engineered it, is now to be congratulated on the arrival of the opportunity for which he longed last April, of making a fair start in the Senate appointments on the principle of fitness, non-partisanship, and permanency.

We publish elsewhere a letter from a correspondent who thinks that we "hardly did justice" to Judge McCrary in our remarks last week about his recent decision in the Southern Express case. We do not see, however, that what our correspondent urges as to the abstract right of courts to determine what is a reason-

able charge for transportation, settles the question of the advisability of such a course. As a matter of fact, the courts never have made the attempt hitherto to "run" the railroads of the country, for this is what fixing rates must in the end come to, and we have never seen the innovation suggested before. The utmost that the Grangers ever attempted to do was to establish the right to have rates fixed by the Legislature. They never thought of having a judge draw up a railroad freight-tariff. What the effect might be on the rates we do not know, but we know very well what it would be on the judges. The proposition of our correspondent that "the belief that the people will always, if they can, do injustice to corporations is worse than the vulgar cry that corporations are always cheating the public," true though it may be, is also inconclusive as to the question of having transportation charges fixed by judges or masters in Chancery. The Granger cases settled nothing but an abstract right, and the transportation problem remains precisely where it was before the decision of them.

The Democratic candidate for the Ohio governorship has written a letter accepting the nomination offered him, in which he takes occasion to say a few plain words on several subjects which are now attracting attention in that State. A letter of acceptance is sometimes thought to be of as much importance as a platform, and therefore we are not surprised to find that Mr. Bookwalter takes some pains to define his exact position. First, with regard to legislation, he urges that it "should be directed solely and strictly to the interests of the Many," and not to the interests of "the Few." He thinks that it "tends more and more in these times toward subservience to the Few." If this is the case the tendency ought to be broken up, particularly in Ohio, where he says that "under the auspices of the party in power it has become more dangerously prevalent than ever before." What precise means the Many ought to take to put a stop to it Mr. Bookwalter does not state, but that, after all, is a question about which people may take different views, and it is unnecessary to say that a letter of acceptance which suggests remedies as to which different views may be taken is open to the objection that those who dislike the remedies suggested may be led into voting for some other person than the writer of the letter. Some of his critics have found fault with Mr. Bookwalter for being merely a rich manufacturer, and for not having devoted time and thought to the consideration of political questions. They are much mistaken, however, as they will perhaps be ready to admit when they find that "it is a belief" to which he has "ever adhered" and "often given expression," that "a function of the government should in no case be exercised in behalf of any section or class to the detriment of any other." If such a proposition is not the result of reflection on political subjects, we should like to know what it is. The Ohio Republicans may try to persuade the public that exercise of this sort is good for the functions of government, but their arguments will affect the Few, not the Many.

The fifth plank of the Ohio platform opposes legislation of a sumptuary character, but Mr. Bookwalter points out that this "does not imply hostility to rational and practical measures for the abatement of any of the evils with which society is afflicted." But at the same time he reflectively adds, that "it may be well to remember that in a free country the object of all law is the maintenance and not the abridgment of the rights of the citizens," a distinct warning to those who take the opposite view that they can under no circumstances have Mr. Bookwalter's support. He admits that "the preservation of social order, and the wholesome restraint and control of the elements of danger to the community which cannot be wholly removed, are objects eminently desirable in themselves, possible of attainment, and properly within the scope of constitutional legislation." From these premises he reaches the conclusion, as to this branch of his subject, that "it is much to be deplored that all well-disposed citizens, including those at opposite extremes on this question, cannot be brought upon a common ground for what is or ought to be a common object"; but this, we suppose, cannot be helped. His views with regard to the tariff are simple and direct. He does not beat about the bush, but boldly announces that, "viewed only in an economic light, civilization is but the development and organization of varied industrial pursuits, and it has come to be regarded as almost an axiom in political economy that the prosperity and maintenance of any especial industry is dependent upon the perfect co-ordination and harmonious adjustment of all"; from which the conclusion naturally follows that "legislation upon this subject should be of such a character as will ever keep in view this well-balanced relation of the many parts which go to make up the vast economic scheme of the nation." A child can comprehend this.

We asked the wine merchants some weeks ago for an explanation of the fact that, although the supply of French wines had fallen off nearly one-half since 1875, their price in this country "had remained perfectly steady," and we suggested that the question would form a good subject for a magazine article for "a wine merchant possessed of the literary faculty." The answer has been furnished in a somewhat nebulous form by a wine-organ called *Bonfort's Wine and Spirit Circular*. It says, after some preliminary vinous abuse, that the explanation is one which "a little experience" in what it euphemistically calls "mercantile affairs" would have taught us, namely, that manufacturers find it so difficult to induce buyers to pay more for a given article than they have been in the habit of paying, that they use a brand or "generic name" which covers a great many different varieties of the article—as, for instance, "St. Julien," "Cognac," "Very Old Sherry"; and that having thus prepared themselves for contingencies, when the supply falls short, and they find that they can no longer sell the "St. Julien" they have been in the habit of selling at one franc a bottle, and cannot get the buyer to pay one franc three centimes, they send him a wine which before the rise cost only ninety-seven centimes. "Sometimes," says the *Wine and Spirit Circular*, "this is done with the knowledge and consent of the buyer, in which case it is up to that point a perfectly legitimate transaction. If it is done without the buyer's knowledge it is, of course, cheating." This is a tolerably candid though not complete answer to our question. What it lacks can, however, be readily supplied by any reader who has what the *Circular* calls a "little experience in mercantile affairs." We fear this "experience" is much more widely diffused than our vinous and spirituous contemporary imagines.

Mr. George Bliss has taken the trouble to write a letter to the *Times* on the subject of the Police Commissioners' case, for the purpose of convincing that newspaper that "Mayor Grace's proceedings are not in good faith." During the period covered by the charges against Messrs. French, Mason, and Nichols, he says, there have been in all eight commissioners in office. All of these, except Messrs. French and Mason, are Democrats. Mr. Nichols, however, is the only Kelly Democrat among them. The evidence "shows without contradiction" that all of these eight commissioners have concurred in the acts or omissions complained of by the Mayor, except that Messrs. Voorhis, McLean, and Nichols, as successive chairmen of the committee on street-cleaning, have had especial charge of that subject. Now, how, enquires Mr. Bliss, have these eight commissioners been treated? The Mayor has appointed Mr. Voorhis Commissioner of Docks, Mr. Matthews Commissioner of Police, and General Smith Rapid Transit Commissioner. Mayor Grace's predecessor appointed Mr. McLean Park Commissioner, and Mr. Morrison secretary. "In other words, five Democrats have been rewarded. On the other hand, two Republicans and one Kelly Democrat are on trial for doing and leaving undone just what the men rewarded did and did not do." The picture presented by this letter would no doubt seem very shocking to the public, had not familiarity made them callous to it. Mr. Bliss cannot expect the Mayor to do much for Republicans; but if he succeeded in removing the present Commissioners, we see no reason why he should not give the Kelly Democrat a new office. Still, as Mr. Bliss knows, it is improbable that the Mayor should be successful in his attempt to remove the present Commissioners. The "hearing" has taken a good while, but when the great writs of *certiorari* and injunction are resorted to, and the defendants bring the judges of the Supreme Court into play, then the litigation will really begin,

and what the end of it will be no man can say.

The story of the Nihilist Leo Hartmann, published in the *Herald* of Saturday, is a ghastly account of his connection with the attempt to blow up the late Czar on the Moscow railroad. We say ghastly, for admitting all that the Nihilists urge both with regard to the necessity of overthrowing the existing *régime* in Russia, and the impossibility of effecting this object in any way but by assassination, his description of the plot, with its subterranean mines, its final *ante-mortem* conviviality, its conclave of conspirators nerving themselves for their work amid flames of green fire, suggests the doings of fanatics with a taste for melodrama rather than those of liberators of an oppressed people. But Hartmann, whatever else he is, is a man of intelligence and education. He says that he has come to this country for the purpose of enlisting the sympathy of Americans for his cause, and, according to one story, he is going to lecture on Nihilism. It cannot be denied that the public stands in need of authoritative information on the subject, but only a morbid curiosity could get the better of the indignation naturally excited by the presence and sight of such an expositor.

Hartmann rightly says that in the eyes of many of his readers in this country he shall "nevertheless remain a criminal." That he should be a criminal at large, when his acts and his doctrine rank him among the enemies of the human race, is owing to the novelty and the very enormity of his offence. Society has hardly begun to protect itself against the brigands who wreck trains for plunder, and has never contemplated such a state of things as would result from the popular approval of the methods of Hartmann and his fellow-conspirators. He is kind enough to say that if a republican form of government were obtained for Russia, there would be no need of blowing a trainful of innocent travellers to shreds in order to reach the one despot imagined to be on board. But the socialistic and communistic view of government finds despots everywhere —the mine-owner, the banker, the railway president, the manufacturer, anybody who is the ultimate term in their disagreement with the established order of things; and the terrorism of the Nihilists is as dastardly and, in spite of its mock-heroic fatalism, as vulgar as that of the Molly Maguires. The sympathies of burglars may be touched by the recital of the hardships in excavating the gallery and the danger of discovery by the police, but the closing of the electric circuit to explode the charge was, after all, as safe and as inglorious as Rousseau's suppositional "killing the mandarin" in China by pressing a button in Paris.

The Irish Land Bill was read on Friday in the House of Commons for the third time and passed by a vote of 220 to 14, the majority of the Conservatives and some Parnellites, including Mr. Parnell himself, refraining from voting; the bill then went to the House of Lords, where it was read for the second time on Monday. In another column our London correspondent explains very fully the feeling of parties with regard to it. It does not wholly satisfy either the Liberals—for among them are numbered many Whig land-owners who see in the measure a menace to the English land system—nor the extreme Irish party, a great part of which secretly or openly insists that nothing short of complete legislative independence will satisfy Ireland. The Conservatives would, of course, kill it if they could, but the alarming condition of Ireland would not permit them to do this, even if they could rely on much popular support in England. On the second reading of the bill Lord Salisbury made a speech, in which he indicated that the Conservatives would make a stand upon the necessity of amendments for the purpose of inserting a clear definition of fair rent, for the exemption from the operation of the bill of estates managed on the English system and tenancies of over £100 a year, and for the maintenance of the inviolability of leases. In the House of Commons on the same day Mr. Parnell took occasion to raise the question of the Irish political prisoners, and declared that the House was always upon the side of power. His language was so violent that he was "named" by the Speaker, and Mr. Gladstone then moved his suspension from the House for the remainder of the sitting, upon which Mr. Parnell rose, and, saying that he did not care to go through the farce of awaiting the result of the vote, left the House. The motion for his suspension was then carried by a vote of 132 to 14.

Ayub Khan's victory over the forces of Amir Abdurrahman on July 27 was achieved on the anniversary of his triumph at Kushk-i-Nakhud, or Maiwand, over the Anglo-Indian troops under General Burrows. The issue of the battle of July 27, 1880, was a terrible surprise to the British, and its consequences seemed at the moment incalculable. There was danger not only of losing Kandahar and other isolated positions, with their British garrisons, but perforce of speedy and ignominious retreat from all Afghanistan before a revengeful and fanatically elated people. This time it is only the protégé of the British whose army has been vanquished; it is Afghan tactics and Afghan treachery that have caused the rout, and the Anglo-Indian forces being already out of the country the Indian Government does not feel bound to retrieve the loss. The consequences may prove injurious enough to British rule and prestige in the border lands east and west of the Indus. Ayub Khan may drive the adherents of the Amir before him, or gain them over and be generally recognized as the Allah-ordained deliverer and ruler of Afghanistan; Ghazni and Kabul, like Kandahar, may open their gates to him, and Abdurrahman be forced to flee once more beyond the Hindu-Kush, and once more place himself under Russian protection. But all this implies neither imminent danger, nor grave responsibility, nor military disgrace, since England has had the courage, after avenging the defeat of Maiwand by the triumph at Kandahar, completely to withdraw from this field of endless strife, which she ought never to have entered. Ayub's campaign is almost a perfect repetition of his last year's movement from Herat to Kandahar. He takes the same route through Farah, crosses the Helmund near Girishk, as he did then, makes the same approach toward the left flank of the enemy through the valley of the Argandab, and fights the same defensive battle in a strong position, resulting in the rout of the assailants through their own fault. Burrows's brigade, last year, was half annihilated; the Amir's general lost only a few hundred men, but all his artillery, and part of his troops deserted to the victor. And Abdurrahman has no General Roberts to restore the fortunes of the war.

It is but natural that the Amir, if unable to defend the throne of Kabul, created for him last year by the British, should retire beyond the lofty mountain-range which separates Afghanistan proper from Afghan Turkistan, and try again to maintain himself in the latter country. It is equally natural, considering the geographical positions, that, in order to hold Badakhshan, Balkh, and the adjoining territories against Ayub Khan installed in Kabul, he should ultimately go to the length of accepting or submitting to a Russian protectorate, such as makes Bokhara and Khiva, though nominally independent khanates, virtual dependencies of the Czar, soon to be formally annexed, as the Khanate of Khokan was in 1876. It cannot be denied that the mountain barrier of the Hindu-Kush forms as natural and powerful a boundary between the sphere of Russia's rule and influence in Central Asia and England's in South Asia as the Altai range has proved to be between Russia in North Asia and the Empire of China. That the people of Afghan Turkistan are united by the bond of Islam with the Durranis, Ghilzais, and other tribes of Afghanistan proper, will prevent their absorption by Russia as little as the same moral bond helped the Bokharese, Khokandians, and Akhal Tekkes in their contests with the overwhelming forces of the White Czar. Skobeleff, a few months ago, crushed the Akhal Tekkes; the Tekkes of Merv are already seriously considering the necessity of submitting to the Muscovite yoke; the adjoining dependencies of Afghanistan, north of the Hindu-Kush, are naturally doomed to the same fate. The Moslem ruler south of the mountains, however—whether he be Ayub Khan or even a stronger man than he—will probably rely in vain on Russian aid in hostile endeavors against the English, and if he commits himself against them as did Dost Mohammed or Shir Ali, while England's power is unshaken in India itself, he will most likely share their fate. Allah is too high and the Czar is too far away —beyond the Hindu-Kush.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

THE President has improved steadily during the week, without a relapse or the rumor of one. Though not yet considered out of danger, considering the possibilities of the case, he has been declared by his physicians slowly convalescent, and only hopeful anticipations have been made. He now "sits up in bed," or makes an attempt at that attitude, every day, and partakes of what is called "solid food," but, of course, sparingly. Experiments with Professor Bell's "induction balance," tried on Sunday and repeated Monday, very satisfactorily "placed" the ball "on a straight line running through the body from the front to the back, just above the right groin"—how near the abdominal surface can only be inferred, but it is supposed to be about two inches. This result corroborates entirely the original diagnosis made by the President's surgeons. No intention is entertained of attempting to remove the bullet at present, and so long as it gives no trouble its disposition will be left unconsidered until the President's recovery.

General Merritt, who has been Collector of the Port of New York since 1878, formally quitted his office on Saturday, preliminary to its occupancy by Judge Robertson on Monday. Large numbers of his friends made the occasion an opportunity of paying the outgoing Collector their respects and regrets. Collector Robertson, who had already filed his bonds and taken the oath of office, announced that he would make no changes in the force employed at the Custom-house for some time, "nor unless he found that the needs or the interests of the service required a change to be made."

The Warren Court of Enquiry closed its sessions on Saturday, after listening to the surrejoinder by Major Gardner to General Warren's counsel's reply on Friday to his argument of the day before. The Court will not report its findings to the War Department for some time, and they will not then be made public until President Garfield has passed upon them; they may therefore not be expected for several months.

The three-months' trial of the Police Commissioners before the Mayor was closed on Wednesday last, after argument for the accused by their counsel, and some vigorous and contemptuous expressions by Mr. George Bliss. The Mayor reserved his decision and announced that he would communicate it at his leisure.

Hartmann, the Russian Nihilist refugee now in this country, has been interviewed, and declares that the purpose of his faction is simply to work for "a general congress of delegates elected by the universal suffrage of the people to frame a constitution which the people themselves may adopt." "The Nihilists," he continued, "do not even set forth a programme for the people; they simply ask that the people be granted the liberty to establish their own form of government." He added that his visit to America was merely for the purpose of acquainting the people here with the state of Russia and the wrongs of the Russian people, and explained, by the way, that the term "Nihilist" is not employed in Russia by any one, but was "originally used by a set of novelists who applied the term to a class of people with certain qualities of a philosophical mind." "Socialists" is the name by which in Russia the Nihilists are known and know themselves.

A fire, which at first startled considerably the dwellers in the wooden caravansaries at Coney Island, destroyed, on the 27th ult., the Pierrepont Hotel, the depot of the New York and Brighton Beach Railroad, and various outhouses and stables at that watering-place.

Another person, Frank Tobey, has been killed by trying to get on a car of one of the elevated roads after the platform gate had been closed. Witnesses differ as to whether the fault was the conductor's or the victim's.

The special court appointed to decide upon the Minnesota State railway bonds question began its sessions at St. Paul on the 25th ult. Objections to the jurisdiction of the tribunal were filed by the Attorney-General, the chief one being the alleged unconstitutionality of the legislative enactment creating the court. Writs of prohibition were then read, issued upon affidavit by the Supreme Court, and an order from the same court, signed by the Chief-Justice, requiring the five district judges who compose the special tribunal to show cause why the writs should not be issued. A return to the order was made denying the premises recited in the affidavit and replying to the objections of the Attorney-General, after which the court adjourned for a week to afford time for the further consideration of the questions involved.

Some fifty leading Ohio Democrats held a conference in Toledo on Thursday last to discuss "the situation" and to arrange the "plan of the campaign." Among the chiefs of the "Old Guard," who are believed to have been highly incensed at Mr. Bookwalter's nomination and who remained away "sulking in their tents," were Theodore Cook, John F. Fallett, General Banning, Judge Thoman, Senator Harper, and William W. Armstrong. The likelihood of a large prohibition and Methodist defection from the Republicans is said to have afforded the chief solace of the conference, which also decided not to make "a money campaign," in which case their opponents would "draw on the East and on the national banks for large contributions" (*Times* report), but to resort to a "still hunt," making "great but quiet" efforts in the mining and manufacturing districts, and endeavoring to increase by subtle arts the discord among the Republicans.

Senator Dawes, of Massachusetts, has written another letter upon the civil service, supplementing and partly explaining the other, which, he declares, was "not put forth as a panacea" but as a help, and was, furthermore, due to "a wish to ascertain how sincerely we in Massachusetts desired our Congressmen to give up the miserable business of office-brokerage." In pursuance of the subject he addresses himself to the "relief of the President," whose task of appointing a hundred thousand officials "is killing him." Under the Constitution, however, "legislation can do little to relieve him," and until a change is made in the organic law his "best powers" will continue to be "frittered away." How to relieve him, and at the same time allow him to "retain his personal control and responsibility for his whole administration in the broadest sense," is a difficult problem to solve. It is improbable that "any single remedy will cure the evil." But, while discussing, as strenuously as ever, possible legislation, "let us," concludes the Senator, "enquire whether something of the evil may not be remedied by a change in the mode of administering the system as it is." It should be mentioned that the letter is not addressed to the general public but to the Springfield *Republican*, which observes that though its correspondent "works out the principle of giving each official full responsibility for his subordinates," this principle has already been "prominently advocated by Arthur Helps," and is also not so simple as Mr. Dawes believes.

Among the criticisms of his first letter, to which the Senator refers as above, was one by Governor Long, of the same State, who suggested that Mr. Dawes "would have done better service if he had developed the simple, practical, and excellent plan" known as the Pendleton bill. This plan, the Governor thinks, "has the merit of working no violent changes" and causing "no shock," since it applies only to bureaus where fifty or more appointees are employed, and would therefore, he understands, affect in New England only the Boston Custom-house and Post-office. The reform was coming, he added, "not because the scholar in politics espouses it, not because your civil-service reformer is less hungry for office than anybody else," but because it is "fair" and "democratic," and "gives to the people an equal chance to go in on their merit, and not on their control of political influences," and because the business interests of the country demand it. Meantime, the Boston *Advertiser* has interviewed several of the Massachusetts Congressmen upon the subject, and finds an unanimity of opinion in favor of the general end to be obtained, but considerable variety of view as to the means to be adopted. Messrs. Bowman and Rice are opposed to competitive examinations, and Messrs. Harris, Morse, and Crapo are more or less sceptical concerning them.

The Committee of the Dartmouth College Trustees appointed by the New York alumni of the college to investigate the affairs of that institution—which means the charges, already noticed in these columns, against President Bartlett—have made a rather non-committal report. They say that "while finding some errors of management, such as, however, are natural in connection with decided abilities, and errors not confined to any one person," they have endeavored to "correct such errors in the best possible manner." What this manner is the committee does not consider it necessary to explain, but the report is supposed to mean a Scotch verdict against President Bartlett.

The Virgin Mary has appeared several times to a blind, bed-ridden, fasting, and sleeping girl in Philadelphia during the past week. Each visit after the first has been predicted by the sick girl, who has only waked occasionally during the last five weeks, and at the last materialization the vision was clearly apparent to all of a large number of intelligent Catholics except one lady who missed it by being "followed by the devil in the form of a black tomcat." The bell of the Rev. Mr. Jasper's church at Richmond, Virginia, has also been tolled by supernatural labor, and the fact was at first erroneously accepted as an intimation of the death of the pastor, who is, however, speedily convalescing from illness. The reverend gentleman still adheres to the good old belief that the sun turns round earth.

FOREIGN.

The English Land Bill was read a third time in the House of Commons on Friday night, and passed by a vote of 220 to 14, the Opposition largely refraining from voting, as is evident, of course, on this showing, and the minority being exclusively composed of Conservatives. Their names are, perhaps, worth chronicling; they were: Sir Walter Barttelot, Earl of Bective, Mr. Yorke, Mr. Dixon-Hartland, Sir Henry Holland, Right Hon. John Hubbard, Mr. Onslow, Viscount Folkestone, Mr. David Scott, Mr. Schreiber, Mr. James A. Campbell, Sir Henry Tyler, Mr. Wharton, and Mr. Whitney. The bill was immediately sent to the Lords and at once read for the first time. Lord Randolph Churchill improved his last opportunity to make what the cable calls "an extravagant speech," which aroused Mr. Gladstone's indignation and ridicule, and provoked a "powerful vindication" of the bill. "Unusual enthusiasm" was excited by the passage of the bill among Liberal members, and "a general feeling of relief among all parties" is reported.

At the second reading of the bill in the Lords on Monday it was moved in a set speech by Lord Carlingford (Mr. Chichester Fortescue), who was answered by Lord Salisbury, the Conservative leader, in a "severe criticism" of the measure. Several Tory conferences to determine the action of the party in the Upper House have been held, but it is generally believed that the bill will pass, amended enough to secure the dignity of the Lords but not enough to endanger its final enactment.

The French squadron has surprised Gabes and landed a force of men without opposition. Bou-Amena has retreated to the desert, and the occupation of Gabes is believed to have produced considerable moral effect upon the Arabs of the vicinage. The Bey of Tunis is apparently exercising, or desirous of being thought by the French to exercise, the utmost of his authority in the environs of Tunis and Goletta, but he has been deserted by most of the native troops, of whom only about four hundred remain, nominally as his personal guard, and these are of a rebellious and uncertain disposition. On Friday a panic was reported at Tunis, and many of the shops are said to have been closed in the face of Arab incursions; but the alarm quickly subsided, and the whole report is of the description known in business circles as "feverish." France has declared her willingness to recompense the Algerian Spaniards who suffered from Bou-Amena's raids, but reserves the right of ascertaining whether compensation has been paid on account of damage done to French subjects during the Carlist and Transigente insurrections and the Cuban rebellion. Troops continue to leave for Algeria. The Spanish Government has addressed an "energetic remonstrance" to France concerning the alleged plundering of the Spanish vice-consulate on the occasion of the capture of Sfax.

Correspondence between Lord Granville, the British Secretary for Foreign Affairs, and M. Barthélemy-Saint-Hilaire relative to possible French designs on Tripoli has been published. Lord Granville affirms that England will decidedly object to any repetition of the Tunis policy in Tripoli, and the French Secretary's reply is that France has no such intention, and that her intermeddling in Tripoli, which she considers an integral part of the Ottoman dominions, simply means a just resentment at, and endeavor to counteract, Turkish fanatical intrigue in Tripoli directed against the new régime at Tunis.

M. Gambetta read the decree closing the session of the French Chamber on Friday last, adding the hope that the future Chamber would be inspired by a determination to promote the well-being of the country. Elections for the new House have been ordered for the 21st inst., the secondary balloting to take place on the following Sunday.

The British press have, of course, been much agitated during the week over the "dynamite disclosures." "We hope," says the *Standard*, "that 'due diligence' will now bear the same interpretation as in the *Alabama* case. We demand no damages; we only ask friendly aid in checking an infamous conspiracy." The *Morning Post* wishes O'Donovan Rossa (whose real name is understood to be Jeremiah O'Donovan, by the way) may be treated by America as England treated Herr Most. Commercial men in Liverpool are said to believe that the explosives were sent over to England merely to create a sensation and thus "encourage the dupes of the skirmishing fund to continue their subscriptions." Furthermore, regrets are expressed that no chemical analysis was made and that the supposed dangerous material was so quickly thrown into the sea. The publication of the news of the discovery is pronounced premature, and investigations, which at first promised well, have been, it is feared, thus rendered useless. A series of meetings of Irish organizations in England to protest against the assumption that the attempted outrage had anything to do with "the Irish national movement," has been begun. It now appears that the machines were manufactured in Peoria, Illinois, by one Crowe, whence they were shipped to Philadelphia. Any correspondence between the Governments of Great Britain and the United States has not yet been disclosed.

Crowe has been interviewed at his home in Peoria, and delivered himself of the usual blood-thirsty sentiments, and divulged the usual truculent plans of the Fenian Brotherhood. He says that all English steamships, whatever their business, will soon be provided with Fenian infernal machines, and that though the loss of innocent life will unfortunately be very great, it will be necessary; and, anyhow, "war is cruel." He talks with great glibness, enthusiasm, and atrocity, but has not yet succeeded in making sufficient effect upon the criminal authorities to cause his arrest. As to his responsibility to either State or Federal laws there is considerable doubt expressed, but, of course, a universal feeling that if the present statutes are not sufficient to permit of his summary punishment, others should be speedily enacted. Crowe has cast O'Donovan Rossa quite into the shade.

Prince Napoleon has memorialized, so to say, the Bonapartist Electoral Committee in favor of a revision of the Constitution of France, to allow the election of President by direct popular vote. Both the Royalists and, on behalf of the Bonapartists, M. de Cassagnac have issued appeals for subscriptions. Gambetta's programme for the campaign is said to be uncertain, but will probably be found definite enough.

The banquet which it was designed to tender to Minister Noyes at Paris has, owing to the precarious condition of President Garfield, been indefinitely postponed, at Mr. Noyes's request.

The Primate of Spain, the Cardinal Archbishop of Toledo, recently issued a pastoral letter which has been read in every church of his diocese, indignantly attacking the Government and people of Italy, and calling upon all Catholics of high and low degree to unite and, by force if necessary, restore the independence and temporal power of the Pope. The Italian minister at Madrid forthwith protested, and the Government apologized as gracefully as possible, but the Primate is said not to have been reproved, and the Pope has received the condolence of Spain upon the disturbances at Pius IX.'s funeral, which were the cause of all the trouble.

The death of Madame Blanc, the proprietress, since her more famous husband's demise, of the gambling-rooms at Monaco, the mother-in-law of Prince Roland Bonaparte and Prince Radziwill, and the possessor of an immense fortune, is worth chronicling, at least for the effect it may have upon the prospects of Monaco and the gaming there.

General Di Cesnola has been very cordially received since his arrival abroad. Mr. White, the American Minister to Germany, entertained him at a banquet in Berlin, last Thursday, at which Professors Curtius, Lepsius, Knaus, and other celebrities were present. General Di Cesnola is reported to have secured for the New York Metropolitan Museum of Art an exchange of duplicates, especially of the Olympian treasures, with the Museum of Berlin, and Professor Curtius, it is said, will write the preface of his General Atlas, which is soon to be published.

The Cornell crew have, rather unexpectedly, written to the London *Sportsman* to express their thanks at the kind and courteous treatment received at the hands of the press and the English rowing clubs, especially the London and Thames Rowing Clubs. They also assure the *Sportsman* that any suggestion that Cornell was purposely fouled at Henley is nonsense.

The hitch in the negotiations between the British Royal Commission and the Boers is now believed to have been arranged satisfactorily to both sides. Several joint meetings have been held during the week with favorable results. The chief provisions of the convention agreed upon are reported to be the right of passage of British troops through the Transvaal, the control of all foreign relations by the suzerain, the abolition of slavery, and the maintenance of religious toleration. The Volksraad has three months in which to ratify these terms, at the end of which period, if it declines to approve them, the Queen's sovereignty will "revive." Sir Charles Dilke announced on Friday, in the House of Commons, that the Government had now no intention of taking any further steps to bring to punishment the murderers of Captain Elliott and Magistrate Malcolm in the Transvaal.

The forces of the Amir Abdurrahman of Afghanistan were defeated on the 27th ult. in a pitched battle with the rebels under Ayub Khan, the result being due, according to the report, to the excessively bad generalship of the Amir's forces, a very small part of which were brought into action, and this in the most disadvantageous way. Ayub has entered Kandahar. Lord Hartington has announced in the House of Commons that the Indian Government has made no proposal to employ an Anglo-Indian force in Afghanistan.

The French Catholic Bishop of Massua and four missionaries, who had been making a tour of Catholic missionary stations in Abyssinia, have been captured by the natives, who have also pillaged and burned a mission-house, and, after robbing the prisoners, sent them into the interior.

The provisional President of Peru, Garcia Calderon, has, it is announced this week, succeeded in assembling the Peruvian Congress. The Chilian conquerors lent their support, and by a large guard relieved the fears of a descent upon the session by Pierola, the irreconcilable, who is doing his utmost to prevent the consummation of peace negotiations. The Congress met, July 10, at Chorillos, nine miles from Lima, which city the Chilians still hold as a guarantee of order, and held its sittings on bare boards, which is taken as significant proof of the poverty of the provisional Government, and also as an indication that the labors of the session will not be unnecessarily prolonged. Fifty senators and eighty-five deputies, Calderon and his cabinet, the justices of the Supreme and Superior courts, and the representatives of foreign governments, including Mr. Christiancy, were present. The President's message insisted upon the absolute hopelessness of continuing the war, and declared that Bolivia would act in concert with his Government. Mr. Calderon was chosen President for another year and accepted the post, and the Congress is believed to be in hearty accord with him. The courts have already resumed their sittings, and a Peruvian Government, spite of Pierola's influence, which is rapidly declining, once more exists. In treating with the conquerors, however, it is said to entertain no illusions, and the necessity of ceding a large and rich tract of territory is admitted on all hands.

THE DAWES PLAN.

SOME time ago Senator Dawes, of Massachusetts, wrote a letter drawing a vivid picture of the miseries inflicted upon members of Congress by office-seekers, and setting forth the necessity of a thorough civil-service reform. It was an excellent letter as far as it went, and had the merit of bringing some glaring abuses in a striking manner to the attention of the people. He has now supplemented it with another contribution to the literature of the subject, in which he proposes what he considers a simple business rule upon which to organize the administrative machinery of the Government, and thus to relieve the President of the pressure of place-seekers. It is as follows: The President is to determine in his own mind what the policy of the administration with regard to the different subjects in its charge shall be. He then appoints his seven cabinet ministers or heads of the different departments. These several heads of the departments he holds personally responsible for the conduct thereof, leaving to them the appointment of their immediate subordinates. Each head of department appoints the chiefs of the several bureaus into which the department is divided, holding them responsible for the conduct thereof, and leaving to them the appointment of their immediate subordinates. Each head of a bureau appoints the chiefs of the several divisions into which the bureau is divided, holding them responsible therefor, and leaving to them the appointment of their clerks. Thus a chain of responsibility is established which is expected to keep the whole machinery in efficient working order and to relieve those highest in station of pressure—responsibility of the division chief for the conduct of his clerks to the bureau chief; responsibility of the bureau chief for the conduct of his bureau to the head of the department; responsibility of the head of the department for the conduct of his department to the President.

This looks very well—on paper. But how will it work in practice? Will it secure the appointment of fit men to office? Will it stop the pressure complained of? If there is anything we should avoid in the discussion of such subjects, it is to delude ourselves with fine words of vague meaning. Such a word is "responsibility." What does responsibility in this case signify? If it means that when an executive department is badly managed the President is to remove its head and replace him with a better man, and so all the way down, we have that responsibility now, and have always had it, except perhaps under Presidents to whom the public business was a secondary consideration. But if it means that when a clerk does a foolish, or mischievous, or dishonest thing which, as is sometimes the case, draws grave consequences after it, not only the clerk must be removed but also the division chief, because he appointed or kept that clerk on his responsibility; and the bureau chief, because he appointed or kept that division chief on his responsibility; and the head of the department, because he appointed or kept that bureau chief on his responsibility—if it means that, then it does not now and never will exist. The responsibility of the division chief will be enforced by his removal only if it appears that he could have prevented the mischief by greater watchfulness, or that he had knowingly appointed an untrustworthy person. And the officers above the division chief will, all theoretical responsibility notwithstanding, not be touched unless similar things are shown.

But Mr. Dawes may say that under this system of responsibility the division chief will be exceedingly careful not to have untrustworthy persons under him. What kind of care will he exercise? Look at his situation. At present when a member of Congress wants a clerkship for a man he desires to provide for, he goes to the Secretary. Under Mr. Dawes's system of responsibility he will go to the division chief, who is himself only a high-grade clerk. The same pressure formerly brought to bear upon the Secretary will now come down upon the division chief. And with what effect? It is matter of experience that the power of resistance to pressure decreases according to the relatively lower grade of the officer exposed to that pressure. A Senator of the United States appears an infinitely "bigger man" to a chief of division in a department than to a Secretary, and some of them urge their requests or demands upon the former in a much grander style than upon the latter. And when the division chief yields to them and appoints men who bring him into trouble, and he is then to be made "responsible" for the appointment of an incompetent or dishonest person, he simply produces as his justification a letter from one or a dozen Senators certifying that the untrustworthy clerk is a man of the most excellent ability and the highest character.

Mr. Dawes's system of making appointments under a gradation of personal responsibility would therefore not abolish pressure, but only transfer most of it to the point where it would meet with the least resistance. This is no mere speculation. We can remember an executive department the head of which was known to be somewhat "unaccommodating." Members of Congress would address themselves to bureau chiefs, expecting to obtain through their recommendation the appointment which they could not obtain from the Secretary himself; some of these chiefs now and then made such recommendations to the Secretary, informing him privately that they had done so because they were unable to resist the urgency of members of Congress, which sometimes went even to the length of threatening insolence, and against which they asked the Secretary's protection. Things can, therefore, not be mended by merely transferring pressure. We must extinguish it altogether by doing away with the system which admits the making of appointments on the ground of mere favor. As a friend of civil-service reform, Senator Dawes will do well to push Mr. Pendleton's bill, which, we are glad to know, he helped frame, and which embodies in a law the system already tested in the New York Custom-house and in some offices in Washington—a system which, so far as it is applicable, secures good public servants, relieves the appointing power of pressure, and does not impair proper responsibility.

THE STOCK MARKET AND ITS FLUCTUATIONS.

THE recent heavy decline in stocks and investment securities consequent upon the unfavorable turn in the President's condition on the 23d ultimo, and the uncertainty of his case for several days afterwards, cannot be explained upon ordinary business principles. No one supposes that the death of President Garfield would cause the loss of a blade of grass or an ear of corn, or would affect the nation's wealth in any manner whatever. It is true that a "railroad war" was started, or rather aggravated, about the time the President had his first chill. It continued without cessation and still continues, yet when the splinters of bone were successfully removed from the President's wound and he began to improve, stocks also began to improve, the bears became frightened and hastened to "cover," and an advance of from one to ten "points" was made within a few days. It would appear, therefore, that the stock market was powerfully moved both downward and upward within a week's time by an event which could not affect the real value of securities in any way whatever.

This experience, which is not at all infrequent, serves to show that the intrinsic value of the properties is not the sole factor, perhaps not the principal one, which fixes the prices of securities in the stock market. The main point to be considered is not what a particular thing is worth, but what the multitude think it is worth, or will be worth to-morrow or next week. It is plain that while nobody thought that "Milwaukee and St. Paul," for instance, would be harmed a penny by anything that might happen to President Garfield, yet a great many persons who held that property believed that other persons not so well balanced in mind as themselves would be alarmed and get into a panic and sell out; that this movement would cause a decline, and that it would be wise to anticipate it by selling out now. So the selling produced a decline, and the decline led to more selling, and a stampede took place, and a lot of speculators were ruined without knowing exactly how or why, and without there being any substantial reason for the catastrophe. Most of them attributed the misadventure to the outrageous conduct of the bears.

The public who dabble in stocks are nearly all on the "bull" side of the market, operating for an advance. They do not understand the art of "selling short" and borrowing stocks for present delivery, hoping to buy them at a lower price hereafter; and if they understood it not one in fifty would practise it. It requires no talent to be a "bull." Anybody who has money enough to "put up a margin" can buy shares and wait for a rise. Experience and nerve, and knowledge of human nature, and

acquaintance with a multitude of special facts are required for the equipment of a "bear." The general public do not dare to sell what they do not have. This is what the "bear" is constantly doing, and what he does with the greatest assiduity and persistence when he sees any tendency on the part of the outside "bulls"—the unassorted multitude whose orders come in by telegraph from all parts of the country—to sell their holdings or to get into a state of hesitation and confusion. Undoubtedly they tell a great many lies at such times, and resort to a great many stratagems which could not be justified in a court of law or in the forum of morals. When President Garfield had chills they spread reports that he could not live forty-eight hours—they went so far as to name the principal members of Mr. Arthur's Cabinet. Of course, no tale was too absurd or too inconsequential to be spread abroad to the injury of the small holders of stocks in Chicago, Mobile, and Indianapolis. But people who speculate in stocks seldom take a sober point of view. One bugbear is about as good as another for them, and this the "bears" know perfectly well.

The "bears" have a great advantage in being collected together in one place, while their antagonists are scattered over a continent and unable to take any joint action, even if they were capable in any case of forming a common opinion. The "bears" are nearly all to be found within a few blocks of each other. They can initiate a combined selling movement on the shortest possible notice. The chapter of accidents is always in their favor, and it makes little difference what kind of an accident happens provided it is large enough to fix public attention keenly. The favorite accidents are short crops—a belief in short crops without the reality will answer just as well—railroad wars, fires, floods, pestilence, and Democratic funding bills, to which has now been added any unfavorable symptom regarding the health of the President. When the President's condition was found to be hopeful the decline in stocks was arrested, and when the doctors pronounced him out of immediate danger an upward turn commenced. Then it was discovered that the "bears" had rather overdone the thing, and had sold more shares than they could deliver or could buy in at the low prices they had established. Borrowed stocks have to be returned at some time, and it is best to get hold of them before the frightened multitude recover their senses and reappear in the market as buyers. A "sharp rally in prices" after a tedious decline usually signifies that the "bears" are trying to "cover their shorts"; but no "bear" was ever known to acknowledge that he was "short" of anything on a rising market.

Probably no demonstration and no amount of bitter experience will suffice to warn the public away from the stock market, or teach them to buy no more than they can pay for in cash. All the lucky ventures are noised about in the neighborhood of the successful speculator, while the losses are concealed as much as possible. Consequently there is always a troop of victims coming forward for the bears, who lie in wait for them and watch the chapter of accidents which are sure to come sooner or later. This time it was President Garfield's chill; the next time it may be the appearance of the chinch-bug or the grasshopper, an early frost, too much rain or too little, an outbreak of yellow fever, some tightening of the money market, some sinister legislation at Washington, the death or failure of some "Wall-Street magnate," another chill of the President—anything which shall lead the scattered buyers of stocks "on margin" to suspect each other of a design to sell out. Stampedes like that of last week occur two or three times every year with as much regularity as any of the dispensations of nature which are usually attributed to chance. They are as sure to come as a particular trump is sure to be turned up in a given number of hands at whist. When they do come there is a distribution of property which defies all mathematical and moral laws, and the only thing certain is that Wall Street makes a living out of it without raising any crops of recognized value in the world's traffic.

THE DYNAMITE PROBLEM.

THE suggestions of the English newspapers with regard to the shipment of infernal machines from this country make it clear that, while there is a general desire among them that our Government should "do its duty," there is no general agreement even in England as to what that duty is. One newspaper suggests that the course pursued by England with regard to Herr Most be followed; but this is impossible, for several reasons. Herr Most, the editor of the *Freiheit*, a radical paper published in London, was indicted for articles published by him inciting to the murder of the Czar, under an English statute which provides that any one who "shall solicit, encourage, persuade, or endeavor to persuade, or shall propose to any person to murder any other person, . . . shall be guilty of a misdemeanor." Now, assuming that O'Donovan Rossa, or any other Irish agitator here, has been engaged in publishing articles inciting to murder, there is no statute of the United States under which similar proceedings can be taken. It does not seem to be understood in England that crimes against life and property in this country come under State and not Federal jurisdiction, except in an extremely limited number of cases. In the present instance the only crime against the United States which has been committed is a violation of the statutes regulating the transportation of explosives, and even these statutes, though they can fortunately be resorted to, were not passed for the purpose of covering the shipment of infernal machines destined for use against the property or lives of subjects of a friendly nation.

The British Government some time ago addressed remonstrances to our Government on the subject of the Fenian newspapers and the "Skirmishing Fund," to which, according to Sir William Harcourt, no reply has yet been returned. The delay in replying has probably been partly caused by the difficulty of knowing what reply to make. Publications in New York urging Irishmen to subscribe to a fund to be spent in the perpetration of outrages in England are not, as we have said, offences against any United States law, and while they may be punishable under State laws, it is to the last degree improbable that any prosecution of the Fenian newspapers by the State could be carried through effectively. The current of public feeling would be decidedly against it, and it would, as a practical matter, be almost impossible to impanel a jury that would agree upon a verdict. Nor do we think that such a prosecution, even if possible, would be advisable, either in the interests of England or of this country. People who are really bent on violence for some even mistaken political end will not be stopped by the incarceration of an overzealous editor or two. The sentence of Herr Most, for instance, while it may for the time being convince other Nihilistic agitators that it will not do to publish in England articles suggesting assassination, will hardly have any further effect. No one can really believe that such men as Hartmann, who is an outlaw with a price upon his head and no interest in life save the destruction of the Russian autocracy, will be deterred from another attempt upon the life of the Czar by the fact that Herr Most is no longer publishing articles inciting to murder. In the same way, if all the Fenian newspapers were gagged to-morrow, it would not prevent any desperate man or combination of men who desired to do so from conspiring the destruction of life and property in England on a vast scale. In the present condition of the law it is, in fact, rather an advantage to England that the publications should continue. Incendiary publications, by the very publicity they give to the facts and intentions of the conspirators, often furnish a warning which makes it possible to prevent the actual perpetration of the crime intended.

This brings us to the question, Can anything be done to prevent the use of our territory as a basis of operations of this sort against the lives and property of a friendly nation? And here it is important to observe at the outset that the export of infernal machines is not an ordinary established branch of commerce, in which any man may engage as he would in the export of wheat or iron, or even of arms and ammunition. No man can possibly undertake to have infernal machines manufactured and exported without there being a criminal design against life or property somewhere. In the ordinary case of hostile military expeditions against foreign governments no harm to innocent persons is contemplated. The horror which dynamite conspiracies inspire comes partly from the fact that the cold-blooded murder of the very class exempted from the perils of war—women and children, and persons in no way involved in the quarrel—is one of their ordinary and necessary incidents, while the conspirators themselves, instead of having to take their lives in their hands like fighting men, are able to carry on their murderous work in complete security.

Now, the theory of the English Government with regard to the "Skirmishing Fund" is, that it is money collected by an Irish organization in this country for the avowed and published object of being used, by means of this kind, to destroy life and property on a large scale in England. The machines are said to have been manufactured openly in Illinois. Taking these facts as susceptible of proof, it would seem difficult to distinguish the case in principle from the use of our territory for the purpose of fitting out expeditions or ships against the subjects and property of a friendly country. The laws of the United States, which provide a severe punishment against "every person" who in the United States "begins, or sets on foot, or provides or prepares the means for any military expedition or *enterprise* to be carried on from thence" against a friendly nation, are, as we insisted all through the *Alabama* case, not mere municipal enactments, but rest upon and declare a fundamental principle of international law, that every nation must prevent as far as possible the use of its territory as a basis of hostile operations against its neighbors. This duty is just as obligatory in time of peace as in time of war.

A foreign government may, then, well urge upon us that Congress should extend to the case of dynamite plots the principle which underlies our neutrality acts. At the time these statutes were passed the only important form of hostile proceedings against a foreign nation was of a military character. Modern science has furnished conspirators with means of attack equally hostile, but at the same time non-military. It is perfectly true, as one of the Irish agitators has recently said, that with this means neither troops, nor ships, nor guns are needed to strike blows at England of a very serious character. To deal with this new kind of secret and criminal warfare, why should not the laws of this country provide (exactly as they now do in the case of war vessels and military "enterprises"), on sufficient proof of such facts as are now alleged, that the persons implicated should be severely punished for the breach of international law involved? Why should they not, if there is any doubt of the facts, be made to give heavy bonds that a breach of international law shall not be committed? The nature and extent of the penalties to be imposed are a matter of detail; but it is much to be hoped that some common agreement can be speedily arrived at as to the principles which ought to govern the settlement of this difficult international problem.

POLICE TYPES.

Mr C. E. Howard Vincent, Director of Criminal Investigations in London, has recently published a police code or manual which has attracted some attention in England. It is made up in part of maxims for the guidance of policemen, and from Mr. Vincent's position it must be inferred that they represent ideas on the subject of the improvement of the police shown by his experience to be important. When he lays it down, for instance, that "there is nothing a police officer should more studiously avoid than argument: it rarely convinces any one, and much irritates persons smarting under some real or imaginary grievance," we cannot but conclude that the London policeman has a tendency to resort to argument, and to rely upon a display of reasoning as a means of preserving the peace or preventing offences against life and property which needs checking. On the other hand, when we find that the author of the code thinks it advisable to point out to members of the force that "a civil question will frequently elicit a courteous answer and valuable information," it seems as if such a hint must have been suggested by a practice among policemen of attempting to elicit information by means of rude and haughty enquiries—perhaps connected with their irritating disposition to indulge in argument. He strongly insists that "a constable must speak the truth at all times and under all circumstances"; and the suggestion that "a police officer who keeps his own counsel and does not gossip or divulge confidences will have plenty of informers," points to a belief in Mr. Vincent's mind that policemen in London have fallen into the common error of imagining that gossip on a large scale is the best source of information as to the doings and designs of one's neighbors. "Foreigners," he continues, "should be invariably treated by the police with the utmost consideration and respect," though we suppose this in practice he would confine to foreigners not engaged in criminal occupations; for why a foreigner caught in the act of picking a pocket or breaking into a house should be treated with any more consideration and respect than a native-born criminal engaged in a similar violation of the law, it is hard to see.

Some of the maxims are not altogether as simple as could be wished, considering that they are intended for the guidance of what the author assumes to be a not over-intelligent class, as, for instance, the following: "Letters from any doubtful source should be invariably replied to through the local police, begging that the writer may be acquainted if they think it desirable, as instances are not wanting of police knowledge and intentions being tested by confederates pretending to have been duped." This clearly conveys some important advice—but what is it? "Every minute spent in education is a sound investment, one certain to bear fruit, sooner or later, besides giving constant personal satisfaction," says Mr. Vincent; but no amount of education, however much fruit it might bear, or however much personal satisfaction it might give, would enable the most intelligent policeman to be perfectly certain what course ought to be pursued to comply with the maxim just quoted. "When once the mind of an officer is made up to arrest a delinquent he must not be asked any question without a strict caution that the answer may be used against him," seems to be a caution addressed to the delinquent rather than to the officer. But these obscurities are mere peculiarities of style. Almost all the maxims are not merely intelligible, but express truths which experience must have shown to be of the utmost consequence.

Although a good many of the maxims are directed to the moral improvement of the police, the defects which have suggested most of them appear to be of an intellectual kind, and in this Mr. Vincent's experience confirms in an interesting way the view of the police taken by the most noted Anglo-Saxon writers who have dealt with the subject from the time of Shakspere down to that of the "Pirates of Penzance." From the advice given by Mr. Vincent it would seem as if the modern London policeman must retain a good many of the intellectual traits which English constables had in the time of *Dogberry* and *Verges*, though, as he treats the subject professionally, he naturally deals with it in a somewhat more serious spirit than the author of "Much Ado about Nothing." Many of the maxims are, indeed, nearly the reverse of those laid down by *Dogberry*. Others, again, seem to have been almost taken from the Shaksperian manual. *Dogberry's* warning, for instance, that the watch "are to meddle with none but the prince's subjects," seems closely analogous to Mr. Vincent's direction that "foreigners should be invariably treated by the police with the utmost consideration and respect," while his warning against gossip closely resembles *Dogberry's* advice: "You shall also make no noise in the streets; for for the watch to babble and to talk is most tolerable and not to be endured." A more modern type of the policeman is to be found in the character of Daniel Grummer in 'Pickwick,' the constable who arrests Mr. Pickwick and his friend Mr. Tupman, on a charge that they are about to engage in a duel, and brings them before George Nupkins, Esq., the Mayor of Ipswich; and his intellectual and moral qualities, as represented by Dickens in the celebrated scene of the examination before the Mayor, so closely resemble those which suggested their police scenes and manuals respectively to Shakspere and Mr. Howard Vincent, that we cannot help feeling that the type is a permanent one.

In this country the policeman has not figured much in literature, but in the press, of course, he is a constantly-appearing type, and a type which in crossing the Atlantic has evidently undergone considerable modifications. While he has retained many of the intellectual traits of the old-fashioned constable, just as the coroner in New York seems to resemble closely his predecessor of three hundred years ago, he has added to them some moral peculiarities of a rather startling kind. In New York, for instance, the popular idea of the policeman is that, while his nominal duty is to preserve the peace and prevent crime, his propensities are at bottom criminal. His well-recognized practice of "clubbing" the inoffensive citizen, his invariable absence from the scene of the perpetration of any crime, his fondness for subsequently fastening upon perfectly innocent people as the perpetrators, his practice of giving information in advance to criminals whenever it is the intention of his superiors to break up lotteries or other illegal enterprises—all these traits, which go to make up the popular idea of the policemen in New York, show that the type has become considerably modified or developed in the atmosphere of free institutions. No one can deny that there is a considerable basis of fact for the popular impression prevailing on the subject. Such incidents in New York life as the career of Captain Williams, who, so far as the public could judge, worked his way up to a position at the head of an independent city department by acts of unprovoked violence; or the murder of Mrs. Hull, which was followed by such extraordinary activity on the part of those engaged in the detection of the criminal that the surviving inmates of her house were obliged to form themselves into an association for mutual protection against the police—could not but contribute to create the belief that the policeman, in the

guise of a preserver of the peace, is really an enemy of society, who lives by violence, perjury, and plunder. Nor is this view by any means confined to New York. We find the same type strongly delineated by the reporters of Chicago, St. Louis, and Cincinnati. Some years since an investigation was set on foot in Cincinnati into the discipline and organization of the police in that city, which led to the discovery, among other curious facts, that one of the best-known officers of the force was in the habit of keeping his valuables in the safe of a noted receiver of stolen goods. The type is not local—it is a national police type, and it will be seen that it presents a much more interesting field for study than the old type of constable ever did. It may be said, of course, that it is a burlesque type, that the bold, bad policeman of our newspapers bears the same relation to the real policeman that the gendarmes of opéra bouffe do to real gendarmes. But then the same things may be said of our old friends *Dogberry* and *Verges* or Daniel Grummer. Even a burlesque type cannot exist without some facts to base it on.

THE IRISH LAND BILL IN COMMITTEE.

LONDON, July 16, 1881.

IT is now more than two months since the House of Commons went into Committee on the Irish Land Bill, and nearly the whole of that time has been devoted to it and to it alone. One by one the other measures which the Government had brought in have been thrown overboard. The time allotted to private members for pressing forward their bills and for raising questions to be debated has been altogether absorbed; for the last three weeks no subject whatever but the Land Bill has, during the five working days of the week, been dealt with. Any one may see that some causes beyond the mere length and complexity of the measure must have led to this unusual expenditure of time. Such, in fact, has been the case. The bill has excited the dislike of three parties in the country and the House of Commons, and these three parties have freely used the opportunities which the very cumbrous and indulgent procedure of that assembly gives them to exercise a criticism which in at least one instance has become positive obstruction. The Tory party are, of course, heartily hostile to the bill, and if they had followed their instincts would have opposed it tooth and nail, not only because they sympathize with the Irish landlords whose rights are supposed to be diminished, but also, and still more, because they regard it as laying down dangerous principles which strike at the rights of property, at freedom of contract, at the position of the land-owning class altogether—principles whose application in Ireland will, as they think, furnish a precedent for their application in England. That they have not ventured to meet it with a direct negative has been due partly to their feeling themselves in a decided minority, partly to the attitude of the Tory members for Ulster, who dare not offend their tenant-farmer constituents, but mainly to the alarm inspired by the disordered state of Ireland, where the outrages of last winter would reappear in greater numbers and violence were this bill to be lost. Hence the Tory leaders have confined themselves to fair criticism, and, while declaring their rooted objections to the principles of the bill, have admitted that under the circumstances it, or something like it, must be suffered to pass. They have not, however, been able to keep in check the more restless members of their own party. Several of these have persisted in discussing some clauses at inordinate length. They have proposed a multitude of small amendments calculated to cut it down and maim it, and in the discussion of each of these have introduced the same arguments, the chief of which is an *argumentum ad hominem* against Mr. Gladstone for doing in 1881 what he had condemned in 1870. Although the House of Commons appears to an observer wonderfully tolerant of prolixity and repetition, the behavior of these Tory free lances has frequently provoked the majority into hostile demonstrations, and the consequence has been a lamentable amount of interruption, clamor, and exasperation on both sides. But the assailants have persisted, probably in the hope that they might so long delay the progress of the bill as to give the House of Lords a better pretext for rejecting it on the ground that in the middle of August they would not have time to discuss it properly.

The second set of opponents have been a section of the Liberal party itself, namely, some of the so-called Whigs who belong either by birth or by sympathy to the territorial gentry, and whose sentiments are substantially the same upon land questions as those of the Tories, although the ties of party make it impossible for them to oppose a Government bill outright. They are not yet very numerous, perhaps hardly more than from twenty to thirty, but the fact that they are reckoned as Liberals gives them an influence exceeding their numbers. They object to the concession to the tenants of a free right of sale of their holdings, and also to the provisions enabling the Land Court which the bill constitutes to fix a fair rent as between landlord and tenant; and upon several occasions they and the Tory party have combined against the Ministry to limit the operation of the bill. Their opposition, such as it has been, has been fairly given; that is to say, it is the result of their honest convictions, and it has never been of an obstructive character. But of course it has had the effect of encouraging the Conservative party, and has thus caused further delay in the progress of the measure.

Lastly come the Irish Home-Rule party, or, rather, that more extreme section of them which accepts the leadership of Mr. Parnell. When the bill first appeared they, with three or four exceptions, pronounced it inadequate, abstained from voting for it on the second reading, and declared that it would not be of much service unless it were considerably amended in a sense favorable to the tenant. Their own favorite scheme was to turn the Irish peasant tenants into proprietors by buying out the landlords. But as this would have required a vast expenditure of public money, and would have either involved injustice to the landlords if they had been compelled to accept eighteen or twenty years' purchase of their estates, or have proved too favorable to them if they had been allowed to sell at a price to be fixed by arbitration (since in arbitrations the private vender always comes off best and the public worst), it was summarily rejected by the Government, and has been seldom mentioned in recent discussions. Hence this Parnellite party, looking on the bill as a perpetuation of landlordism, although in a modified form, do not relish it; while some, at least, among them seem to think that, since nothing less than complete legislative independence will remedy the evils of Ireland, palliatives are positively injurious, and that it is well to keep up as much irritation as possible in the hope of accelerating the ultimate separation of Ireland from Great Britain. Hence it may be conjectured that the extreme men would, if they had simply obeyed their own impulses, have denounced the bill altogether and tried to defeat it. But as the general feeling in Ireland is that it will very much improve the tenant's position, they could not take that course; and through the earlier points of the discussion they refrained from all obstruction, complained of it when practised by those Tory raiders to whom I have already referred, and were content with suggesting a series of amendments which it was known that the Government would not accept.

However, when that part of the bill was reached which empowered the Land Commissioners to give assistance to emigration by loans of money, their tactics immediately changed. Emigration has for years past been the only remedy for Irish ills which land-owners would consent to propound, and as their object is to get rid of the smaller tenants and consolidate farms, it commends itself naturally to them. It is also the only one of all the suggested remedies which the extreme National Party has consistently rejected. In their view emigration is unnecessary, because there is already abundance of land in Ireland which might be reclaimed and made available for the surplus population of the overcrowded counties, and it is pernicious, because it would still further reduce the nation and lay it more completely at the mercy of England. The feeling of the priesthood runs strongly in the same direction; it rests both on their class interest, which desires not to lose those whose payments support the minister of worship, and on the religious fear for the soul of the emigrant, who is much more likely to lapse into Protestantism or indifference when severed from his friends, his relatives, and his early associations in some foreign country. Even those, therefore, who hold that the miserable peasantry of counties like Mayo and Kerry, supporting a half-starved life on patches of land less than two acres in size, would be infinitely better off beyond the Atlantic, must admit that there are some grounds for the unwillingness of the Nationalist leaders to see their countrymen carried away in larger masses from the old soil. Accordingly, Mr. Parnell and his friends opposed the emigration clause in a determined spirit, and when it became plain that they were in a small minority they began to obstruct it in the usual way—the way practised so long on the Coercion bill at the beginning of the session—by handing in amendment after amendment, by making long speeches full of repetitions, and by repeated motions to report progress, threatening the Government that unless the clause was withdrawn this course would be persisted in. However, the Government, even if it had been disposed to yield, could not venture to do so, because a section of the Tory party declared that if the clause was withdrawn they would obstruct the rest of the bill. So things went on for three days, the resistance being maintained by about twenty Irish members, while the governmental majority became more and more incensed at the loss of time over a matter of such comparatively small importance and at the unbecoming language used toward Mr. Gladstone. On the third evening preparations were made for an all-night's sitting to force the clause through, when in the small hours of the morning, owing partly to a speech of Mr. Gladstone—such a speech as he only can make, an outburst of scorching indignation

which shook the House of Commons like an earthquake—partly to the rumors that the Speaker was to be called in and several of the obstructing members suspended, the obstruction suddenly collapsed, and the clause was passed.

As the Government have announced that they do not propose to pay out more than £200,000 in these emigration loans, the whole matter is really of small consequence. I mention it chiefly to indicate how many difficulties this scheme of land reform has to encounter from different quarters, and how easy it is under our parliamentary forms for the smallest minority to check the action of a large and united majority. It is an unfortunate result of such struggles that they renew and intensify the bitterness of feeling between the English Liberal party, who came into power with plenty of good-will toward Ireland, and have been, since they came in, almost incessantly occupied with plans for promoting her welfare, and the Irish Nationalists. True indeed it is that the Irish members who assail Mr. Gladstone with so much bitterness are only a minority even among the Home-Rule party, and a small minority out of the whole representatives of Ireland. But as they assume the right to speak for the whole country, as they were supported by popular demonstrations there, and as no one doubts that their numbers would be largely reinforced if a general election were now to take place, they are commonly taken to be the exponents of Irish feeling; and moderate men, both Conservatives and Liberals, are inclined to despair of the good effects of this bill, or of any bill, in mollifying the Irish people, and bringing about healthier and kindlier relations between the two islands. What, they say, can be done with people who, just when you are sacrificing for their good all the time of your Parliament, which was badly wanted for measures of English and Scotch reform; just when you are abandoning, in deference to their wishes, your cherished principles of legislation and those doctrines of political economy which you believe to be the only sound basis of policy, tell you that they hate you as heartily as ever, and look upon these concessions as only a basis for further agitation, while they continue to do all in their power to stop your parliamentary machine and render its debates ridiculous? Is there any use trying to conciliate such people? Sentiments like these, although it would be easy to show that they are not fair to the Irish people as a whole, and that their indulgence would only aggravate our present misfortunes, are far from unnatural. It is only those who have both studied the history of Ireland and learned on the spot to understand her present condition that can be expected to make all the requisite allowances, and to perceive that, after all, things are better now than they were thirty or fifty years ago.

Such persons are, of course, very few—too few to stem the angry reaction against Ireland which may be looked for if parliamentary obstruction should be resumed next session, or if agrarian outrages should continue after the Land Bill has been passed. In the meantime, Mr. Gladstone's control over his party is sufficient to prevent the attitude of the extreme Parnellite section from prejudicing the prospects of the bill, not to add that the majority of the Irish members, including moderate Home-Rulers as well as Ulster Liberals and Ulster Tories, are substantially in accord with the English Liberals on the subject. There is now a very general expectation that the bill will not only pass, but pass with comparatively few and unimportant changes. The House of Lords, of course, dislike it, but they are not in a fighting humor. Everybody is tired of the business; everybody feels that the four months already spent on the bill ought not to be thrown away; everybody is anxious to purchase at least a respite from Irish topics. Of course the Lords will insert some amendments, if only for the sake of asserting their rights; but, unless these amendments seriously damage the bill, they will probably be accepted for the sake of peace.

It need hardly be said how deep and universal was the sympathy felt here when the news of the attempt on Mr. Garfield's life arrived, nor with how keen a pleasure the intelligence of his progress toward recovery has been received. It was with a sense of profound discouragement that we saw the crimes which had been supposed to be peculiar to despotic monarchies reproducing themselves in free countries. Even when such a deed proceeds from a disordered brain, its effect as an example is pernicious; the only thing which can check that effect is the failure of the attempted crime, or the fact that even when the victim falls, the result which the murderer desires is not attained. But one cannot help feeling how slight is the influence of such checks, and how great the advantage which modern science on the one hand, and the simplicity of manners in countries like America and England on the other hand, give to an assassin reckless of his own life. Y.

RUBINSTEIN'S "DEMON."

LONDON, July, 1881.

THE production of Rubinstein's opera, "Il Demonio," at the Royal Italian Opera, must perhaps be put down as the most significant event of this year's musical season in London. Announcements that one of Rubinstein's operas would be brought out in London had got into the papers in previous years, but they always proved to be mere embellishments of the preliminary programmes. The friends of the great pianist could hardly regret this, for they felt that the time had not yet come when his dramatic efforts would be appreciated by English audiences. Even in Germany his operas have so far met with indifferent success. The best of them, "Die Maccabäer," failed at Munich and at Vienna, to the great astonishment of the Berliners, who regard it as one of the best works now on the stage, and demand frequent repetitions of it. But his "Feramors" failed also at Berlin to give satisfaction, and the only city, besides St. Petersburg, which admires all his operas is Hamburg, where "The Demon" and "Nero" were first introduced to the Germans by the enterprising director Pollini. Why the first of these was preferred to the second for London I do not know. "The Maccabees" would have been better, at least from a dramatic point of view, than either of them, but was excluded by the old English prejudice against introducing Biblical stories on the stage.

It has always been the fate of composers who were at the same time good pianists to have their performances on the piano-forte appreciated much sooner than their original works. Experience has therefore taught them to raise a favorable wind for these by giving a series of concerts at the time of their first production in any city. The concerts given by Rubinstein before and between the first nights of his opera were attended by greater success and enthusiasm than at any previous appearance of his in London, so that it would hardly have required his personal leadership on the first night to ensure "The Demon" a success characterized on all sides as sensational. But arriving in London in time to hear the third performance, I found the house hardly more than half filled. This will doubtless seal the fate not only of "The Demon," but of Rubinstein's operas in general, for England for some years to come; and yet it can hardly be said that the verdict of the English people has been unfavorable. The Royal Italian Opera of London seems to be still what Italian opera used to be not so many years ago all over the world—a sort of fashionable entertainment, to which people of means go principally to see each other and to show that they own a stall. The absurdly high prices and ridiculous regulation of obligatory dress-suits ensure a brilliant spectacle in the house, but they keep the main body of musical people from attending a new work, or at least from attending it often enough to get so familiar with it as to love it. Until the Londoners come to their senses in this and some other respects, their verdict—aside from that of the critics—will have as little influence in determining the ultimate fate of an opera as would the verdict of a lot of Sandwich-Islanders.

In saying this I do not mean to imply that the fault in this case lies entirely with the audience. As usual, the libretto, although not as positively silly as most of them are, lacks that dramatic interest which is necessary to keep a serious opera afloat until people have heard its music often enough to like it for its own sake. A summary of the plot in a few lines will show the truth of this statement. The opera opens with a loud and stormy introduction, foreboding the thunder and lightning upon which the curtain rises. Invisible choruses of good and evil spirits, choruses of the winds, the waters, and the rocks, are heard behind the scenes, while the *Demon* slowly crosses the stage, cursing the world and all it contains. The *Angel of Light* appears and asks him to cease to curse, and return to heaven's true, boundless love; but in vain. When they have disappeared a lot of maidens, playmates of *Tamara*, the daughter of *Prince Gudal*, come on the stage singing a most exquisite chorus. Their mistress soon follows them, warbling like an Italian prima donna. The *Demon* reappears and, (struck by *Tamara's* beauty), invisible to the others, confesses to her his love and bids her become his queen, to her great terror and dismay, for she is engaged to *Prince Sinodal*, who is on the way to meet her, and whose arrival is expected every hour. The *Demon* resolves to remove this obstacle to his love. We discover his rival in the next scene encamped in a wild, rocky pass in the Caucasus Mountains, with his servants and followers. As it is too late and the horses are too tired to proceed to the end of the journey that evening, a quick messenger is despatched to announce their arrival on the following morning. During the night, however, they are attacked by a band of Tartars and all slain, with the exception of *Sinodal's* old servant, who escapes. The second act takes us among the festive preparations for the impending wedding in *Gudal's* castle. The messenger arrives to tell of the bridegroom's speedy arrival, but hardly have these joyous tidings been heard and celebrated by a dance when the old servant's arrival to report the prince's death changes the joyous scene into one of grief. *Tamara*, to whom the *Demon* has again appeared, offering his love and kingdom, begs to be permitted

to enter a cloister, to which her father, after some resistance, consents. War is then declared against the murderous band, the scene thus ending in grand style with a warriors' chorus. The interior of the cloister in which *Tamara* has sought refuge furnishes the scenery for the third and last act. The old servant, now janitor, strikes rhythmically on a gong, which causes a wag in the gallery to applaud him as a soloist. Enter the *Demon* and meets the *Angel*, who in vain attempts to make him quit the premises. Now follows a long scene and a series of lovely duets between *Tamara* and her tempter. Unable any longer to resist his advances, she finally yields to his kisses and embraces; but at this moment the ghost of *Sinodal* and the *Angel* appear on the scene. *Tamara* frees herself from the *Demon* and seeks refuge in the arms of the *Angel*, but suddenly falls dead to the ground. The *Demon's* efforts to gain possession of her body are frustrated by the *Angel*, the nunnery falls into ruins, and in a final scene we see *Tamara* carried on high by a chorus of Angels.

It is evident that such a slender and simple plot is better suited for a secular oratorio than an opera. No real dramatic interest attaches to any of the characters. The *Demon* is a peculiar compound of *Mephistopheles* and *Faust*, of man and devil, spirit of evil and sentimental tenor, and the *Angel* is a mere *deus ex machinâ;* while the prince and princess have often appeared on the stage before in very much the same rôles. The beautiful voices and admirable acting of Mme. Albani, Mme. Trebelli, and M. Lassalle could not supply the deficiency just pointed out; but they left the conviction that with a better plot the opera would have at once commanded that popularity which one day will be accorded to it on account of its beautiful music. As in all other operas of Rubinstein's, the choruses are the best portions, a real jewel among them being that of the maidens in the first scene, "When the sun sets o'er the mountains." Unfortunately, it was just the choruses to which least justice was done in the rendering. It is one of the most curious things about the musical life of the English that while they are so fond of oratorio, and provide such fine choruses for that form of art, their operatic choruses hardly ever can be made to sing in as perfect tune or time as they do on the Continent. The orchestra was better, though by no means up to the mark of a royal German orchestra as far as expression and spirited playing are concerned. The scenery left nothing to desire in appearance, but was managed in a most clumsy fashion whenever a change was to be effected.

It will be interesting to watch the further progress of Rubinstein's operas in England, as well as in Germany. It can be said of most of them that, although they do not contain dramatic life enough to keep a permanent place on the stage, they yet deserve to be heard in every city until some new composer appears and supplies something better; after which the musical portion of them will perhaps be more frequently heard in concert-halls than in theatres. Rubinstein is greatly diminishing his own chances of success by clinging to old operatic forms and ways, and refusing to submit to the *Zeitgeist*. For it is amusing and instructive to observe how even those critics who ostensibly condemn the modern reforms of the opera, nevertheless in their criticisms unconsciously adopt the modern standard, and praise or condemn a work in its details according as it comes up to that standard or not.

Correspondence.

"PATRICK HENRY AS A PROPHET."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Patrick Henry's utterance in the Virginia Convention of 1788, upon the constitutional power of Congress to abolish slavery, was brought to the notice of public men and others in the autumn of 1862. The late Mr. George Livermore, of Cambridge, then printed it in the first of five editions of his valuable work, entitled 'An Historical Research respecting the Opinions of the Founders of the Republic on Negroes as Slaves, as Citizens, and as Soldiers. Read before the Massachusetts Historical Society, August 14, 1862.'

It may not be amiss to add that Senator Sumner bore testimony to Lincoln's interest in Mr. Livermore's publication, especially while he was preparing the final proclamation of emancipation, and that the pen with which that instrument was signed was presented to Mr. Livermore by the President.

G. H. Whittemore.

Cambridge, Mass., July 26, 1881.

THE PEABODY LIBRARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The "falling-off in circulation at the Peabody Library in Baltimore," alluded to in your paper of the 14th instant, need not "exercise the minds of the librarians" of that fossil institution in the least. In the first place, the "Peabody" is not a circulating library, for no books are removed from the building. Secondly, the system of card-catalogues and other formalities deter many persons from the use of its books, except upon urgent need of special information unattainable elsewhere. Thirdly, the library closes at 9 P.M. in winter and 6 P.M. in summer, utterly precluding the mechanic or business man from practical benefit from its rich stores of learning.

For these reasons, and on account of its too-fashionable and almost inaccessible situation, the Peabody has long been relegated to students, school-teachers, and persons of infinite leisure. In conclusion, it may be said that the Peabody is closed most religiously upon the Sabbath and upon all holidays—in fact, whenever the working class might use it if it were open.

Believing that the munificent donor of this library intended the working classes particularly to be benefited by his gift, and unwilling that they should bear any part in the blame for "loss in circulation," the above note has been hastily penned for your kind consideration.

Respectfully yours, W. M. C.

Baltimore, July 30, 1881.

DIVORCE STATISTICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The article in the *International Review* for August on "The Divorce Question" contains some errors that deserve attention. Those to which I refer are on pp. 141–143. They are all the more noticeable because made in an attempt on the part of the writer to show that "the so-called statistics which have been given to us of late are often misleading, and the moral which some persons have attempted to draw from them is consequently unwarranted and false." Let me correct a few of the mistakes in this attempt.

The writer should have said that there was one divorced *person*, not one divorce, "to every 679 of the population" in Maine in 1878, and not "1880," as he has it. There was one divorce to every 1,357 inhabitants.

Then, his opinion that the *majority* of the 478 cases were, "in all probability," brought by temporary residents coming to Maine from other States for the purpose is incredible. New Hampshire that same year had one divorce to every 1,439 inhabitants. But if, as this writer declares on the next page, foreign parties are practically excluded from the courts of that State, we must doubt the fact he asserts of Maine.

In a note the writer speaks of the swollen social and matrimonial impurity of France as a cause of divorce in the Revolution, either as a quotation from Bishop or on his authority [Bishop, vol. i. sec. 44, is his reference]. An examination of the latest edition of Bishop, issued probably since Mr. W. H. Phillips wrote his article, shows that vol. i. sec. 44 does not contain the citation, and the gentleman who writes me of it thinks it is left out of the book. The statement in the third foot-note that "general jurisdiction to grant divorces in the discretion of the judges is conferred upon the courts of the State"—*i.e.*, Connecticut—is also wrong. The law granting this power—the notorious "omnibus clause"—was repealed in 1878 and has never been restored. Its repeal reduced the divorces of 1879 to 316 from 401 in the year 1878. By the way, a sentence in the new edition of Bishop, vol. i. p. 22, *implies*, at least, that this learned writer also is in error on the point of the repeal of that clause in the divorce law of Connecticut.

The writer quotes President Dwight, who estimated that there was in Connecticut in 1816 one divorce "out of every hundred pairs," and goes on to tell what ought to be inferred from "these statistics"—of Dr. Dwight, I suppose—and from the supposition that "divorce, owing to liberal laws, had increased at the rate represented by Mr. Dike." The fact on this inference, he thinks, should be that "in 1880, in Connecticut, one in less than every twenty-five married pairs should have been divorced!"

Now, President Dwight's statement cannot be explained except by assuming that he meant pairs *married within the period under consideration*—that is, the divorces of the one or five years are compared with the marriages contracted in the same time. That this is the intention of Dr. Dwight can hardly be doubted. Even then, with anything like a fair marriage-rate of 10 or 12 marriages in those days to the 1,000 inhabitants—it is less now—it is hard to reconcile the statements of Dr. Dwight. It is certain, however, that Mr. Phillips is quite at fault in his reasoning, either from faulty premises or other causes. The ratio of divorces to marriages for many years before 1879 was 1 to 10.4.

The assertion on page 143, in a note, that "divorce is no more frequent among the lower classes than it is among the higher," is not true of New England, unless in exceptional localities. It probably is increasing among the higher classes of society in some quarters, especially in Connecticut, but not enough to justify the broad assertion of the writer. Whatever, then, the merits of the article in the discussion of its main question, it is not a success in showing how "the so-called statistics" are "misleading."

As considerable has been said by others than Mr. Phillips—I believe the Albany *Law Journal* is among the number—about the responsibility of

New York and other States for divorces in New England, let me add a further word upon the point. The proof of this does not appear in the statistics. The two western counties of Connecticut—even Fairfield, lying near New York City—have only a slightly larger divorce-rate than the State as a whole, and are actually better than Windham and Tolland. Berkshire County is even better than the rest of Massachusetts; and when a restriction was placed upon foreign parties in Vermont, the western counties showed no more improvement than the eastern. The lines of travel have undoubtedly sent a few such parties into the heart of New England, but not many. Probably not over ten or fifteen per cent. of the 2,113 divorces in New England in 1878 were of persons who came here for the purpose. For every one coming East probably two or more go West; more, however, to avoid publicity than to secure the end more easily.

I will say, too, that the edition of my lecture, to which much reference has been made, that appears in the 'Boston Monday Lectures for 1880–1,' is the only one free from typographical errors, and with whose statements all reports of it should be compared.—Respectfully yours,

SAMUEL W. DIKE.

ROYALTON, Vt., July 29, 1881.

"THE ISLE OF PEACE."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your notice of the pleasant paper on Newport, in the August *Scribner*, you suggest that if the Indian name for the island of Rhode Island represents an abstract conception like "Isle of Peace," it is "a departure from the habitual formation of Algonkin place-names." The conception is, in fact, modern—and not due to the "fine occasional instinct" of the Indians. In "Whatcheer; or Roger Williams in Banishment," a poem by Chief-Justice Durfee, of Tiverton, R. I., published in 1832, "Aquidnay" is called "The Isle of Peace." In his notes the author says:

"*Aquidnay* is the Indian name for Rhode-Island. . . . *Aquene* signified in the Narraganset dialect 'peace.' *It is possible* [the italics are mine] that *Aquetnet*, as the name of this island has been sometimes written, may be its derivative: *et* is a termination usually denoting place. But whether this be or not its etymology, the designation is not inapplicable, since the Island must have been a place of security against the roving Maquas, Pequots, Tarrateens, &c."

What seemed "possible" to Judge Durfee became certain to the Rev. Charles T. Brooks, who, in his graceful poem "Aquidneck"—which every visitor to Newport should know by heart—notes that "Aquidneck, the old Indian name of this island, meant 'the Isle of Peace.'"

Now, *Aquedne* (or *Aquednay*) in the Narraganset and Massachusetts dialects, means 'island'; and *Aquednet*, with the locative affix, means 'on, or at, the island.' Eliot wrote (Acts xxvii. 16) "kishke *ahquednet* hettamun Clauda"—'near an island called Clauda': and elsewhere (Is. xl. 15) he has the same noun in the plural, as *ogquin-ash*, for 'isles.' In the Narraganset dialect, the locative *et* often becomes *ek*, *ik*, or *uk*—whence the forms, *Aquednick*, *Aquethnick*, etc.

Aquednēse is the diminutive of *Aquedne;* and Dutch Island—west of Conanicut—was called *Aquedneset* or *Aquidnesick*, i.e., 'at the *little* island.'

The resemblance of *Aquidnet* to *Acqueednuck* (now *Quidnic*), close as it is, is only superficial. The principal root of the latter name is *-adene* 'hill.' Between "*Aquene*"—which Roger Williams translated by "peace"—and *Aquedne* 'island,' there is no traceable connection. The former means 'to leave off,' 'to refrain'—only this, and nothing more; and denotes a cessation of hostilities.

I have said that *aquedne* means 'island'; but it was not the general Algonkin name for islands, though it is found in many widely-separated Algonkin dialects. In its connotation, there is a trace of the imaginative, that is not often to be detected in Indian place-names. It describes an island, not merely as "land surrounded by water," but as land 'resting on,' 'floating in,' or 'rising above' water. We find the word in the far-off Cree; and in the (Micmac) name for Prince Edward's Island—*Ep-ag-wit* 'it lies on the water,' or, as another translates it, "reposing on the water." I know of no islands on the coast of New England, except the two in Narragansett Bay, to which this name has been appropriated. May I hope that "Susan Coolidge" will accept as my apology for disturbing the "peace" of Aquednet, my admission that there *is* evidence of the "fine occasional instinct" of the Indians, in this word-picture of the beautiful island that rests like a bird upon the waters? It is curious to observe how nearly modern poets have, in their descriptions of the island, unconsciously approached the Algonkin conception. Compare Bryant's

—"a lovely isle . . . .
Smooth and with tender verdure covered o'er,
As if just risen from its calm inland bay":—

and Sands's picture, in "Yamoyden" (c. ii., st. 3) of "forest-fringed Aquetnet,"

—"green *reposing isle.*—
Soft cradled in the illumined bay":—

and C. T. Brooks's, in "Aquidneck,"

"The bold, bald rock that beetles o'er the surge,—
The bold, green bank that *hangs o'er ocean's verge*":—

and Durfee's, in "Whatcheer,"

—"where *in ocean's arms*
Smiles wild Aquidnay, robed in virgin charms."

J. H. TRUMBULL.

HARTFORD, Aug. 1st, 1881.

THE SOUTHERN EXPRESS CASE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It seems to me the *Nation* of the 28th instant hardly does justice to Judge McCrary's decision in the Southern Express case. That suit was one of several in the United States courts, in which Judges Wood and Baxter, circuit judges of the Fifth and Sixth circuits; Judges Key, of Tennessee, Gresham, of Indiana, and Treat, of Missouri, arrived at substantially the same conclusion as Judge McCrary, the circuit judge of the Seventh circuit, did in the Arkansas suit. Subject to review by the Supreme Court, these cases establish in the United States a rule of the highest importance—that railway management must adopt modern methods of traffic as well as new and improved devices for physical safety; that the function of the railway is not merely the carrying of passengers and their baggage in fast trains and of freight in slow trains; that the railway as a public servant must permit any suitable use of its carrying facilities which has been so generally adopted and so long continued by railway corporations as to be commonly relied upon as part of their ordinary duty, which cannot exist without the railway, and which is highly and universally advantageous to the community; and that the express business, a creation of very recent years, involves such a use, which railways must permit in the usual way, by admitting express messengers and furnishing package-room on passenger trains, at depots, etc. These decisions of Judge McCrary and his associates seem to me, therefore, of marked interest in social science. They indicate a method of dealing with railway abuses the chief machinery of which is at hand, and which, with a railway commission having prosecuting as well as investigating powers, would be far more efficient than wild and helpless cries against monopolies. Such agitation too often ignores the public advantages of uniform and combined railway service, and the absolute necessity of rewarding with large profits venturous but successful railway constructions.

The fixing of "maximum rates to be charged for the transportation of express matter" is merely part of the judicial machinery by which the railway is compelled to perform the particular duty adjudged against it in the recent express cases. If the court enjoin the railway to furnish express facilities, but permit it to charge any rates, the judgment of the court may be made nugatory by rates intentionally impracticable. The court fixed "maximum rates" only, because the express company and the public are sufficiently, but not unfairly, protected by a maximum, and because neither party to the suits sought any other limit of rates. Judge McCrary confined the investigation to express companies because their suit alone was before him. It would in a proper case doubtless extend to the charges against any one to whom the railway owed a duty for hire.

Nor is there any new danger in a judicial investigation and determination of maximum railway rates. To these powers of the courts common carriers have from time immemorial been subject. By publicly assuming to carry, they become bound to carry for fair rates. When the shipper tenders a reasonable compensation, whether it be less than the carrier's charges or not, the latter must carry or respond in damages. If the shipper and carrier differ as to what is a fair rate, the dispute must, like any dispute of fact, be determined in the judicial method appropriate to the form of the action, by a jury at common law, or in chancery by a judge or master, as in the Arkansas case you notice.

In respect of railways the right and duty of the courts are far stronger. A common carrier may be, and often is, a private person, only from time to time assuming a public character. But a railway is a corporation expressly created to discharge public duties, and only because its duties are public permitted to exercise the right of eminent domain. It is well settled, therefore, that the courts will, by the peremptory process of *mandamus*, compel a railway to carry freight upon tender of a fair rate, whose amount, if in dispute, the court will determine, as it determines any question of fact. That the courts usually adopt "accustomed rates" does not disprove this. The custom is simply a valuable piece of evidence. The famous "Granger cases" upheld legislative right to fix railway rates. The Supreme Court, however, asserted besides, and with emphasis, the right and duty of judicial tribunals, in the absence of legislative provision, to ascertain and adjudge the same rates (Chief-Justice Waite in *Chicago, &c., Railway v. Iowa*, 4 *Otto*, 61).

This is doubtless a serious power to lodge with the courts. But courts are created to exercise se-

rious powers. It is no more serious than other powers exercised by them without animadversion. It is quite true the courts may come to control "consolidation" and "pooling." They will do so when those matters involve any question of legal obligation. Indeed a court *can* without right take a railway out of its lawful owner's hands and put it into the grasp of an adventurer (as ten or twelve years ago a judge of New York did). We cannot, however, safely build a rule on such an atrocity. Courts, in the vast majority of cases, administer justice with honesty and painstaking, which err, if at all, on the conservative side. The possibility of abuse is never sufficient reason for depriving courts of powers as broad as the necessities of justice.

Very certainly, too, the ultimate power of ascertaining reasonable rates is safer with the courts than it would be in the private hands of railway officials, who would then wield without legal restraint, but with legal sanction, a part of the sovereign power. The judicial power will be rarely used, and the knowledge of its existence ought really to be grateful to the railway as well as to the people, as any barrier against wrong-doing is to a virtuous man. Under that power the relations of the corporation to its creator, the public, will be easily maintained free from disturbing gusts of popular passion.

The belief that the people will always, if they can, do injustice to corporations is worse than the vulgar cry that corporations are always cheating the public. It is better for both sides that railways should in all respects be recognized to be, as they ultimately are in fact, dependent upon the justice and good-will of the communities which support them, and which will require from them just and fair dealing in return.

EDWARD M. SHEPARD.

NEW YORK, July 30, 1881.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS' fall announcements include Edmondo de Amicis's 'Spain and the Spaniards'; 'Norsk, Lapp, and Finn,' by Frank Vincent, jr.; 'A Scandinavian Summer,' by Kate C. Tyler; 'Cuban Sketches,' by James W. Steele; 'The Autobiography of Mark Rutherford,' edited by Reuben Shapcott; 'Buddha and Buddhism,' by Arthur Lillie; 'Lectures on the Origin and Growth of Religion,' by T. W. Rhys Davids; and several additions to the New Plutarch and English Philosophers series.——J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in press 'Spanish Fairy Tales,' by Fernan Caballero, translated by J. H. Ingram; 'Words, Facts, and Phrases: a Dictionary of Curious, Quaint, and Out-of-the-Way Matters,' by Eliezer Edwards; 'The Mystery of Hamlet,' by Edward P. Vining; and 'Hume,' by William Knight, in the Philosophical Classics series, of which he is editor.——S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, have nearly ready 'The Foreigner in China,' by L. N. Wheeler, D.D.; and 'Isms, Old and New,' discourses by the Rev. George C. Lorimer.——Under the title of 'Mercy and Judgment' Canon Farrar has arrayed his objections to the hell of Calvinism, in a volume of which E. P. Dutton & Co. are the American publishers.——'Cymbeline' and the 'Comedy of Errors' have been added to Rolfe's illustrated and annotated edition of Shakspere (Harpers).——Mr. W. W. Corcoran, of Washington, purchased at the late Stevens sale in London, for the Virginia Historical Society, the original MS. records of the colony for the years 1752–57, under the administration of Gov. Dinwiddie—a collection of the greatest value to the historian. It embraces a considerable correspondence between Dinwiddie and Washington, and covers the period immediately before and after Braddock's defeat. An important document relating to the assignment of lands on the Kanawha to the officers and soldiers of the Braddock campaign, now preserved in the Chancery Court at Staunton, in Washington's own handwriting as special commissioner and surveyor, is likely to find its way for safe keeping to the same society.——Apropos of the Stevens sale, the Boston *Advertiser* states that if the Franklin papers had not been bought by the Government, subscriptions for its purchase pledged by citizens of Boston would have secured it for the Public Library of that city.——Richard Dudensing & Son have just issued a steel engraving of President Garfield, which, with many of the merits of the medium, illustrates also its defects in an excess of mechanical definition and, in general, a "slick" look transcending mere humanity in the direction of the line-engraver's ideal. It is, however, we think we may trust our memory sufficiently to affirm, the best steel portrait of the President which has appeared, and is very presentable and perhaps framable.——In the July *American Art Review* Mr. T. H. Bartlett, the sculptor, has a first article upon Walter Shirlaw, the painter, and probably leaves for the second any necessary qualification of his eulogy. Mr. Thomas Davidson begins, and will finish next month, an account of "The New Frescos in the Benedictine Abbey at Monte Cassino." Mr. Winthrop continues his "Old English Porcelain," and the editor reviews the recent exhibitions of the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts and the Boston Art Club. Of the number's illustrations the most valuable is an etching by Unger, after Rembrandt's portrait of "The Jewish Bride." Mr. Moran's "Morning," however, shows much expertness, and a woodcut by Juengling of Shirlaw's "Very Old" should be mentioned.——A correspondent calls our attention to the fact that civil-service reform doctrine is now served out even to the "patent-insides" papers—certainly a sign of the times.——In the last number of volume iii. of the *American Journal of Mathematics*, just issued, Dr. Craig's paper "On Certain Possible Cases of Steady Motion in a Viscous Fluid" is completed. Mr. O. H. Mitchell has a long paper, "On Binomial Congruences"; Professor W. W. Johnson treats of "The Strophoids"; Dr. W. E. Story, the associate editor of the *Journal*, writes "On the Theory of Rational Derivation on a Cubic Curve"; and Dr. Sylvester has one paper, "On a Point in the Theory of Vulgar Fractions," and another—"Instantaneous Proof of a Theorem of La Grange." The change of printers of the *Journal* about a year ago has brought great improvement in its typographic appearance; even the objectionable highly-calendered paper has been given up in the latter part of the present number. If the *Journal* were now to be issued regularly at a smaller interval from the date it bears, we should think no further change desirable.——The new Century Company will remove in September to the fine building lately erected on the north side of Union Square, where it will publish its two magazines, *Scribner's* and *St. Nicholas*, and in time its books. Mr. La Farge's decorative glass factory already occupies the upper part of the same building.——The French edition of 'Ahn's Method for German,' first published in 1843, has reached its one-hundredth edition. The English translation had some vogue in this country twenty years ago. There were also similar methods for Italian and for Spanish, and even for Russian, and we remember a friend's poring in some bewilderment over the 'Method for the Dutch Language,' and forming for himself (not having any master) a style of pronunciation which afterwards not a little amused a native of Holland whom he chanced to meet. That result has given us a certain scepticism as to the possibility of discovering the real orthoepy of any language from books alone, and a feeling of insecurity in the present style of pronouncing Latin, better though it undoubtedly is than the absurd style which preceded it.——A work similar to Roget's 'Thesaurus,' with just the same numerical divisions, was written a number of years ago for the French language by Robertson (the 'Dictionnaire Idéologique de la Langue Française.') A third work, with the same numbering, has appeared this year in German, Schlessing's 'Deutscher Wortschatz' (Stuttgart.)——*Le Français* notices that the laxity of "Republican" police regulations has gone so far in Paris that the immoral photographs exhibited on the streets have shocked even the *Voltaire*, the journal in which Zola's 'Nana' was first published.

—The first five engraved mezzotints by Mr. Charles H. Moore, which we announced some time ago, have been issued by the Harvard Art Club. They are from drawings of different bits of European natural scenery, and executed in the manner of Turner's famous series. These five are entitled respectively: "The Village of Simplon," "Gathering Storm, Simplon," "Old Doorway, Venice," "Florence from near San Miniato," and "On the Lagune, Venice." The Swiss scenes are particularly impressive, and naturally gain most from the treatment of the artist, which is the extreme of accuracy and, as Mr. Moore's master would say, reverence. Technically speaking, all are of great interest, the management of light and dark and the resultant tone of each plate being conspicuously successful. As to the "general effect," different observers will inevitably differ, since the work is, to the most pronounced degree, in a vein not so popular at present as it has been; and in this respect the simple description of it as engraved mezzotint is a characterization beyond which it is needless to go.

—A twelvemonth ago, on the first issue of *Science*, we observed that for the English-speaking race we should have considered *Nature* a sufficient scientific medium and entitled to universal support. As the new journal has gradually taken permanent form, we have been gratified to note the lack of confirmation of this view by, among other things, the falling off in its quotations from *Nature*. That it has, however, not yet had the support of the most prominent scientists of America, in its fullest sense, is apparent. Very little original scientific research has found first publication here; but it takes a long time to divert this class of publication from the customary channels of print. *Science* needs better editorials, and those confined to more important subjects. Perhaps we should venture the general criticism that too much space has hitherto been given to industrial topics. The scientific book reviews have been noticeably defective—not more than a half-dozen really good reviews have appeared during the entire year. The exercise of a stricter discrimination would have ensured the exclusion of much pseudo-science. The tedious exposition of the Duke of Argyll on the unity of Nature—

already run through fourteen numbers and more than sixty close-set quarto pages of *Science*, with no prospect of the definitive unification of Nature yet—is entirely out of place in such a journal. *Science* has done a thing much needed in this country in giving immediate publication to the papers read before the American Association for the Advancement of Science and the National Academy of Sciences—always heretofore greatly delayed in publication, and, in the case of the Academy, very often never printed at all.

—"B. S." writes us from Strassburg, July 16:

"The term 'Stalwart' has been figuring largely in the telegraphic despatches sent to German journals by their American correspondents. Much to the bewilderment of the home editors, no explanation of the word has been furnished them; they have, therefore, been compelled to invent an etymology of their own. Some of your readers will be interested in learning the ingenious manner in which a Strassburg journalist has solved the 'Stalwart' puzzle. According to this savant (who is not jesting), 'Stal'=*Stelle*, and 'wart'=*warten* ("Stellen-warter")—*i.e.*, those who are awaiting Government appointment! The German editor had evidently heard that the term in question is now applied to the supporters of Conkling & Co. The *Nation's* explanation and history of the word in politics I have seen quoted recently in various German journals."

—Mr. David Gill, Her Majesty's Astronomer at the Cape of Good Hope, has just issued, as a reprint from the forty-sixth volume of the 'Memoirs of the Royal Astronomical Society,' his definitive paper on the determination of the solar parallax from observations of Mars at Ascension in 1877. We think it no exaggeration to style it the most important separate determination of this constant which has ever been made—we should like to say it is the most accurate. Some three years ago we printed a brief note on Mrs. Gill's charming little book, 'Six Months in Ascension: An Unscientific Account of a Scientific Expedition,' in which were fully described the incidents and details of a somewhat arduous undertaking, now become historic. The expenses of the expedition were defrayed by vote of the Council of the Royal Astronomical Society in the first instance, and later from the Government Grant Fund of the Royal Society. The observations at Ascension were made with the heliometer owned by Lord Lindsay (now the Earl of Crawford and Balcarres), in accordance with what astronomers call "the method of the diurnal parallax," or "east-and-west method." While much of the detail of reduction of the work is presented in Mr. Gill's admirable volume, a vast deal has been omitted in the printing—in full accord with the more advanced and advancing notions on this subject. The original note-books and manuscripts are deposited with the Society, where they may, and should, be referred to, if the re-examination of the work is ever undertaken, or any doubtful point arises. The final result of Mr. Gill's investigation is 8″.78, with a probable error of o″.012—which gives, for the mean distance of the earth from the sun, 93,080,000 miles. Most astronomers will have little doubt that this value of the solar parallax is too small; nevertheless, the more important of the recent researches on this subject show this value to be a close approximation to the truth.

—That those who are neither "æsthetes" nor pottery experts can yet share in the china mania is frankly confessed by Mr. Geo. W. Marshall, the well-known English genealogist, in the July *Antiquary* (New York: J. W. Bouton). He has "a rather extensive collection of old bowls, cups, plates, mugs, and teapots," whose intrinsic value he could probably not estimate, but which he prizes exclusively for the arms of their former possessors painted upon them. This custom, he says, arose about 1700, or a little later, 1720 being the earliest date he can safely assign to any specimen. Wealthy merchants in the East-India trade began it, and Mr. Marshall concludes that all the earliest specimens are of Oriental porcelain. The generally accepted date of the obscure beginning of the Lowestoft manufacture (the middle of the eighteenth century) he makes coincident with the origin of the rage in England for armorial china—a rage which was quite over by 1820. Certainly a great deal of this sort of work was done at Lowestoft, the ware being often apparently Oriental. Mr. Marshall's doubt as to the correctness of the current opinion, "that china was sometimes made in the East and sent over to be painted with arms in this country [England]," cannot be allowed the same weight as his heraldic and genealogical tests of the approximate age of specimens. Of these he gives a number of instances, adding that "the modes of tricking changed so much between 1700 and 1800 that there is very little difficulty in saying from the tricking (or, to speak less technically, drawing) of the arms, within twenty years, at what date they must have been painted." Finally, he has an instructive word about forgeries consequent upon the competition of collectors of his own kind. He says nothing, it is to be remarked, of a pseudo-heraldic decoration which issued from the Lowestoft factories, and of which examples are not infrequent among the heirlooms of this country—a crest of two doves billing, above a shield or oval containing the initials of husband and wife, or of either, with lambrequin, etc. The paste of ware thus marked, though known to be as late as the last decade of the last century, has a strong Oriental appearance.

—*Le Livre* was never more true to its name than in its July issue, which opens with an article on the Plantin Museum, at Antwerp, by Léon Degeorge, followed by a "Bibliographical Study on the Fifth Book of Rabelais," by Bibliophile Jacob. Neither of these important papers is entire, and the continuation of each will be awaited with much interest. Paul Lacroix defends the authenticity of the disputed Fifth Book. M. Degeorge, with good reason, upbraids the municipal authorities of Antwerp for their narrow seclusion of the bibliographical treasures of the Plantin Museum since they entered into possession of it in 1877. He then describes in detail the building, the disposition and contents of the rooms (of several of which he gives views), etc., in a way to make any lover of the art of printing long to inspect the noble relics of a famous house. The collection of type alone is so great "that it would be possible to undertake works of the first importance." Under the head of "Nouvelles Diverses" the editor complains that the National Printing-office has ceased to be a model and pioneer in typographic development, like the national textile and ceramic establishments of Beauvais and Sèvres, and has become a subsidized competitor of private establishments at a great charge to the annual budget.

—M. Adrien Langlet, a bookseller at Saint-Quentin, has ready for the press a 'Dictionnaire-manuel des libraires et des amateurs de livres, 1445–1881.' It is to appear in twenty-five parts, and is to include and fuse into one alphabet "all the bibliographical works that have hitherto appeared." If the work is well done it will be extremely useful, for valuable as are Brunet and Graesse, they have both serious gaps, and the promise of finding everything important that has yet appeared relating to any remarkable book in one place is very attractive. But we fear that the new Brunet, like his predecessor, will be full only in regard to French works, unsatisfactory on English and German, very weak on Scandinavian, and will ignore the Slavic altogether. One feature announced would, it seems to us, much better be put in an entirely separate work—namely, a list of all the (important?) manuscripts in the libraries of Paris and the provinces.

—There seems to be no diminution in the French liking for amateur theatricals, and in consequence there is a steady stream of publications containing little plays for two or three actors, or the strangely-popular monologues which are best suited for production upon an extemporized stage. Although one cannot but think that the production of monologues and dramatic trifles has been carried perhaps a little too far, still, as we have said often enough before, there is no means of training the ear in the tricks and turns of the spoken language of France so profitable as the reading aloud of plays written to be spoken, and not too long to fatigue the attention of the beginner. Almost any of the many collections of comedies for amateur acting, continually appearing just now in Paris, can be consulted to advantage, but perhaps no series is quite as good as the 'Théâtre de Campagne' (Paris: Ollendorff), of which the seventh volume has now appeared. In this M. Legouvé, to whose suggestion the series owes its being, again appears. The general level of merit in the volume is much the same as in its immediate predecessors. Perhaps the best play is the touching but rather abruptly concluded "Part de butin," written by the lady who calls herself "Georges de Létorière." "La Souris," a frankly comic little farce; "L'Heure de la Liberté," a well worked-out humorous suggestion, and "Madame Limaray?" an amusing imbroglio, may all be recommended. The monologue usurps more than its share of space—eight out of seventeen pieces. One of the most amusing of these is "Le Fou Rire," written by M. Jacques Normand, who has also included it in his recently published 'Paravents et Tréteaux; fantaisies de salon et de théâtre' (Paris: Levy). M. Édouard Pailleron's 'Théâtre à Madame' (Paris: Levy), a daintily-printed volume with its rough edges and rubricated title, contains three little plays in metre and a dozen or two bits of verse, some to be recited and others to be read. The best of the plays is "Pendant le Bal," written to precede the author's important three-act comedy, "Le Monde où l'on s'ennuie," now acting at the Théâtre-Français. One of the other two is the "Chevalier Trumeau," published last winter in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. The plays are preceded by a delightful metrical prologue, which girds wittily at the prevailing naturalism in French literature.

—One of the most interesting essays in *Sagenliteratur* that we have read of late is contained in Vogt's 'Salomon u. Markolf' (Halle: Niemeyer). The editor has traced with great care the resemblances and differences between the German and the Slavic versions of the Solomon-story, and their connection with the Rabbinical legend of Solomon and Asmodeus. Vogt assumes that the Jewish legend must have passed into German-Slavic literature through the medium of Byzantine Greek. Hence, *e.g.*, the name of the Russian rival of Solomon, Kitooras—Greek κένταυρος: centaur being a generic term applicable to the half-human

demons over whom the Rabbinical Solomon had power. Inasmuch as one of the most peculiar pieces in our Anglo-Saxon literature is the collection of dialogues entitled 'Solomon and Saturn,' Vogt's essay will be helpful to our scholars. Vogt, it is true, does not treat the Anglo-Saxon poem very fully; he even passes over in silence the name Saturn, as substituted for the Hebrew Marcolis, corrupted in German into Mark-wulf, Markolf. Perhaps he agrees with Ten Brink's explanation, that Marcol was confounded with Malcol, Moloch, and Saturn, *i.e.*, the gloomy god, used as the equivalent for the latter name. In any case, Vogt's essay places the Solomon-saga upon a new footing, and modifies considerably the opinions held by Kemble and Ten Brink, and by Schaumberg. We may add, in conclusion, that Vogt's analyses of the several German and Slavic versions will give the reader a survey of the whole subject, and that his style is admirably clear.

—In the death of Professor Lotze, three weeks ago in Berlin, where he had been lately called after thirty-six years of uninterrupted activity at Göttingen, philosophy has lost one of its most genial, independent, and influential minds. A competent reviewer lately said that he had profoundly affected the culture of all German scholars under forty-five who were interested in his lines of thought, and even from this country he has had many pupils who will learn of his death with a sense of almost personal bereavement. Remarkably acute and sure as a critic, with a disposition from which Czolbe is said to have copied his famous ideal of classic poise and equanimity, and, what is still more unusual in Germany, with a culture no less broad and symmetrical, he was an Academician in the true Platonic sense, living the philosophy he taught, and teaching always and only his own character and mental life. When he began to write, the mechanical methods and conceptions of organic nature were achieving their first triumphs under J. Müller and E. H. Weber amid considerable enthusiasm, and one of Lotze's first essays was a very effective defence of these methods and a refutation of the then prevalent vitalism. Most of the superstitions and confusions of medicine are always found in conceptions of the nature of disease and the action of remedies. For the light he shed in this field by his 'Pathology and Therapeutics as Mechanical Sciences,' in 1842, Lotze deserves to be named next to Virchow, although his merit is of course of a far different order and his first signal achievement in this line was not followed up. All physiological processes, he argued, are ultimately explained under the laws of matter in motion. Omitting his less important works, his 'Medical Psychology' (1852) was the first methodic attempt at a physiology of the soul, which is, however, carefully distinguished from matter on the one hand, and from vital force and the ideal-real unities of the identity systems on the other. Each isolated, afferent nerve-fibre which carries impressions inward to the soul that moves freely in the fibreless *parenchyma* of the brain gives a peculiar sign or mark to each impression which traverses it, by which the soul can know what part of the periphery it came from. This is Lotze's conception of local signs, which, with his subsequently conceived temporal signs, have played a rôle in this department almost as prominent as the theory of specific energy or isolated conductivity of nerve fibres. This work was soon to be revised, as it greatly needed to be. Those, however, who wish Lotze's later views, as he would no doubt himself have presented them soon, will find them briefly sketched in 'Les Principes Généraux de Psychol. Physiologie,' by A. Penjon, which is a résumé of Lotze's psychology made under his own supervision and with many essential changes.

—Lotze is at his best in the 'Mikrokosmos' (1856–64), in which he seeks "the entire significance of human life" from the standpoint of an anthropological psychology. The lessons of history, art, science, and literature are here turned against mechanical conceptions of the world (which are said to be universal in application but very limited in scope), and in a way which caused Carl Vogt and others to charge him with apostasy to his own earlier standpoint. In his carefully-written 'Logic' (1874) and the radical revision of his juvenile 'Metaphysics' two years later, Lotze shows still more fully the folly of attempting to prove the existence of God, although insisting most strenuously upon an instinctive belief in personality at the centre of the universe which is beyond the reach or need of proof. If people would not attempt to objectify and demonstrate divine realities in general, he urges, they would never have been doubted. His optimism is summed up in the phrase, "The world of worths explains the world of forms." Whatever is is not only right, but, philosophically regarded, best. On the whole, Lotze's work may be best described as ethical, and a final estimate of its value can hardly be made till the foundations of ethical science are better laid. If this estimate be questioned, we can only add the opinion that it will be more manifest when his admirable lectures on the Philosophy of Religion come to be published.

HOWARD'S NEZ-PERCÉ WAR.

Nez-Percé Joseph: An account of his ancestors, his lands, his confederates, his enemies, his murders, his war, his pursuit and capture. By O. O. Howard, Brig. Gen. U. S. A. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1881.

General Howard has given us a very entertaining book, and one of permanent value as well. The Nez-Percés war was a good deal befogged at the time by the confusion of the "treaty Indians" with those who had refused to recognize the settlement made by part of the tribe with the United States, and many good people were greatly troubled by the belief that the hostilities were with those who had been for many years under missionary influences upon the reservation. This narrative draws with complete distinctness the line between the two classes of Indians, and emphasizes with very proper care the fact that the majority of the Nez-Percés took no part in Chief Joseph's war, and did not recognize him as their leader, but remained quietly upon their reservation in sincere effort to make progress in civilization, and in perfectly good understanding with the officers of the Government. The disaffected part of the tribe had been so for a whole generation, and really consisted of those who repudiated all civilizing influences; and, whatever was the nominal cause of discontent, the real trouble lay in their ineradicable purpose to live and die in the roaming, hunting ways of their fathers.

This is brought out very graphically by the General in a preliminary description of the tribe and their hunting-grounds in the days of old Joseph, the father of the young chieftain who made the war. The topography of the country about the head-waters of the Great Snake River is very lucidly described, and the picture given of the land and of its aboriginal inhabitants is one of the best things of the kind which we have. The fact is not blinked that in all our dealings with the Indians, the Nez-Percé treaty included, there has been an element of insincerity, not to say fraud, and that every settlement of controversies has been made by the Government with a mental reservation holding it good only till the growth of frontier settlements should make it convenient to ask the tribes to "move on," or to suffer another contraction of their hunting-grounds. The local causes of trouble, such as individual wrongs and murders, are also touched upon and shown in their true relations to larger affairs, as the occasions if not the causes of outbreaks. The personal description of Joseph and his brother Ollicut is cleverly done. Both of them young men and deeply attached to each other, their traits of character were unlike and a mutual foil. Joseph was keen-witted but reticent and astute, showing wisdom beyond his years and a tendency to slyness if not to treachery. Ollicut was a laughing, open-faced athlete, of almost gigantic but supple form, following his brother with affectionate devotion.

The story of the way the war broke out is told with details for which we are thankful, for it is typical of Indian outbreaks; and, given as it is by one of the responsible actors in the scene, it is an authentic picture, which makes all similar troubles comprehensible. At the beginning of May, 1877, a council was held at Fort Lapwai, and it looked as if everything would be peaceably settled by the discontented Indians going on the reservation. The scene was a striking one. The post is a quadrangle of buildings nestled in the most picturesque of valleys, and the Indians arranged their approach with a keen instinct for barbaric show:

"A long rank of men, followed by women and children, with faces painted, the red paint extending back into the partings of the hair—the men's hair braided and tied up with showy strings—ornamented in dress, in hats, in blankets, with variegated colors, in leggings of buckskin, and moccasins, beaded and plain; women with bright shawls or blankets, and skirts to the ankle, and 'top moccasins.' All were mounted on ponies as various in color as the dress of the riders."

After making a considerable delay whilst they were waited for at the fort—a delay purposely calculated for effect—the cavalcade approached, striking up a weird song as they came.

"It was shrill and searching: sad, like a wail, and yet defiant in its close. Our ladies, thinking it a war-song, asked with some show of trepidation, 'Do you think Joseph means to fight?' The Indians swept around, outside the fence, and made the entire circuit, still keeping up the song as they rode. The buildings broke the refrain into irregular bubblings of sound, till the ceremony was complete."

Then, as an indication of modesty, with a poetic sort of politeness, they entered the quadrangle by the back door of the commandant's quarters. They agreed to go on the reservation, and doubtless would have done so, but at the last moment a few young braves, the most reckless of those who favored war, rushed off and committed some savage murders, and, riding back to Chief Joseph's camp, harangued the excitable red men: "Look here; see this fine horse! Behold this rifle, this saddle, and all these good clothes! Why do you remain here talking and talking? The war has begun! I am mad! I have killed the enemies! Up! Get your horses and come on; there is plenty of everything if you only work for it." Young war-

riors caught the war-fever. Chiefs and cooler heads saw that things had gone beyond their control; and they would not have been savage chieftains if they had not determined to lead the wild outbreak which they could not restrain. So the war began.

General Howard gathered in haste such forces as could be collected, sending Colonel Perry to check the Indians and protect the fleeing inhabitants. Perry's detachment was drawn into a defile, attacked in front, flank, and rear, and almost destroyed. As soon as a sufficient force could be collected General Howard himself led it against Chief Joseph, defeated the Indians at Clear Water, and began a long and memorable chase. The Indians had great droves of ponies, which afforded them relays of horses as often as they were needed, and by this means they were able to keep in advance of Howard through a pursuit of more than a thousand miles. The incidents of this laborious march of nearly three months are full of interest, and excite admiration for both the tenacity and determination of the soldiers and their commander, and the real military ability shown by the Nez-Percé chieftain. Hitting General Gibbon in Montana on one side, narrowly dodging General Sturgis from Nebraska on the other, remorselessly followed by Howard and his troopers, the Indians were at last driven into the northernmost bend of the Missouri River, and Miles was able to stop them and bring them to a decisive action, at which Howard himself was present, riding with a small escort far in advance of his own men.

The full narration of the facts leaves no doubt that the most important share of the work had fallen to the troops led by General Howard, whose engagement at Clear Water was as fierce a fight as any of the strange campaign; and whose remarkable and protracted chase was almost unique in the history of military marches. Miles's brilliant battle near Bear-Paw Mountain merited the recognition it got; but General Howard has done well to give permanent form to the record of the wonderful work done by the little column which drove the savage tribe half across a continent and into the hands of their fellow-soldiers. In all its parts the book is a valuable addition to the literature of our Indian relations and our frontier wars.

A NATURALIST IN BORNEO.

The Gardens of the Sun; or, a Naturalist's Journal on the mountains and in the forests and swamps of Borneo and the Sulu Archipelago. By F. W. Burbidge. With illustrations. London: J. Murray. 8vo, pp. xviii.-364.

THE island of Borneo, though perhaps the second largest in the world, contains, according to a recent statement by the President of the Royal Geographical Society, Lord Aberdare, "probably nearly as much unknown land as any other portion of the globe of equal dimensions." The coast-line of nearly 3,000 miles has been well surveyed, especially upon the west, but the mouth of its largest river, flowing into the Celebes Sea on the eastern coast, was discovered only a few months since. The farthest interior has never yet been reached by any white man, though attempts have been made from several points by both English and Dutch travellers. According to the best English authority, Mr. Spenser St. John, the island "is about 830 statute miles in its greatest length and 700 in breadth, having an area of about 280,000 square miles." The last edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' makes the extraordinary statement that "its whole area is estimated by Melvill von Carnbee at 12,745 square miles." The Dutch geographer's estimate was, however, "6,992 square myriametres," equivalent in round numbers to 270,000 square miles. In Vivien de Saint-Martin's 'Nouveau dictionnaire de géographie universelle' its area is given as "748,700 kilomètres carrés," or 284,506 square miles. Since the publication of St. John's 'Life in the Forests of the Far East' little has been written about Borneo, though some attention was drawn to the country three years ago by the cession of about 20,000 square miles in the north, by the Sultans of Brunei and Sulu, to an English company under Baron von Overbeck. This company intends to follow the example of Sir James Brooke and to form a state on the model of that of Sarawak, and has applied to the English Government for a charter. Its success in developing the rich mineral and agricultural resources of this part of the island so far has been moderate, and as, according to one of its managers, the Malays will not work for wages, "the Chinese must be looked to as the chief helpers in opening up the country." It seems not improbable that it is in this direction that the best outlet will be found for the surplus population of China, as the island is very thinly peopled. Though it nearly equals in size Great Britain and France together, its inhabitants probably number less than two millions. There are already many Chinese colonies in different parts of the island, and they are beginning to push into the interior, as the following passage shows:

"Armed with a chopper and [a] spade-hoe, a solitary Chinaman will not unfrequently build a miserable little palm-leaf hut on a well-watered bit of forest near a river, and in a month or two he will have cleared several acres, to which, when planted with gambier or pepper, he looks for a fair return. . . . I have often come across these clearings right in the heart of the forest, miles away from any other human habitation, and have been as much astonished at the amount of labor performed with such a simple tool as the thrifty laborer himself was to see me."

Mr. Burbidge's 'Gardens of the Sun' does not add much to our general knowledge of the island, though our author was very successful in the main object of his travels, "the collection and introduction of beautiful new plants to the Veitchian Collection at Chelsea." He added some fifty species of ferns to those already known to exist in Borneo, nearly half of which "were absolutely new to science." His greatest exploit was, however, "the introduction alive of the Giant Pitcher Plant of Kina Balu (*Nepenthes Rajah*, Hook. f.)" One of these plants described by St. John measured nineteen inches in circumference, and "held exactly four pint bottles." He adds: "We afterwards saw others apparently much larger, and Mr. Low, while wandering in search of flowers, came upon one in which was a drowned rat." Mr. Burbidge makes it plain that there has been a great improvement in the last few years in the condition of that part of the island most subject to the influence of the English. Head-hunting and piracy may be said to have almost ceased, and the people invariably treated the traveller with the greatest kindness, though this may have been largely owing to his own good humor and determination. "Land culture is becoming much more general among the natives inland than formerly, security of life and property having also increased." These reports are confirmed by a paper read before the Royal Geographical Society, February 14, 1881, by Mr. W. M. Crocker, Resident of Sarawak, in which he states that the revenue of that state has increased from $26,000 in 1854 to $250,000 in 1880, while the trade which at that time amounted to $671,000 "has now reached $4,000,000." It may be noted here that "the territory of Sarawak alone furnishes more than half the sago produce of the world."

Our author's first impressions of the lowland forests near the equator seem to have been somewhat disappointing. In one of these, he tells us, "all the vegetation you see around you on earth, rocks, or fallen trunks, is represented by a few ferns . . . [and] gingerworts; but epiphytes of all kinds seem totally absent: and the truth is that, like lovable 'Tom Bowling,' of Dibdin's minstrelsy, they, too, have 'gone aloft.' Above you is a world of light and air and sunshine, which birds, insects, and flowers alike enjoy." The only way to secure specimens of the rarer orchids was either by climbing or by searching for fallen trees in the clearings. "Some of these ruined trunks are perfect gardens of beauty, wreathed with graceful climbing plants, and gay with flowers and foliage." On one of these he found "a plant of the grammatophyllum orchid big enough to fill a Pickford's van, and just now opening its golden brown-spotted flowers on stout spikes two yards long."

Considerable space is naturally devoted to two partial ascents of Mount Kina Balu. This mountain is the highest yet known in Borneo, and resembles in general appearance Mount Roraima in South America, though its summit is not inaccessible, as appears to be the case with this latter mountain. Sir Edward Belcher gives its height as 13,698 feet. It is especially interesting to botanists from the fact that there is upon it a belt, extending from a height of five thousand to six or seven thousand feet, in which grow a number of species of enormous pitcher-plants, not to be found in any other part of the earth. Some of those seen by Mr. Burbidge had "stems five or six feet in height." Others had "rounded pitchers of the softest pink color, with a crimson-frilled orifice." Several days were spent upon the mountain gathering specimens, in which Mr. Burbidge seems to have been admirably aided by his native followers, although at times they were almost paralyzed with the cold. Another of the curious plants of Borneo is the *myrmecodia*, a parasite, which "actually depends for its existence on the bite of a species of ant. The seed germinates on the bark of the foster-tree; and when the seedling has attained a certain height the growth ceases, and it remains stationary until the necessary bite is given, when the stem swells out at the base, and leaves and flowers are produced in due course. If not thus punctured the young plant dies. The gouty or swollen stem is hollow, and forms a refuge for the ants, which in their turn may afford it some needful protection, since they rush out boldly to attack trespassers who disturb the tree on which their fostered shelter-plant grows."

Brunei, the capital of Borneo (one of the divisions of the island), is described as a water city of about twenty thousand inhabitants. The houses are built on piles driven into the river, and as they are mostly palm-thatched, their general appearance cannot be very unlike the prehistoric lake dwellings of Switzerland. "It is the Sheffield of northwest Borneo, the manufacture of knives, parongs, and krisses being largely carried on there; and on one of the little islands is a primitive foundry, where

gongs, brass guns, cooking-pots, betel-boxes, etc., are cast. Some of these articles are ornamented with well-designed figures in relief, and would not be any disgrace to a European manufacturer. The models and methods of casting are singularly like those of our own artisans. I visited one rude armorer's shop, and much admired the exquisite finish of some weapons he had made." An expedition to the Sulu archipelago, while it does not appear to have been very successful botanically, is made interesting by lively descriptions of the Sultan and his court. Their favorite amusements are pig-sticking and riding, the islands producing a fine breed of ponies. "An enormous species of day-flying bat was quite common here near the Sultan's palace, and most weird and supernatural did they appear on dull days, solemnly flying from one tree to another, their great wings distended against the leaden sky overhead. . . . I shot one which measured four feet six inches across its outspread wings, and its head was as large as that of a little terrier dog, and of a similar shape, being of a dark, foxy-brown color." It is with no little surprise that we read: "It is not uncommon to see some few of the Sulus from the hills wearing tunics of chain-armor, having brass plates on the breast and down the back, all the rest being fine chain-work." Whether these were made by the islanders themselves appears to be doubtful. Mr. Burbidge suggests that they may have been captured from the Spaniards. The signs of a former higher civilization are very noticeable, but the warlike tendencies of the people have greatly checked their growth and prosperity. These islands were the last stronghold of the pirates, and, apparently in despair of putting an end to piracy except by actual occupation, the Spaniards in July, 1878, took formal possession of the Sultan's dominions, by hoisting their flag in his capital of Meimbong. He had already ceded his Bornean possessions to Baron von Overbeck's North-Borneo Company.

A chapter is devoted to some very sensible advice on travelling in the tropics, and another to the fruits of Borneo. Mr. Burbidge is quite as enthusiastic over the durian, "or the fruit with the fragrant stink," as Mr. Wallace, who says, "To eat durians is a new sensation, worth a voyage to the East to experience." Our author says: "If it be possible for you to imagine the flavor of a combination of corn-flour and rotten cheese, nectarines, crushed filberts, a dash of pineapple, a spoonful of old dry sherry, thick cream, apricot-pulp, and a *soupçon* of garlic, all reduced to the consistency of a rich custard, you have a glimmering idea of the durian." Judging from the lists given at the end of the book Borneo is very rich in both mineral and vegetable products. The enormous rainfall, however, has hitherto prevented the successful working of the mines, while the people have not yet made great progress in agriculture. Some of the trees which bear gutta-percha and rubber are "gradually, but none the less surely, being exterminated by the collectors." The climate is "fairly healthy, especially on the hills inland, where the air is much fresher and cooler than on the lowlands near the coast; the mean annual temperature is about 84°." We regret to say that a fair table of contents by no means takes the place of a good index, the want of which impairs the value of this very readable book.

A SOLDIER OF THE LORD.

Colonel Gordon in Central Africa, 1874-79. From original letters and documents. Edited by George Birkbeck Hill, D.C.L. London: De La Rue & Co. 1881.

"THE soldier of the Lord, with his Bible and his sword"—this line from Macaulay's spirited ballad on Naseby Fight would describe the character of Colonel Gordon if it did not place "the Bible" and "the sword" so precisely on the same level. For though a soldier of unshaken courage and the most distinguished ability, no man could regard the pomp, pride, and circumstance of glorious war with deeper abhorrence than Colonel Gordon, and no man could be more completely indifferent to the prestige and *éclat* which surround the successful soldier. War, in his eyes, is a terrible necessity, to be justified only by the fact of its necessity, and to be conducted without one thought of personal glory, but with the constant, unsleeping desire to diminish to the utmost the sorrow and suffering which it entails. It was in this spirit that Colonel Gordon, then a Major of Engineers in the British Army, undertook the command of the "ever-victorious army" (as it came to be called) against the Tai-ping rebellion which had devastated and depopulated vast provinces of the Chinese Empire. In the course of a year's campaign he destroyed a power that threatened the very existence of the Chinese state, and then laid down his command, refusing any pecuniary reward for himself, although "he had spent more than his pay in contributing to the comfort of the officers who served under him, and in assuaging the distress of the starving populations whom he rescued from the yoke of their oppressors."

The men whom he commanded in these operations were raw, untrained recruits, and he had to lead them against armies vastly superior in numbers and elated with success. To inspire them with the requisite courage and confidence, it was necessary that he should himself be present wherever the fire was hottest and the danger most extreme. But he went into battle armed with no more formidable weapon than a small cane, and this circumstance caused his Chinese soldiers gradually to come to the conviction that the cane was possessed of magical properties which ensured protection and success to its owner. The source, however, of Colonel Gordon's calmness and intrepidity in danger lay in his religious convictions. He regards himself, literally, as a mere instrument in the hands of Omnipotence, with a set work before him to do, and regards, therefore, as matters of entire indifference the conditions amid which that work has to be done—whether it be amid the shot and shell of a battle-field or amid the dangers of a waterless desert. A religious fatalism is commonly supposed to breed a listless and apathetic habit of mind, but in Colonel Gordon it provoked a devouring energy. Alike in China or in Central Africa, he had his "work" to do. In China it was to suppress the Tai-ping rebellion; in Central Africa, to extinguish the horrors of the slave-trade; and his work he felt himself, as it were, under a divine compulsion to carry through with a total disregard of personal health and comfort, with an utter scorn of fatigue and danger.

It was in September, 1872, that Colonel Gordon met Nubar Pasha, the Egyptian Minister, at the British Embassy at Constantinople. The Pasha enquired of him if he knew of any engineer officer who would accept an appointment as governor of the tribes in the Nile Basin, when it should be vacated by Sir Samuel Baker. In July, 1873, Colonel Gordon wrote to Nubar Pasha intimating his willingness to take up the appointment, if the British Government would grant the loan of his services to the Khedive. They were applied for and granted, and the book we are reviewing is the record of his doings in Central Africa during the five years he remained in the employ of the Egyptian Government. The five years' story is given from Colonel Gordon's letters and diaries arranged in chronological order. These unstudied writings were never intended for publication, and are so many self-revelations of a character the possibility of which is hardly conceivable in this nineteenth century. Probably had Colonel Gordon not passed so many years of his life amid lonely deserts and savage peoples, his sense of the nothingness of life would not have attained such vivid intensity. Fatalism is a creed born of waste places and troublous times. In the midst of great cities and all the marvels of civilization men look around them, very much in the spirit of Nebuchadnezzar, exclaiming, "Behold this great Babylon which I have built"; but they are crushed with a sense of their own insignificance and weakness in the "ever-silent spaces" of a trackless desert. Nature here presents herself as an enemy mighty and pitiless—the devourer of mankind, and not their docile and laborious servant. And Colonel Gordon's sense of utter dependence upon God grew in strength and intensity in the thoughts which visited him as he urged his camel over the waterless waste of the Sudan. But, like his Puritan prototypes, Colonel Gordon was no idle dreamer. He prayed to God, but he was equally assiduous to keep his powder dry, and his government of the Sudan is a marvellous history of what the energy and iron will of a single man can do to rescue a vast province from suffering and misgovernment.

"I think," he writes on May 18, 1877, "the people like me, and it is an immense comfort that, while in the old régime ten or fifteen people were flogged daily, now none get flogged. A huge crowd stands around the palatial gates all day, but only a few are privileged with an interview; for I keep a box with a slit in the lid for petitions at the door, and every one can put his petition in it. Hitherto the people could never approach the governor unless they bribed the clerks. . . . It is all nonsense for the Turks to say that the people would oppose the nomination of a Christian governor. The people want justice. . . . I am breaking up, to the great joy of the people, the Bashi-Bazuks, who, of course, do not love me. A great sorrow has been taken off the land. The reign of the whip has ceased, and I do believe the people rejoice at my being here."

This was written from Khartum, the capital of his province, but he was rarely, and only for short intervals, in Khartum. He became noted for the speed with which he traversed upon camels large tracts of country. Neither want of food nor scarcity of water delayed him.

"I have," he writes, "a splendid camel—none like it. It flies along, and quite astonishes even the Arabs. I came flying into this station in marshal's uniform, and before the men had time to unpile their arms. I had arrived with only one man with me. . . . It is fearful to see the governor-general arrayed in gold clothes flying along like a madman, with only a guide, as if he was pursued. The Mudir had not time to gather himself together before the enemy was on him. Some of the guards were down at a well, drinking. It was no use; before they had got half way to their arms the goal was won. Specks had been seen in the vast plain around the station moving toward it (like

Jehu's advance); but the specks were few—only two or three—and were supposed to be the advanced guard, and before the men of Fogia knew where they were the station was taken."

The hardships which had to be encountered in these rapid rides were terrible. They were taken across a country producing nothing but scrub, with scanty wells sometimes as much as three days' journey apart, the one from the other; they had to be accomplished under the burning heat of the equatorial sun; food there was little to be had, and, what there was, so execrably bad that no human digestion, except Colonel Gordon's, could have assimilated it. Thus he writes of one of these journeys:

"The water on the way consists of pools of rain. Caravan A comes and drinks and bathes in it; then Caravan B comes and does the same; then Caravan C, and so on. It is dreadful; but I have given up all ideas of this sort. I have no pleasure in eating or drinking, and do both to keep myself alive, and with these ideas it makes little matter if the water is a solution of blacks or not. If I were fastidious, I should be as many weeks as I now am days on the road; I gain a great deal of prestige by these unheard-of marches. It makes the people fear me much more than if I were slow. . . . The wrecks left in my passage are numerous. I have set my face as a flint, and regardless of consequences have been hard, right and left. I do not wish to be so; I should like to praise, not blame; but seeing what I know of the suffering of the people, I cannot force myself to let things slide."

The helpless, dilatory character of the people he had to rule over drove him half mad, and, in truth, it would be hard to conceive of a greater contrast than that between this vehement, hard-riding, self-helpful Englishman and the passive dependence of the Oriental:

"For the very smallest thing men come direct to me, and force their way in, let me be as engaged as possible. There is no chain of responsibility. Every one thinks he has a perfect right to come to me, and also thinks himself aggrieved if I do not give him an immediate hearing. Besides this, in giving or taking a paper to you, they take two or three minutes. You never saw such a dilatory set! The consequence is that papers are snatched out of their hands, and also thrown at them. All very undignified, but I cannot help it. If you send for a man, he takes a nice funeral pace to come to you. You see him afar off long before he arrives, and sometimes I am so undignified as to rush to meet him. . . . Your brother is much feared and, I think, respected, but not overmuch liked. His refusals are definitive, and very strongly couched. 'Never!' is the answer to many requests, shouted with a loud voice, and followed with, 'Do you understand?' and 'Have you finished?' Pashas are threatened that if they do not move swiftly I will come after them myself. I pursued one all the way from Dara, and he barely got out of Khartum in time. He halted at three days' distance, thinking the pursuit at an end; but I gave him a telegram and started him again."

The main object, however, of his fierce and untiring energy was the suppression of the slave-trade. It was the appalling misery in which the populations that came within the sphere of the Tai-ping rebellion were plunged which impelled Colonel Gordon to take the command of the "ever-victorious army." In like manner it was the horrors of the slave-traffic in the Sudan which drove him into the service of the Egyptian Khedive. At the time when he took the government of the Sudan these evils may be said to have reached their culminating points. Large districts, which a few years previously had been dotted with villages and inhabited by a thriving and happy peasantry, had become solitary wastes. Not a human being was to be seen for a journey of many days. The terror of the slave-dealer had entirely depopulated them. One-third of the population in the province of Darfur alone had been carried into slavery. The routes along which the slave caravan travelled were cumbered with the fleshless skulls and bones of those who had sunk exhausted on the march. For, for every slave who reached the markets of Cairo or Constantinople, at least twenty had fallen to feed the vultures and prowling animals of the desert. The misery occasioned by this abominable traffic Colonel Gordon declares repeatedly to be beyond the power of words to describe. The idle, effeminate Egyptian officials made no effort at suppression, and could have done but little, even had they been so disposed. For the great slave-dealers had assumed the status of princes, and maintained around themselves the pomp and ceremonial of a king. They had armies of disciplined men under their command, having converted their slaves into soldiers, and these soldiers were much more than a match for the troops of the Egyptian army. In a word, when Colonel Gordon entered the Sudan it had become the seat of a slave power sufficiently formidable to be a danger to the Khedive himself.

Such was the hydra which Colonel Gordon was determined to slay, and had he been properly supported by the Egyptian Government there is no doubt that he would have exterminated slavery in the Sudan. But a man like Gordon was an abomination in the eyes of the corrupt officials of an effete Mohammedan despotism, and they labored zealously and unceasingly for his recall. Still, in the two years he remained in the Sudan he achieved immense things. The power of the slaveholders was completely broken, and their armies routed and dispersed in a series of bloody engagements. These battles were fought, not under the direct leadership of Colonel Gordon, but by an Italian of the name of Gessi (lately deceased), who served under him. Slave-caravans were everywhere arrested, the dealers flogged and turned loose upon the country stripped of all they possessed, the slaves set free to dispose of themselves as they pleased. But it soon became apparent to Colonel Gordon that, do what he might, he could only stanch the sore for the time. As soon as his own fiery and exhaustless energy was lost to the province the evil would spring up phœnix-like from its ashes and again overshadow the land. For in Egypt, as in every Moslem country from the dawn of Islam until now, the (so-called) Government fulfils no single duty of a government. It simply drains away the wealth and industry of its subjects, and, so long as its coffers are full, cares not one iota what the misery of its people may be. On Colonel Gordon's resigning the government of the Sudan, the Egyptian Government at once appointed to the vacant office a pasha whom Gordon had himself expelled from his province on account of his tyranny and his complicity with the slave-dealers.

In conclusion, we desire heartily to thank Mr. Birkbeck Hill for the publication of his book. It is as interesting as it is instructive, and the explanatory chapters written by the editor are replete with information not easily accessible.

RECENT NOVELS.

Blessed Saint Certainty. By the author of 'His Majesty Myself.' Boston: Roberts Bros.

The Emperor: A Romance. By Georg Ebers. From the German by Clara Bell. New York: Wm. S. Gottsberger.

A Question: An Idyl. Related by Georg Ebers. From the German by Mary J. Safford. New York: Wm. S. Gottsberger.

The Count's Secret. From the French of Émile Gaboriau. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.

Rosecroft. By W. M. F. Round. Boston: Lee & Shepard.

I I I By George H. Hepworth. New York: Harper & Bros.

Helen Troy. By the author of 'Golden Rod.' New York: Harper & Bros.

A Book of Love Stories. By Nora Perry. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

The Georgians. [The Round-Robin Series.] Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

Among the Hills. By E. J. Poynter. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

Harry Joscelyn. By Mrs. Oliphant. [Franklin Square Library.] New York: Harper & Bros.

An Ocean Free-Lance. [Franklin Square Library.] New York: Harper & Bros.

A Nihilist Princess. From the French of M. L. Gagneur. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.

The Bailiff's Maid. By E. Marlitt. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

Dunderviksborg, and other Tales. By Frances C. Henderson. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

The Eichhofs. By Moritz von Reichenbach. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

Annals of Brookdale: A New England Village. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

In looking over current fiction we are struck by the desperate catastrophes in which the authors, at least, delight. Small-pox, scarlet-fever, pistol-shots, or bursting guns are but a few of them, and meanwhile, as if to bring the whole to concert pitch, the lovers' quarrel is no longer a sudden word, a proud reply, a silence of repentance, but it has developed into a wrangle, prolonged till the "give and take" has exhausted all the resources of the combatants. Is it the recoil from commonplace, or is it to out-do the extravagance of reality? The questions are worth studying by some one, and 'Blessed Saint Certainty' would do to begin upon, for it has more than its share of terrors. It is meant as a portrait of "a perfectly natural, not an artificial, man." He is found in the dubious Eden of a squalid village on an Indian reserve. The story of the life there has an air of reality which is lost when the scene changes to an Eastern city, whither "this most aboriginal man" betakes himself to find out what manner of thing it is. The narrator is the Stephen Guernsey of an earlier book. What he would present is, of course, the contrast between nature and—call it civilization, culture, or art; but he fails entirely, spite of his ready judgments upon philosophy, theology, and all the rest. The phrase, "the spluttering electricity of Voltaire," is an unintended gauge of his knowledge of relative values.

'The Emperor' is the latest of Professor Ebers's series of historical novels. Like its predecessors, it is concerned with Egypt, which is its author's specialty, and, although "the Emperor" is Hadrian, the situation of the book is Egypt under Roman rule. The story is chiefly of a romantic interest, however, and the action is so limited in time that the historical importance of the work is less than that of 'Uarda' or 'The Sisters,' or of 'An Egyptian Princess.' The author sets out with

the avowed intention of making a consistent study of Hadrian's character from the contradictory accounts that exist of that prince, but this intention is early forgotten in a story of which Antinous is the hero and the daughter of a Greek official under Hadrian, in Egypt, the heroine. The young girl becomes a Christian and is murdered by the mob for refusing to worship Hadrian's statue, upon which Antinous, mourning her loss, and hoping to avert an evil omen from Hadrian by sacrificing his own life, voluntarily drowns himself. There are, besides, two love-stories which are happier in their incidents and events. The historical portion contains the adoption of Verus by Hadrian as his successor, on the intervention of his wife; the romantic suggestion follows that, having studied the horoscope of Verus, and learned from it that the young man would outlive him, the Emperor hoped to replace him by his favorite. The portrait of Hadrian is shadowy and ineffective. The many occupations with which he diverted his mind are so dwelt upon that he appears merely an elegant amateur, while his character as a ruler is given in a page of panegyric by his Egyptian prefect upon receiving news of his death. If it be said that, owing to the contradictions of Hadrian's disposition and conduct, abundantly recognized even by his contemporaries, this is as much as could be expected from Professor Ebers, it still remains true that as much could be expected from any one.

'A Question' is a love-story founded on one of Alma Tadema's variants of his picture "The Sphinx." "An Idyl" is its alternate title, and the professor plainly intended to make it a poetic and graceful fantaisie. To conceive and to execute such a design are, however, different things, as much of the lighter literature of the Fatherland illustrates, and here the sportiveness must be admitted a little deliberate. Around the young girl and youth of the picture are grouped the families of two Greek brothers, with their servants and slaves, a conjurer with trained hens for the comic element, and a priest of Aphrodite. There is little plot. The son of one brother loves the daughter of the other, and while the respective fathers are seeking other matches for them the young people meet at the fountain, the "question" is asked and answered, and the parents acquiesce.

It would be impossible to give within a limited space the skeleton of 'The Count's Secret,' and yet, on the other hand, this is all that one of Gaboriau's novels needs to have told about it. His method and manner are too well known to readers of French novels, and, through the translations, of which this is one, doubtless to readers of English only, to require any general reference, while to particularize in regard to this work would be difficult on account both of its unusual complications and of the (for Gaboriau) clumsy way in which these are managed. The book opens with a mystery, of course; this fairly laid before the reader in all its impenetrability, another is introduced, and, in turn and in like manner, a third appears. So far all is very fine, but when the task of combining these several mysteries, and of showing their interdependent relations, ensues, the great mistake of the book occurs. The thing to do here, and in doing which Gaboriau is usually so successful, is plainly to maintain, not to say to deepen, the impenetrability of the general plot. Instead of this, we have the whole matter disclosed at the point where the revelation is formally just about to begin. The last half of the book is therefore tedious, which is the same thing as saying that it is one of the worst of its author's stories. It is no particular drawback to it, considering the conditions of this kind of literature, that it contains no characters which unite point and probability, but there is a particularly absurd scene at the end which is a blemish, as it introduces the alien sentimentality of a grand tableau, in which the good are rewarded and the guilty punished in a way worthy of Dickens.

The author of 'Rosecroft' would succeed better in character-sketches than in the formal novel. The plot of the story is based on such harsh unkindness that we are glad to take refuge in its improbability; but the village oddities are worth knowing, and Mrs. Stowe herself has done nothing better than the old negress, unlettered Rachel, and her Bible reading.

'!!!,' if a novel, is most clumsily put together. It is a rambling discourse about metempsychosis, etc., winding up with a nineteenth-century version of the Euphorbus-Pythagoras test, all repeated in a single night by a man who describes himself as "simply the result of a wonderful concatenation of circumstances." We may leave him to the judgment of his sole auditor: "I think you are quite as interesting when you talk of the charms of Paris as when you are discoursing on the mysteries of transmigration."

'Helen Troy' is an advance upon 'Golden Rod.' The author has more material and handles it better. The scenes of the little drama are prettily set, whether in the New York drawing-room or on the hillside at Lenox. The heroine we all know—gay, too careless perhaps, but true at heart, and strong and steady when trial comes. Blanche de Préville is not so well done. She is the fascinating woman of European opportunity and experience, who is the complement in fiction on this side the water of the American girl on the other. Necessary as she is made to the plot she is too large a figure for the little sketch, and in such a frame nothing but genius could save her from being out of drawing.

From 'Helen Troy' to 'A Book of Love-Stories' is to leave to-day, with its craze for crockery and crewels, and its rattling pace, and to turn back—not so very far either—to a quieter time, when Mount Desert was not, and Newport hardly more than the Ocean House. The tales are well told, so simply and naturally that to read them is like listening to soft harmony after the shrill notes of a high-pitched voice.

'The Georgians' introduces us to a dull country neighborhood, sketched with faint local color, and a hero whom the heroine calls "that young, unusual, unworldly man." She herself is, again, the accomplished woman of the world, returning from abroad with a mysterious history, the supposed widow of a Russian count. The book would not be worth a comment, for it lapses into a sensationalism of a very questionable kind, were it not for a sort of *ex-officio* moral tacked on, which unluckily may justify it to some readers. The moral is as illogical as the catastrophe, given the author's premise of character. Only a conception of life which friends might call naïve, but others ignorant and crude, could have inspired such a story.

'Among the Hills' has all the sweet freshness and grace of an idyl, even though its *motif* is in a minor key. Its lesson is of the truest—that to the disappointed, the stricken, there may come a brightness, not indeed of the sunlight, but gentle and tender like the after-glow.

Mrs. Oliphant's 'Harry Joscelyn' will rank with the best of her work. There is no figure so new or so original as the incomparable "Jock"; but honest Harry's protest, as he makes his confession to the father of his love, "It never—it never happened to me before," is as good as the "But why must I be married at all?" of the 'Greatest Heiress in England.' It is the old story of the prodigal son, but worked out with such variants as to make it new. The riotous living is of the quietest, and in the somewhat lurid atmosphere of current novels a climax of prosperity and peace is a relief.

A new book by the author of the 'Wreck of the *Grosvenor*' needs only to be certified as a worthy successor. The colors are used with less reserve than in the first book, and the incidents verge sometimes on the melodramatic, but 'An Ocean Free-Lance' has all the vivid charm of the buoyant life of the sea.

'A Nihilist Princess' is another book made up from the recognized formula for a Russian story, according to Western ideas—wealth, a tyrant father, a cruel husband, a woman of supernatural beauty, a devoted serf, at least three desperate lovers, conspirators and secret chambers, flogging and murder *quant. suff.*, Siberia *ad lib.* The real suffering in Russia is far beyond a jest. Yet admitting that the incidents are true, as true as the *Police Gazette*, the whole picture here given is false because there are other things which are also true. There is the same superficial *vraisemblance* in the portrayal of character and manners as in the Henry Gréville stories, but, as with them, when compared with the work of a Russian the likeness vanishes. The work is all at second-hand. The writer had no materials beyond the commonest newspaper reports. The extracts from revolutionary documents are only such as have appeared again and again. The wife's story requires us to believe that the Russia of 1864 is the Russia of Ivan the Terrible. The inconsistencies in character and plot would refute themselves but for the general ignorance of Russian affairs. We cite one instance only. No Nihilist career ever began by the founding of schools and instructing the peasants, as the Princess Wanda's is represented to have done. The book ends with 1878, but the bomb by the Catherine's Canal added a commentary which we may hope the writer never anticipated. In the story it is the Czar who reprieves the Nihilist prisoners at Kieff, it is the Czar's full pardon which is sent for "the Nihilist Princess"; but before this translation was finished the Nihilists had proudly assumed the responsibility of his death. We commend to readers seeking trustworthy information about Russia Danieleffsky's 'Ninth Wave.' It is to be found in the cheap "Universal-Bibliothek" under the somewhat misleading title of 'Die Nonnenklöster in Russland.' Though not a work of the highest genius, it gives such a distinct idea of life in the small towns and in the country in the years soon after emancipation, as greatly to help in forming judgments about the present.

"Dunderviksborg" is one of a half-dozen tales which, with as many plays, have been gathered in the main from the less familiar languages of Europe. They make an interesting volume, and the compiler permits us to infer that she has obtained them in all cases from the original; but it is not unfair to her to warn the reader that the selection from the Russian is a very unworthy specimen from Pushkin, a hackneyed story long in use in all the Russo-German instruction books.

We have two German stories in Mrs. Wister's

well-known translations—'The Bailiff's Maid,' bright, fresh, frolicsome, and with that touch of *Gemüthlichkeit* which no whole-souled German ever lacks; and 'The Eichhofs,' a tale of fashionable high life, with the usual Russian in the villain's rôle; but the attempt to carry out a double, and even a treble, plot in very brief space leaves only an impression of scraps.

Life in a Vermont village fifty years ago might have been described in the 'Annals of Brookdale,' but two-thirds of the book are filled with the commonplace adventures of very commonplace travellers in Europe. One sentence fairly marks the quality of plot, characters, and style: "Mr. Rhodes, having in vain tried to make himself acceptable to Mary Ogden, laid siege to Miss Stearns, but she evidently preferred Tom, who was a great deal with her."

NEUROLOGICAL STUDIES IN AMERICA.

A New Form of Nervous Disease. Together with an Essay on Erythroxylon Coca. By W. S. Searle, A.M., M.D. New York: Fords, Howard & Hulbert. 1881. Pp. 138.

Lectures on Diseases of the Nervous System, especially in Women. By S. Weir Mitchell, M.D. Philadelphia: Henry C. Lea. 1881. Pp. 238.

American Nervousness. By Geo. M. Beard, A.M., M.D. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1881. Pp. 352.

NEARLY all that is known of the functions, as distinguished from the structure, of the nervous system, has been learned during the last fifty years. The true theory of electric stimulation suggested by Galvani was not established until Nobili's observations with the astatic needle. Since then Charles Bell and Magendie have laid the chief corner-stone for neurology as a science by demonstrating the difference between sensory and motor nerves, and Marshall Hall's studies of reflex action have invited exact research in this field. It was Longet, Flourens, Leuret, and Esquirol who gave the first great impulse to neural physiology in Germany, where Reymond, Hitzig, Fritsch, Goltz, Munk, and scores of pathologists and histologists have since made such important contributions to the sum of medical knowledge. Practical, as distinguished for the most part from what is known in Europe as scientific, neurology is finally becoming the fashion in England and this country. Most of the papers presented at the meeting of the British Medical Association last summer were more or less neurological. Most of the medical students from this country who are met with in European hospitals are making more or less a specialty of nervous diseases. New forms of nervous disease are being discovered, and an increasing number of familiar ones are diagnosticated as nervous in their origin. Interest in trance, which Dr. Beard calls "next to evolution the great scientific problem of the century," has revived in some places almost as in the days of Mesmer himself. Moreover, emboldened by the now generally conceded relationship between nerves and soul, the doctor not infrequently assumes the rôle of philosopher in true Hippocratic fashion, sometimes with good, but more often, so far as our observation extends, with somewhat curious results, which recall to mind a humorous remark of Professor Ludwig, that the time seemed not far distant when the average medical man would pay his devotions to the grey ganglionic cell as if it were indeed, like the monads of Leibnitz, *parvus in suo genere deus;* and which make it almost seem, at least to the uncritical, as if in fact all the secrets of the universe were bound up in those of the nervous system, as some one else has lately said.

These tendencies in this country are well illustrated by the volumes before us. After an introductory section, setting forth the profound modification of the cell-life of the individual by habit, and by those nearest to him, Dr. Searle gives a narrative of twenty-one cases, mostly from his own practice, and none of which were *known* to result fatally, in which mild shock, without loss of consciousness and probably with venous congestion, induced by various causes, was the chief symptom. These, he urges, cannot be epilepsy, save in the broad sense of Hughlings Jackson, and are located probably in the cerebellum and constitute a "new disease," which Charcot declares, in a note translated in the preface, that he has not met with. The cure of this new disease, as indicated by homœopathic "testing," and by the writer's practice, is chewing the leaves of Peruvian coca. We cannot recall, even in Sprengel's voluminous history of medicine, any panacea heralded as more universally salutary than Dr. Searle's coca, which we are assured is to be "the great preserver of life and health in future generations." "Had our army at Gettysburg been supplied with it Lee and his troops need never have been allowed to recross the Potomac."

Dr. Mitchell's book consists of thirteen clinical lectures, mainly on hysteria and allied disorders. The unconscious but none the less despotic selfishness, and the lack of self-control, which characterize all forms of this disease, and to which the precociousness and extreme self-consciousness induced by our methods of moral and religious education so often lead, make hysteria one of the most dreaded, difficult, and it would almost seem, in certain classes of society, the most common disease which the American practitioner is called upon to treat. Sympathy and kindness are the very food it lives on, and proper medical strictness and true insight into the nature of the disorder are generally resented. From his "enormous experience" with these diseases Dr. Mitchell concludes that the best treatment is seclusion under the care of a good nurse, rest, massage, electricity, and full feeding. He, too, believes that nervous diseases in this country tend to take on asthenic forms, and that those convulsive types of hysteria which have lately been made so famous in the cliniques of Charcot are less common here.

Dr. Beard's book is far more comprehensive and ambitious. He has a theory of the universe which he designates as the omnistic philosophy. He would reform our educational system. He has a tabulated scheme of the evolution of nervousness which begins with nervous dyspepsia and sick headache, deepens into hay-fever, inebriety, and epilepsy, and culminates in insanity. All forms of neural disorder here are assumed to be species of exhaustion, for which he coins the name *neurasthenia.* He is a psychologist, and explains the trance state, and the performances of the "jumpers," "jerkers," "holy rollers," and the mediæval "psychic pests," so well characterized by Haeser. He has demonstrated the longevity of brain-workers, and traces American oratory, humor, rapidity of speaking, word-clipping, and high pitch of voice to American nervousness. We submit that the natural inference of a nervous patient after reading all this would be that his disease was too deeply rooted in the constitution of the universe to be cured, least of all by one who had devoted so much attention, not to say ingenuity, to the study of causes beyond human control, and whose philosophical propensities might possibly incline him to theoretical methods of treatment to which severely scientific observers often apply severe names. Whether this is in fact the case, or whether any one ever drew such an inference, we have no knowledge or ground for inference outside this book.

However valuable works like the above may be, they also serve to emphasize the need, now more strongly felt by the best part of the medical profession in this country than ever before, of having a body of specialists, as in Continental Europe, released from the distractions of miscellaneous practice and trained as only a life-long study of special forms of disorder in large hospitals, and a thorough acquaintance with all the important literature in their line, can train men to be generally recognized authorities. Within the last few decades the medical profession there has been given a new life and raised to a higher plane by the universities. Such a work is greatly needed here; especially is this the case if the nervous system be the source of all physiological ills, and be at the same time so crazy and shattered generally as American nerves are now represented to be by a few specialists—unless, indeed, we are too far gone to be worth, or to be able to make, such a struggle to continue our existence.

Poems. By Oscar Wilde. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1881.

QUITE as interesting as most of Mr. Wilde's verses is the perplexity that they have caused candid critics. Mr. Wilde is reported the original of Du Maurier's *Postlethwaite*, and yet his poetry is very fair poetry, as that article is produced by many versifiers of the present day. The contrast thus afforded between the contemptibility of his rôle of "æsthete" and the respectability of his numbers, has proved bewildering, and, so far as we have noticed, it has been explained to be, like so many things about poets, inexplicable. We fancy, however, the poetry has acquired a factitious respect from this contrast which, unheralded in this way, it would hardly have obtained, and that, on the other hand, the literalness of *Punch's* caricatures has been equally overestimated. Whatever absolute fidelity these may possess, it remains true that they are caricatures, and the essence of caricature is humorous exaggeration, not to say distortion. Nevertheless, we are bound to say there are many characteristics disclosed in the volume before us which seem not wholly incompatible with the qualities ascribed to *Postlethwaite*. Traits may be ascribed to *Postlethwaite* by *Punch* which in their excess really belong more appropriately to *Postlethwaite's* admirers, the dignity of whose character and bearing, we are free to confess, is probably not distinguished. But it would be unreasonably narrow to say that the best of these poems are beyond the origination of a poet who wears long hair, sad garments, a melancholy expression, and a lily in his left hand. The distinctive trait of *Postlethwaite* and the interesting folk who emulate his sighs is, we take it, an ardent love of the love of the beautiful. And this is Mr. Wilde's most marked characteristic. He has an intense desire to delight in the things which poets delight in, and the poets are responsible for his singing as well as for himself. He declares, p. 228, that

"Keats had lifted up his hymeneal curls from out the poppy-seeded wine.
With ambrosial mouth had kissed my forehead, clasped the hand of noble love in mine";

and, in a subjective sense, it is undeniable that this must have been the case. But the procedure thus described has by no means been confined to Keats. The sonnet "On the Massacre of the Christians in Bulgaria" and that "To Milton" would clearly never have been written if the poet of the Piedmontese Sonnet and the sedate Wordsworth had not done the same thing, and the number of kisses imprinted upon Mr. Wilde's forehead by the ambrosial mouths of Messrs. Swinburne, Rossetti, Morris, and even the fastidious Mr. Tennyson, would make any one shake his hymeneal curls to contemplate.

The result of this has been to transform Mr. Wilde into a lyric parrot. The inevitable defects of the best and most melodious parrot qualities, however, are an absence of direct inspiration, of genuine significance, and, to a measurable extent, of consciousness. One is never sure that the parrot perceives the precise bearings of his utterances, and the preponderance of the purely oral in them is an undeniable drawback to the permanence of one's enjoyment with them. In the way of modulation, measure, and propriety, too, disagreeable errors are made by the parrot-poet, since these, above all others, are only to be avoided by simplicity and unaffectedness. Nevertheless, it would be obviously unfair to say that Mr. Wilde's volume could have been written by any one who should set himself to reproduce the impression of certain English poets. He has, in the first place, a musical gift of manifest excellence. His metrical tact, so far as it depends upon his ear, is unusual, in spite of being very frequently both slip-shod and unscrupulous; one remarks with some surprise the absence of madrigals from his book, and concludes that *Postlethwaite* should be depicted from time to time strumming a guitar. In the next place, for the distinguishing verbal and metrical marks of the more sensuous school of his masters proper he has manifestly an aptness, born, doubtless, of the sympathetic inclination which his admiration of them argues. And, thirdly, he has unquestionably much perceptiveness and appreciation. This, however, is a different thing from having a natural voice of one's own, however plaintive and insignificant, from having anything to communicate, or, finally, from having any emotion to express. In all these respects Mr. Wilde's muse seems to us essentially commonplace—precisely of that perfunctory order and texture demanded for affecting affectation, which is what *Postlethwaite* and his kind are really represented as doing. On the other hand, it should be distinctly mentioned that he lacks the intellectual immaturity, not to say puerility, of the more abject of the poets who follow the Swinburne-Rossetti gonfalon—Mr. George Barlow, for example, and others of the "utter" school. Occasionally, however, he approaches them rather too nearly. The following is from "La Bella Donna della Mia Mente" (Mr. Wilde's titles recall *Postlethwaite* more vividly than his verses):

"Her neck is like white melilote
Flushing for pleasure of the sun;
The throbbing of the linnet's throat
Is not so sweet to look upon.

"As a pomegranate, cut in twain
White-seeded, is her crimson mouth;
Her cheeks are as the fading stain
Where the peach reddens to the south.

"O twining hands! O delicate
White body made for love and pain!
O house of love! O desolate
Pale flower beaten by the rain!

These lines are a very fair illustration of Mr. Wilde's own verse; when he is better than this he is apt to be echoing that of stronger singers. They are not conspicuously devoid of merit; but to study, by a careful analysis, to measure the exact quantity of creditability and insignificance they and others like them contain, strikes us as a singularly unprofitable literary endeavor.

The Lyrical Drama. Essays on subjects, composers, and executants of Modern Opera. By H. Sutherland Edwards. Two volumes. London: W. H. Allen & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1881. Pp. 316, 312.

BESIDES a paper on "Tatra Füred and the Music of the Hungarian Gipsies," and another on the "By-ways of Bookmaking"—neither of which has any right in these volumes—there are here collected more than forty magazine essays and newspaper articles having to do more or less directly with the general subject of operatic music. They are, however, loosely thrown together, instead of having been worked over into the symmetrical whole which their matter deserved. There is scarcely a statement in the brief newspaper article on the "Romantic and Necromantic" which is not repeated afterward in more detail in the fuller articles on Don Juan and Faust, the Flying Dutchman and Robert the Devil. Illustrative anecdotes are repeated in like manner. We are told, for instance, three or four times that Balfe borrowed the pretty melody to which he set "Come into the Garden, Maud," from Verdi's opera of "Macbeth," and as often that Mr. Alfred Bunn translated his libretto of the "Bohemian Girl" from the French of M. de St.-Georges, who had taken his plot from his own ballet of the "Gitana," which in turn was based on Cervantes's tale of the "Gipsy of Madrid." Nor has Mr. Edwards taken the trouble to bring his articles "down to date": he tells us, for example (i. p. 67), that a young Spaniard presented himself at the National Library in Paris "only twenty-five years ago," declaring himself to be a lineal descendant of Don Juan; but on the next page he leads us to believe that this happened in 1850, or thirty-one years ago, for apparently Mr. Edwards's paper was written six years ago. Much in the same way, the chapter on the "Flying Dutchman" does not mention the poetic play of "Vanderdecken" written for Mr. Irving by Messrs. W. G. Wills and Percy Fitzgerald, and acted three years ago. Nor does the chapter on "Shaksperian Operas" refer to Goetz's "Taming of the Shrew," although that has recently been sung in English in London by the Carl Rosa company. It is the result of an oversight in the original article, and not of any failure to bring down to date, that nothing is said about the "Don Juan de Marana" which the elder Dumas brought forth as an attempt to revive the mystery. Thackeray, it may be remembered, made fun of it in his 'Paris Sketch-Book,' and Mr. Buckstone made an English adaptation for the Adelphi Theatre.

This brings us to the end of fault-finding, and the good qualities of the volumes far outbalance their deficiencies. In the first, Mr. Edwards gives us in a series of chapters a detailed discussion of the origin and growth of the Don Juan legend, and of its treatment by the Spanish and Italian dramatists, by Molière, Shadwell, Mozart, Alfred de Musset, and Pushkin. This and the four following chapters on the Faust legend are the most valuable part of the work, and they are as entertaining as they are instructive. Mr. Edwards has collected a great many facts, not a few of them but little known even to those who have given some attention to the history of the legends. It may be doubted, for instance, whether many people knew that a German dramatist, the late Christopher Grabbe, "produced a tragedy called 'Don Juan and Faust,' in which the two daring personages, each of whom provoked relations with the supernatural, figure jointly as heroes." Of this extraordinary play we have here a synopsis. Hardly inferior in interest is the account of the literary growth of the Flying Dutchman, as treated by Marryat, Fitzball, Heine, and Wagner. Other essays consider the chief operas of Meyerbeer, Verdi, Rossini, Donizetti, Bellini, Thomas, Flotow, and Bizet. There are cognate papers on the "Rise and Fall of the Tenor," on the "Extinction of the Ballet," on "Libretti," on the "Literary Maltreatment of Music," and the like. All of them abound in pertinent illustration and anecdote. Mr. Edwards's style is easy and attractive, as those who know his sketch of Rossini's life and his 'History of the Opera' will remember, and he has a wide knowledge of the *ana* of the lyrical drama. The utility of the volumes is greatly increased by an index.

Goethe-Jahrbuch. Herausgegeben von Ludwig Geiger. Zweiter Band. Frankfurt-am-Main. 1881.

THIS second volume is in the main an improvement upon the first, although it contains no one article so readable as Herman Grimm's sketch of Bettina von Arnim last year. Those of our readers who are familiar with George Brandes's 'Hauptströmungen in der Literatur des 19 Jahrhunderts' will be a trifle disappointed with his present article, entitled "Goethe and Denmark." It is an exceedingly clear, succinct account of the slow spread of Goethe's writings and ideas in Danish literary circles. No one but Brandes could have written on the subject with a like knowledge of facts. But we miss the warmth of tone and the suggestiveness that made his 'Hauptströmungen' so captivating. His fiery aggressiveness seems to have died away into cold, dry contempt for Danish obscurantism. Moreover, the article, however valuable for the study of Danish culture, adds but little to our understanding of Goethe. Julian Schmidt's view of Goethe's attitude towards Christianity will probably meet with little dissent, for the reason that it offers nothing novel. Summed up in a few words, Schmidt's argument is that Goethe was a free-thinker, but not a denier of the unseen and spiritual; that he asserted his personal freedom of action outside of all creeds, but readily admitted the *lasting* power of Christian motives and principles. In proof, consider the tone of *Versöhnung* throughout 'Iphigenie' and in many passages of 'Faust.' This is true enough. But every sympathetic reader of Goethe will have felt this long ago. As for the unsympathetic, need we remind them that they will never understand Goethe's temperament by dint of reading dissertations upon him?

Suphan's study of the original versions of some of Goethe's poems, although necessarily technical in its details, is at once valuable and interesting. It is the continuation of a similar paper published five years ago. Suphan, known to our readers as the able editor of Herder's works, has discovered among Herder's papers copies made by him (some by his wife, Caroline Flachsland) of about fifty

poems loaned to them in manuscript by Goethe, in 1781, some few as early as 1772. These early copies enable us to correct the later printed texts, as well as to fix the time of composition. Heinrich Düntzer is cruel enough to spoil the charming story told by Goethe of the beginning of his friendship with Schiller. The story was first published as an appendix to the second edition of the 'Metamorphosis of Plants,' 1817, and is now usually inserted in the 'Annalen,' under date of 1794. Düntzer shows that Goethe, writing in 1817, and trusting to his memory, transferred events from the year 1790 to 1794, and gave to his famous conversation with Schiller upon the "ideal plant" a conclusion quite the opposite of the real one. We have no space for further notice of the contents of this second volume; they are as diversified in nature as in value. The most useful part of the book, aside from original documents now first published, is the copious bibliography at the end. Yet even this is susceptible of improvement. By a curious misprint in the table of contents, p. iv., forty-one letters *by* Goethe are referred to as *Briefe* AN *Goethe*.

Punctuation, and other Typographical Matters, for the use of Printers, Authors, Teachers, and Scholars. By Marshall T. Bigelow, Corrector at the University Press. Boston: Lee & Shepard.

MR. BIGELOW'S training and long experience qualify him to speak with authority on the subject of which he treats. He is, however, far from dogmatic, and wisely recognizes the latitude which must ever be allowed the punctuator, not only in consideration of individual temperaments and styles, but also because of the interchangeableness of the points themselves—*e. g.*, the comma, the dash, and the parenthesis in marking parenthetical clauses. We have found ourselves in almost entire agreement with his rules. We should, in the case of the colon, have noticed its nice and peculiar function of denoting equivalence, whether or not the extreme logical use of this point by the Germans is to be commended. The intermediate members of a compound question we should sometimes separate with the semicolon as well as with the interrogation point. The use of the diæresis in distinguishing a sounded from a mute final *e*, as in Brontë, is overlooked on page 87; nor is any allusion made to the use of ē and ō to represent the corresponding long vowels in Greek. Apropos of the Greek epsilon and omicron, there is, in the valuable chapter on "Accents, Divisions, etc., in the Classical and Modern Languages," the following curious foot-note (p. 89):

"Notwithstanding the circumflex accent can never be used on these short vowels, English typefounders send out with all their Greek fonts a great quantity of these useless accents; and in a printer's manual recently printed in Philadelphia, notwithstanding the use of the accents purports to be explained, in the Greek case which is given boxes are shown for various combinations of these letters."

Mr. Bigelow indulges in some wholesome censure of the dictionaries for their shortcomings in regard to compound words and syllabication—shortcomings which he repairs or shows how to repair. Under orthography he gives a number of useful lists, such as that of all verbs spelt with *ize* in this country, the plurals of nouns in *o*, and words variously spelt, with an indication of his own preference. In short, one can have only praise for this little manual, which in respect of typographical accuracy is worthy of its theme and of the University Press, though, as a parting criticism, we will say that we think the judicious use of italics in the examples would have much facilitated the application of the rules; and whether or not the rules should not follow the examples, we believe open to question.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Brockett, Dr. L. P. Our Western Empire. Philadelphia: Bradley, Garretson & Co.
Bruce, Rev. A. B. The Chief End of Revelation. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Champlin, J. D., Jr. Young Folks' Astronomy. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Colvin, S. Landor. New York: Harper & Bros. 75 cents.
Daily Bread: a Birthday Text-book. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 50 cents.
Drew, Catharine. The Lutaniste of St. Jacobi's: a Tale. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Farrar, Rev. F. W. Mercy and Judgment. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1 50.
Henshall, Dr. J. A. Book of the Black Bass. Cincinnati: Robt. Clarke & Co. $3.
Hervey, A. B. Sea Mosses: a Collector's Guide. Boston: S. E. Cassino. $2.
Holbrook, J. F. Worship in Song. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. $1 50.
Hunt, T. S. Mineral Resources of the Hocking Valley. S. E. Cassino. 75 cents.
Johnson, Virginia W. The Neptune Vase. New York: Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Lippincott's Magazine. Vol. 27. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $2.
New Testament—American Version. New York: Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.
Odenheimer, Rev. W. H. Sermons. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1 75.
Once a Year; or, The Doctor's Puzzle. Cincinnati: Robt. Clarke & Co. $1.
Otis, Prof. C. P. Elementary German. New York: Henry Holt & Co 90 cents.
Fatty's Perversities. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1.
Peninsular Campaign of General McClellan. Vol. I. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $3.
Revised Odd-Fellowship Illustrated. Chicago: Ezra A. Cook. $1.
Rolfe, W. J. Shakspere's Comedy of Errors, Tragedy of Cymbeline. 60 cents.
Tissot, V., and Amero, C. The Exiles: a Russian Story. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.
Trollope, A. Ayala's Angel: a Tale. New York: Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Two Lady Tramps Abroad. Flushing.
Virginia Belle. New York: W. B. Smith & Co. 25 cents.
Wagner, Dr. C. Mouth-Breathing. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Walker, Dr. J. The First Baby. New York: Brown & Derby. $1.
Where the Old and New Versions Differ. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 75 cents.

The Young Folks' Astronomy.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 11, 1881.

The Week.

THE condition of the President continued unchanged till towards the end of last week, when the usual afternoon rise of temperature began to come on earlier in the day than it had previously done, and the feverish symptoms became more aggravated. This was found to be due to the partial closing of the wound in the process of healing, and the consequent retention of pus in its deeper parts. It was therefore decided by the physicians to make a new incision. The operation was performed on Sunday morning, the President being kept under the influence of ether. Since the operation his condition has much improved. He continues to sleep well without the aid of opiates, which is an encouraging sign, and the feverish symptoms have greatly moderated.

Among the things requiring the President's attention on his recovery is the determination of the Bangor collectorship. Though a successor to the present incumbent was appointed, the withholding of his commission was one of Mr. Garfield's last acts before the attempt on his life, and now it is reported that Collector Smith has gone on to Washington, armed with petitions for his retention from nearly all the business men of the port, and two-thirds of the Republican voters. That an officer about to be displaced in the middle of his term should be prompt and vigilant in bringing "influence" to bear to save himself, is natural; but the lying-in-wait, as it were, at the bedside of an invalid President is a repulsive spectacle, quite worthy of the barbarous spoils system which is the cause of it. We observe that the Boston *Journal* is very solicitous to divert the feeling roused by Collector Smith's removal from Secretary Blaine to Senator Hale. It virtually asserts that Mr. Blaine did not advise the proceeding and does not now favor it, and this we are very glad to hear. But then, it leaves the President in the dilemma of yielding to Senatorial prerogative, or of repeating the arbitrary act which cost Collector Merritt his place without warning, without necessity, and before his term had expired. The fact that he reconsidered the matter may be variously interpreted.

There is no doubt that the most significant phase of public feeling over the assault on the President has been manifested at the South. For spontaneity and warmth there has been nothing like it on this side of Mason and Dixon's line; and while the Southern press generally has been in full sympathy with it, in one instance within our knowledge indelicate rather than hostile editorial expressions were summarily rebuked by a visitation *en masse* from the townspeople, who extorted a retraction. Whether the colored population have had their share in these creditable exhibitions of sensibility and loyalty, we are not informed. There is no reason why they should separate themselves from the whites in such matters, and they are perhaps not yet accustomed to take the initiative in meetings having a constructive political aspect. Still, in South Carolina the Charleston *Courier* has found fault with their apathy, and on Monday, under the lead of their pastors, they came together in that city and resented the imputation and passed appropriate resolutions.

The Virginia Democrats held their convention at Richmond on Thursday, and adopted a platform which represents the strongest position the party feels it safe to assume on the debt question. They say that they "condemn repudiation"; that they "will make every effort to secure a settlement of the public debt" of the State, "with the consent of her creditors, which is consistent with her honor and dictated by justice and sound public policy"; that the several classes of the debt ought to be "unified" in order that "equality, which is equity, may control in the annual payment of the interest, and the ultimate reduction of the principal." They promise that they will use all lawful and constitutional means to secure "a settlement upon the basis of a three per cent. bond," and at the same time that they will not "increase the present rates of taxation." Besides this, they are in favor of "equality of rights and exact justice to all men"; they are opposed to "special privileges," and they favor "freedom of religion," "freedom of the press," "freedom of the person," "trial by juries impartially selected," "elections by the people free from force or fraud," and, above all, "the election for public offices of those who are honest and best fitted to fill them." On this platform Major John W. Daniel, of Lynchburg, has been nominated for Governor. It is alleged of him that he was at one time tinctured with the greenback heresy.

The pledge not to increase the present rate of taxation will probably be regarded by the creditors of the State as an intimation that they must take a three per cent. bond or nothing, and it is no small misfortune for the Democrats in their present position that they should feel obliged to begin their campaign with such a declaration. It gives the platform a hollow look, which even the manly words of Colonel Bocock, who reminded the Convention on taking the chair that "righteousness exalteth a nation, but sin is a reproach to any people," does not wholly remove. The idea that a three per cent. consolidated loan could be floated by the State of Virginia in the open market at par is, of course, preposterous. The United States has not yet been able to do this. Practically what the Democrats say is, that they will give the present creditors of the State a three per cent. bond instead of their present obligations, or they will give them an indefinite quantity which may turn out to be nothing at all. In other words, they will once more guaranty their principal if the creditors will submit to a reduction of interest. This is simply an ingenious mode of taking advantage of the repudiation sentiment in the State to beat the creditors down, and is not paying the debt, however good "politics" it may be.

Few political occurrences of recent years have been on the whole so singular as the prohibition canvass in North Carolina which ended in Thursday's election. That a Southern State, and one largely interested in the cultivation of the vine and manufacture of spirituous liquors, and above all governed by a Democratic legislative majority, should submit to the people a temperance law of such stringency, was surprising, to begin with. But that when this had been accomplished, and the leading Democrats had either been constrained to support the measure, or, like Governor Vance, to observe neutrality; when the clergy had taken up the cause of prohibition, and manifestly the best elements of society were outspoken on the same side, the result at the polls should be an overwhelming defeat of the measure, is at first sight incomprehensible. The adverse majority amounted to upwards of 40,000, and in scarcely more than one county did the friends of prohibition prevail. Seldom has a legislature either so mistaken or so misrepresented public sentiment, and such was the temporary obliteration of party lines that few were prepared for so decisive a vote on one side or the other.

The truth is, of course, that the Democratic vote could not be counted upon, while the negro vote was sure of being protected to the utmost extent, and was, in fact, fully polled without "intimidation" of any kind. The blacks voted almost solidly against prohibition, in utter disregard of their religious advisers, but in perfect loyalty to the Republican programme. The disagreeable feature of the canvass has been the active part taken by the Federal office-holders in defeating the temperance movement, not, we may be certain, from any objections to the proposed law as crude and impracticable, but from the desire to revive the Republican party by making capital out of a measure essentially Democratic. In other words, the occasion was seized to renew the old alliance between ignorance and poverty and political unscrupulousness, contrary to the best interests of the whole population of North Carolina, for the result is, that a blow has been dealt not only against prohibition but against temperance. The canvass, however, has not been without its bright side. It has emphasized the era of good feeling which has for some time existed in North Carolina, and has brought both races into close and harmonious contact at every

stage. Prohibitory Democrats were glad to secure the services of Republican colored men of weight and respectability to speak beside them on their platforms, and were probably led to think more highly than before of the capacity of these allies. Party lines were only nominally drawn, and were undoubtedly weakened, as the next local political crisis will show. Finally, the minds of the people were forcibly concentrated on their own affairs, and something was gained in political education by the meanest and humblest citizen, and something in toleration by the highest and most prosperous.

In Wall Street the money market was extremely easy at the lowest rates current for a long time, notwithstanding the fact that the New York banks lost nearly one-half their surplus reserve, only $5,735,225 being left. Foreign exchange, although close to the gold-importing point, did not permit of gold imports, mainly because the "bull speculation" in breadstuffs and provisions has interfered with the export of these commodities, which in turn cut off the supply of commercial bills. The Italian Government has begun drawing gold from London in preparation for the resumption of specie payments, and the probable early movement hither of gold from Europe, therefore, attracts this year more than ordinary attention. The best opinion is that our imports will be less than last year or the year before, but will still be considerable. Speculation at the Stock Exchange continues to be moved by the varying changes in trunk-line railroad affairs and in the physical condition of President Garfield. A conference of the managers of these railroads has been called at Saratoga for the present week; at times it has been asserted that the chances for a settlement of differences and a restoration of rates were good, and at others bad or doubtful. The latter have preponderated, and the result has been a decline in prices of stocks during the week. The second surgical operation on President Garfield helped to depress the stock market on one day.

That the volume of mercantile transactions all over the country is large is shown by the expanding figures of the Clearing-house exchanges. The returns of railroad traffic also point in the same direction. For July the forty-odd railroads which publish their receipts show a gain of 16 per cent. over July, 1880; as rates are lower than then the increase in tonnage must be larger. The crop information has not materially changed previous estimates respecting wheat in this country, and the extremely hot weather of the last week, unfavorable to the corn crop, has pushed up the price of corn. The foreign harvests are reported to have fallen below previous reports in France and England, but to have exceeded expectations in Russia, where, according to cable reports, the yield of wheat will be larger than for twenty years past. The price of silver bullion has advanced during the week; the closing price in London was 51½*d.* against 51⅛*d.* per ounce a week ago. The 412½-grain silver dollar had a bullion value at the close of the week of about 86⅝ cents.

The Senate Judiciary Committee, which is considering the question of a new bankruptcy law, has received from Mr. D. C. Robbins, the chairman of the Chamber of Commerce Committee, some important suggestions. They are that officers should, as far as possible, be compensated by fixed salaries instead of fees, that the powers of the registers should be increased, that the amount of indebtedness required to authorize voluntary proceedings should be at least $1,000; that composition settlements should not be allowed to take the discharge of the bankrupt out of the control of the court, without the consent of a majority of the creditors in number and three-fourths in value; and that the discretionary power of the court relating to the granting of discharges should be greatly enlarged. At the next session of Congress the attempt will be renewed to secure an efficient and fair bankrupt law, and the present business condition of the country is such that it ought to be possible to pass a measure of this kind. Hitherto bankrupt laws have been passed by Congress in times of commercial depression, under pressure from debtors whose main object has been to wipe out their obligations and start afresh. When this has been accomplished the law has always turned out to be very objectionable, for one reason and another, and has been repealed. In the present prosperous condition of trade, however, when there is no distinct pressure from either debtors or creditors, the main interest in the subject comes from the desire of the mercantile classes to have a permanent and uniform system which the insolvency laws of the various States can never supply, and the only objection to such a system must come from people who have a sinister interest in keeping up the confusion and uncertainty which these laws produce.

It is said to be contemplated in Boston to hold an indignation meeting at Faneuil Hall this week, "to protest against the alleged action of the State Department in regard to Leo Hartmann, the Russian Nihilist." It is not stated what the "alleged action" was, and the only alleged action that we know anything of is not that of the State Department with regard to Hartmann, but of Hartmann himself, and consists in his having suddenly run off to Canada, thus relieving the State Department of the opportunity of taking any kind of action at all. We trust that the subject will be approached calmly in Boston, because, important as the questions brought before it by the presence of Hartmann in the United States would be, the proper position for the Faneuil Hall meeting to take with regard to Hartmann when he is in Canada is an abstract matter, about which there is room for thought and discussion. If it be true that the "alleged action" of the State Department is believed in Boston to have consisted in a statement by the Assistant Secretary that if the Russian Government demanded the surrender of Hartmann he would be immediately given up, the attention of the meeting will no doubt be directed to the fact that it is now denied that anybody connected with the State Department ever made any such allegation. As the identity of the alleged Hartmann is also in dispute, the whole subject is now in a position which would seem likely to give any discussion of it rather an "academic" than a practical value. However, Secretary Blaine's letter to the counsel of Hartmann in this city, declining to give any intimation what the Government would do if Russia should demand his client's surrender, has appeared since the call, or talk of a call, and if the protestants are in earnest they will make the most of it.

According to the St. Louis newspapers, the manufacture of infernal machines is going on actively in that city, and a "well-known Irish revolutionist" there "claims" that the machines recently seized in Liverpool were made in St. Louis. He says that he knew all about it from the first, and admits that it is "rather brutal to destroy a hecatomb of people in order to reach one man," but insists that "actual experiment is the best way to convince these people that the bomb idea won't work in England." The reporter was referred by this thoughtful agitator for further information to Mr. Denis O'Hara, whom he found to be of that "clear-cut and transparent type of Irishmen who seem to join an almost feminine delicacy of feature with an iron understanding"—a type which, we suspect, is not common in any part of the world. Mr. O'Hara, on learning the errand of the reporter, readily gave him all the information he desired. He said that it need cause his visitor no surprise that he was ready to talk freely, because by the time the interview was published he should be "away," and, besides that, he was a member of no oath-bound order. "If a man betrays us we kill him; that is all there is to it." Mr. O'Hara says that since June 20 he has himself sent over to England eighty-six infernal machines, of which number at least fifty, he thinks, have got safely into the island. The intention of the conspirators is to "cripple the English navy," but crippling is a word which does not quite accurately describe his intentions, for "three years from to-day there will not be an English man-of-war on the ocean." It is hardly necessary to add, "We are desperate and determined men."

One of the results of the investigations of the New Jersey Constitutional Commission now in session will probably be to sweep out of existence the "lay" judiciary of that State. The theory of "lay judges," which has made its appearance at various parts of the country at different times in its history, is that by associating a judge trained in the law with a judge who knows no law you get something as a result which is better than law—something simpler, and purer, and less technical, and less harsh than law, which may perhaps be supposed to resemble abstract justice. As a mat-

ter of fact, it has invariably turned out, wherever "lay" judges have been employed, except in justices' courts in the country, where in most cases no technical knowledge is required, that the judicial product of the mixture of law with ignorance of law has not been justice, but confusion and uncertainty. In New Jersey, where Bench and Bar have preserved most of their ancient traditions intact, it will be rather a surprise to most persons to know that the existing judicial system of the State provides for "lay judges" at all.

Dr. Howard Crosby, the President of the Society for the Prevention of Crime, delivered an address on Sunday, in which he gave a depressing account of his unsuccessful attempt to suppress the illegal liquor-traffic in this city. A State law, passed in 1857, forbids the sale of liquor to be drunk on the premises by any but recognized "hotels," and the Society went to work several years ago to enforce this law. A test case was decided by the Court of Appeals in favor of the Society in 1877, and the Society then got the Police Commissioners, for the first time, to enforce the statute, with the result that "for nine days and nights in December, 1877, there was not a rum-hole open." Now, however, the Mayor interfered, and caused the indictment of the Police Commissioners (Dr. Crosby speaks of his action as if it was intended for the benefit of the "rumsellers"), and within twenty-four hours "all the rum-holes were in full blast again." The next year the efforts of the Society were directed to preventing the passage at Albany of a "free rum law," and in this it was successful. The law of 1857 was allowed to stand, but the Excise Commissioners went to work and nullified it by deliberately making every "rum-hole" in New York a "hotel." Then the Society had the Commissioners indicted. It took exactly a year to bring them to trial, and the trial was a farce. At length a "rumseller" was convicted under the law, but he was immediately pardoned by Governor Robinson. Then Mayor Cooper was induced to turn the Commissioners out. The present Commissioners, Dr. Crosby says, are reasonable men, but they will not enforce the law because they say the community will not support them. He seems to overlook the fact that there is a good deal in this objection. In such a city as New York the restriction of the sale of liquor to hotels proper is an impossibility, and in any good license law this ought to be borne in mind. Dr. Crosby's experience with the law of 1857 proves that it cannot be enforced, except spasmodically, and if we are to be shut up to the alternative between "free rum" and this antiquated statute we shall always have "free rum."

The London *Times* of July 23 contains a remonstrance on the subject of Penn's bones written by Mr. George J. Harrison, commissioner for Pennsylvania. It is not, of course, necessary to import the bones into Pennsylvania if all that is wanted is a memorial of Penn, because a monument is an effective reminder even without bones. Mr. Harrison, however, thinks otherwise. He insists that if the bones are allowed to remain in England the feeling about Penn in Pennsylvania will die out. "Neither painting, nor statue, nor memorial building will serve the purpose so well as a tomb which holds the ashes of the people's benefactor." It might be inferred from this that the commissioners intended, if they got possession of the bones, to subject them to the process of cremation before consigning them to their permanent resting-place. But the context shows that the word is used metaphorically, and is really intended as a synonym for "bones." But how is it, if "bones" are required to keep alive a strong sentiment of this kind, that the present excitement on the subject has arisen? Can the mere hope of securing possession of a distinguished man's bones arouse a feeling which reverence for his memory and gratitude for his services will not make perpetual? Mr. Harrison refers to the case of Napoleon's bones, and insists that nothing will "arouse the adherents of his dynasty to perpetuate it like the tomb in which his relics rest in the Hôtel des Invalides in Paris," but this is an unfortunate illustration just now, for it would seem from recent events that the bones of Napoleon are beginning to lose their power among the adherents of the dynasty. In fact, the party could hardly be in a worse condition if the bones were in St. Helena.

Under the lead of Lord Salisbury, but apparently with some reluctance, the House of Lords has loaded down the Irish Land Bill with amendments which radically alter the character of the measure. One of these strikes out the words authorizing the land court to "have reference to the interest of tenant and landlord respectively"—a change which seems intended to prevent the recognition of the property of the tenant in his holding. The bill has gone back to the House of Commons. The obstruction offered by the House of Lords appears to be mainly due to the obstinacy of Lord Salisbury, who seems to be blinder than the majority who follow him to the dangerous position into which they are getting themselves.

The electoral contest now going on in France is in the main a contest between two different shades of Republicanism, of which President Grévy and Gambetta are the respective exponents. The former represents faithful adherence to the constitution as it is, the latter insists on radical reform, for which, as his mouthpiece Spuller emphatically tells us, "the country yearns," demanding the consolidation of the Republic on the basis of "the broadest, freest, and most enlightened democracy." There is, however, no open hostility between them; but the late defeat of his favorite measure, the *scrutin de liste*, has forced Gambetta to seek "vindication" in the electoral canvass. At Tours, a few days ago, while announcing his programme, he warmly eulogized the President, and declared himself—contrary to some former expressions—in favor of the existence of two Chambers, though desirous to see both animated by one spirit. He would introduce into the mode of nominating senators the principle of proportionate equality of communes, would urge the abrogation of the irremovability of the senators elected for life, and their submitting to re-election by a congress of the two houses. He advocated a complete system of secular primary education, the introduction of measures tending to make entrance into public service independent of private means, and the enactment of a law giving workmen complete liberty of association; and—imitating and surpassing Bismarck in courting the support of the laboring classes—proposed a system of Government life insurance, accident insurance, and insurance of crops. All this is certainly radical enough, but slightly vague, and, perhaps, is partly meant only as a bid. The Cabinet at first seemed inclined to observe neutrality in the struggle, and leave the advocacy of moderation to independent leaders, but M. Ferry, the Premier, has now taken the stump in person. The Bonapartists, Legitimists, and Clericals are also in the field.

The electoral contest for the German Reichstag waxes hotter from week to week. Prince Bismarck's organs, such as the *Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung*, the *Provinzial-Correspondenz*, and the *Grenzboten*, carry on an aggressive warfare against the Liberals, with violent attacks on their leaders, both past and present. The source of the inspiration of these journals renders retaliation in kind a very delicate if not an impossible task. The Opposition tactics are, therefore, defensive and comparatively free from personalities. Bismarck's numerous tentative moves in various directions are, however, sharply criticised, and his coquetting with Protectionists, Ultramontanes, Socialists, Anti-Semites, etc., boldly commented upon, less as being manœuvres dangerous in themselves than as indicating a determined resolution to continue a dictatorship based neither on a great principle nor on a great party, upheld by a more skilful than honest shuffling of the political cards, and derogatory to the intelligence and manhood of the nation. The supporters of the Prince Chancellor by local coalitions of a very questionable character—as in Berlin against the Progressists—offer frequent opportunities to such opposition journals as the *Kölnische Zeitung* or the Augsburg *Allgemeine* for ridiculing the so-called Conservative camps, in which former *Culturkämpfer* shake hands with Ultramontanists and Anti-Semites, and former Free-Traders bargain with Socialists for mutual support at the polls. Yet, judging from the result of the late elections for the Bavarian and Saxon Diets, and other indications, the "immoral" coalitions in favor of the Prince's rule—with its indirect taxes, laborers' life and accident insurance, protection and free-port annexation—are likely to be triumphant at many an election for the Reichstag, and the prospects of the Liberals are, on the whole, to say the least, not bright. That no party will have a majority of votes is sure, and the balance of power will probably remain with the Centre, or Ultramontane, party.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

FOR several days previous to Monday the daily increase of the President's fever had been unusual, and there was a doubt as to whether the cause was the formation of a new pus cavity or merely the obstruction of the flow, owing to the too rapid healing of the entrance of the wound. Monday morning, accordingly, another operation was determined upon and the latter was found to be the case. After the President had been etherized Dr. Agnew enlarged the old opening about three inches downward and forward, and made another incision into the track of the ball below the margin of the twelfth rib. For the present at least, therefore, the discharge will continue free. Naturally, the President experienced considerable exhaustion and suffered a good deal from nausea; the pulse and temperature also increased noticeably, but as soon as the effects of both the ether and the operation have passed off Dr. Agnew anticipates decided improvement.

The report of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue to the Secretary of the Treasury gives the receipts of the office for the year ended June 30 as $135,229,902 12, and the expenses as $5,063,330. During the past five years, the term of Commissioner Raum's administration, $602,310,787 22 have been collected, the expense of collection being $21,992,330, or 3.37 per cent. upon the amount collected. During the past year the largest receipts from any State have been those from Illinois—nearly twenty-six millions; Ohio comes next with nineteen, and then New York with seventeen; the next is Kentucky with nearly nine millions.

The Conservative-Democratic party of Virginia, as the Funder-Democrats of that State formally call themselves, held their Convention at Richmond last Thursday. It was composed of six hundred delegates, and its action was thoroughly "harmonious" and enthusiastic. The resolutions adopted declare, among other things, that "the maintenance of the public credit of Virginia is the essential means to the promotion of her prosperity," condemn "repudiation in every shape and form as a blot upon her honor," pledge the party "to use all lawful authority to secure a settlement of the State debt so that there shall be but one class of public debt," recommend as the basis of such settlement a 3 per cent. bond, pledge the party further "not to increase the present rate of taxation," and, finally, denounce as "unfounded in fact" and "dishonorable to its authors" any intimation that the party "has been, is now, or proposes to be opposed to an honest ballot and a fair count." After the adoption of this platform the Convention expressed the "tender sympathy" of its members with President Garfield and proceeded to ballot for a candidate for Governor. The principal candidates were General Fitzhugh Lee, James A. Walker, and James Goode. On the second ballot, however, John W. Daniel, of Lynchburg (a Mahone stronghold), was nominated and made a speech, accepting the honor and approving the resolutions "from beginning to end." Mr. Daniel is thirty-nine years old and served on the Confederate side during the war, being at one time assistant adjutant-general under General Early. He has been a Greenbacker and is accused of having at one time favored "readjustment." The remainder of the ticket is: for Lieutenant-Governor, James Barbour, and for Attorney-General, Philip W. McKinney.

The North Carolina election passed off very quietly on the 4th. The vote was so light that it has been difficult by comparing the returns with those of former years when intimidation has been charged—none has been heard of this year—to extract much significance from the result, so far as bull-dozing is concerned. The interest of the election resided wholly in the fact that the main issue was prohibition, which, in a particularly radical form, was advocated by the Democracy. The negroes voted with the Republicans in opposition to the proposed measure, but as the majority against it is over 40,000, many Democrats must have voted similarly, at which no especial astonishment is expressed.

The Kentucky election on the second inst. was for a State treasurer, nineteen senators and one hundred representatives, and a judge of the Court of Appeals from the Third District, comprising twenty-one counties of the State. There was a light vote and no disturbance of importance. The result was, of course, an overwhelming Democratic success as usual, though the Republicans made a slight gain in their legislative representation. The call for a constitutional convention is defeated by the smallness of the vote, all votes not polled being counted against it. Mr. Beck's return to the United States Senate is assured.

The Mississippi Democratic State Convention met at Jackson on the 3d and spent the day in organizing, there being many contesting delegations. Thursday was passed in taking twenty ballots for Governor. Late on Friday the nomination of Mr. Lowry was secured by the withdrawal of other candidates, amongst them Col. Barksdale, who now asserts that he retired with the promise of substantial support for the United States Senatorship, which, together with the defeat of Gov. Stone, Mr. Lamar's candidate, is supposed to presage Lamar's retirement from the Senate. The politics of the State are, however, in a very confused condition, and predictions are difficult to make. General Chalmers, who is hostile to Lamar, is said to have an eye upon the Senatorial succession and to expect the assistance of the Greenbackers. The latter hold their convention on the 24th inst., and the Republicans meet on the 25th. A joint ticket and consequent "live campaign for Lowry" are already spoken of.

The Maine Democrats of the Second Congressional District, contrary to the advice of ex-Governor Garcelon either to endorse the Greenback candidate or to adjourn without making any nomination, nominated Franklin Reed, of Bath, by acclamation, on Thursday last, at Lewiston.

Delegates from nineteen out of eighty-eight counties organized the Ohio State Prohibition Convention at Columbus on the 4th inst. They endorsed the ticket nominated by the recent Temperance Convention at Loveland, and supplied a vacancy in it; adopted resolutions declaring in favor of "absolute prohibition of the liquor-traffic," of woman suffrage, of laws against "gambling in gold, stocks, or produce," and various other measures, and pronounced Guiteau's attempt "a startling illustration of the danger arising from the debasing influences of executive patronage and the liquor crime."

A Commission appointed some time ago by the Governor and Legislature of New Jersey to consider and recommend amendments to the State Constitution, met at Newark on Friday and listened to arguments as to proposed changes in the State judiciary. At its next meeting it will consider the subject of railway taxation.

Hartmann, the Russian Nihilist refugee, betook himself to Canada last week, abandoning his project of enlisting the sympathies of Americans in the cause of his order or faction, in view of some uncomfortable statements made to a reporter by Assistant Secretary of State Hitt. These were to the effect that if the Russian Government should ask for Hartmann's extradition on the charge of murder, and he could be unmistakably identified, he would be surrendered. Some doubt had been expressed as to his identity, but as, at all events, assumption of this was his only "card" here, he concluded to seek protection under the British flag, where he had found it before. Hartmann devised the machinery by which a train of people were blown up near Moscow, the late Czar's movements at the time having been miscalculated.

The amount of offal which the harbor of New York is constantly receiving appears at last to have attracted sharks of a man-eating size and in considerable numbers. There have been bathers frightened during the past two or three years, and at least one instance of the serious mangling of a boy, but the exaggerated rumors provoked by such occurrences have not hitherto been very widely credited, perhaps. This year, however, the presence of sharks in the bay and along the piers of both rivers seems to have been frequent, and last week several were caught off Pier 23 on the North River and exhibited. One weighed four hundred pounds and was ten and a half feet long, and another only a trifle smaller. This pier has heretofore been one of the most popular places for surreptitious bathing, but, like the rest of both river fronts, has, since the shark excitement, caused the police very little vigilance.

Owing to an injunction restraining Trustee Chaffee from using the funds of the company for running expenses, all the works belonging to the Sprague estate have been closed. They include the Baltic, Quidnick, and Arctic mills in Providence, those at Natick and Kennebec, Me., the Morgan Mill at Johnson, the United States Flax Company's works, and the Cranston Print works. Over six thousand men, besides a large number of women and children, are thus suddenly thrown out of employment.

The Joint Executive Committee of the trunk railway lines, which have been "cutting under" the regular tariff rates for both passengers and freight for some time, held a meeting on Friday in this city, and agreed on a new freight tariff to take the place of the old which will at least effect a temporary change. The rumor that a conference of the presidents of the various lines will be held at Saratoga this week is vigorously denied by Mr. Vanderbilt.

William G. Fargo, President of the American Express Company, died at his residence in Buffalo on the 3d inst., in his sixty-fourth year, and after a life of great business activity and success. The deaths of James Clark, the senior member of the spool-cotton manufacturing firm at Paisley, Scotland, and of Bishop E. O. Haven of the Methodist Church, and of a literary and theological reputation, at Salem, Oregon, also occurred last week.

Orvil L. Grant, the brother of ex-President Grant, who has been a year in the New Jersey State Asylum for the Insane at Morris Plains, died there Friday, in his forty-seventh year.

General Robert Patterson died in Philadelphia on Sunday. He was of Irish birth and served this country, whither he early came, in the War of 1812, the Mexican War, and the Rebellion.

FOREIGN.

The Duke of Argyll, who left the Cabinet on account of differences on the Land Bill, attacked the measure in the House of Lords on the 2d inst. in vigorous terms, comparing the Government to a jelly-fish, and describing its procedure as "eminently ridiculous." He was followed by the Duke of Marlborough, Lord Selborne, Lord Cairns, and others on the same side, and the *Times* admitted that the Liberals were no match for their opponents either in oratory or in mastery of the subject. Over

fifty amendments, twenty of which are described as serious, were determined upon at a meeting of the Tories, and in the main received a steady majority during the consideration of the bill. In reference to clause seven, Lord Salisbury moved on Friday that "in any proceedings under the act the rent of a holding should not be reduced on account of any sum paid by a tenant or his predecessors, on coming into the holding." Despite protests from many of his own party, the Tory leader insisted on this and carried it by a vote of 157 to 110. The bill was finally passed through committee on the same day, and on Monday night the House read the bill for a third time without a division.

The Liberal press expresses marked indignation at the freedom of amendment exercised by the Lords. The *Pall Mall Gazette* speaks of the measure as "maimed and impaired." According to the *Daily News*, "The bill is both transformed and deformed," and the writer continues: "The House of Commons must decide whether a veto on legislation, which the Crown no longer possesses, is to be exercised by Lord Salisbury and the mute herd which follows his lead in the House of Lords." Mr. Bright, in a speech at the Mansion House, Saturday night, "ignored the amendments of the House of Lords, and spoke of the bill as almost ready to receive the royal assent." A conference on Thursday between the Liberal leaders in the Upper House with Mr. Gladstone, to decide what amendments should be accepted, apparently resulted in nothing practical, but it is not deemed likely that any changes that touch the principle of the bill will be adopted.

At the weekly meeting of the Land League on the 2d inst. it was announced that the usual remittance from America had not arrived, and that accordingly there were but £319 to be acknowledged. Arrests during the week have been few, those of Messrs. Murphy and Campion, of Queen's, being the most important. Sunday, John Dillon, M.P., was released from Kilmainham jail by order of the Lord-Lieutenant, and his exit has given rise to rumors that all the "suspects" are soon to be released also. The release of Davitt, indeed, it is reported, will take place on September 1, with the understanding that he shall not return to Ireland for seven years. Mr. Forster, however, replying to various questions in the House of Commons on Monday, said that Dillon had been released simply because the Government had learned that further confinement would endanger his life.

McGrath and McKevitt, who pleaded guilty to the indictment charging them with attempting to blow up the Liverpool Town-Hall, were found guilty and sentenced, the former for life, and the latter for fifteen years at hard labor, on the 2d inst.

A very large meeting was held in Trafalgar Square on the 2d inst. to protest against Mr. Bradlaugh's exclusion from his seat in the House of Commons, to which no one denies that he has been elected. Mr. Bradlaugh made a great speech, announcing at the close that he would "go home" the next day. The next day, however, in deference to a previous engagement, he attempted to force his way into the House of Commons, and much fright was caused lest his "supporters" should gain access to the lobby and enable him to accomplish his design. Orders were accordingly issued to prevent the admission to the lobby of any but members of Parliament. Just before noon Mr. Bradlaugh appeared, approaching through the members' entrance. He "looked pale, and evidently suffered from suppressed excitement"; indeed, "it was frequently remarked that he looked like an animated corpse." At the door, however, stood a number of policemen "picked for great bodily strength," besides two deputy sergeants-at-arms, and when Mr. Bradlaugh attempted to push one of the latter aside he was seized and dragged forcibly to the entrance. He resisted, and "a painful scene" ensued, in which the agitator's coat was torn, and at the end of which he was hustled unceremoniously, and in spite of vigorous struggling, down the staircase and into the arms of his "supporters." A number of members who were present at the finale cried "Shame! shame!" and an incipient riot threatened.

When the news got into the House Mr. Labouchere at once raised the question of privilege that the resolution in regard to Mr. Bradlaugh only excluded him from the House, whereas he had been hustled out of the lobby, and moved that the officials had exceeded their authority. The Speaker decided against him and Mr. Gladstone supported the Speaker, adding that Mr. Bradlaugh must thenceforth be treated as having no more right to enter the House than a stranger. Sir Wilfrid Lawson moved that the resolutions against Mr. Bradlaugh's admission be rescinded, but was ruled out of order. Finally, after sympathetic and indignant speeches by Mr. Broadhurst and Mr. Cowen (advanced Liberal and Radical, respectively), Mr. Bright described how "Mr. Bradlaugh was brought down to the Palace yard in a fainting condition," and appealed to the Opposition to reconsider their former decision in the matter, but was called to order for irrelevancy, and a motion to approve the whole conduct of the dealings with Mr. Bradlaugh was adopted by a vote of 191 to 7. Mr. Bradlaugh went to Bow Street and attempted to procure the arrest of the officers who handled him so roughly, but without success. In the House on Monday Mr. Gladstone announced that the resolutions preventing him from taking the oath would expire with the present session, that at the next he might present himself, and that meanwhile the Government would "consider the matter."

M. Gambetta made an important speech at a banquet at Tours on Friday, in response to a toast to President Grévy. He regretted that the rejection by the Senate of the *scrutin de liste* had cut off "the opportunity of consulting the democratic party in a broader and deeper manner than at present," but declared that, in spite of what had occurred, he was still in favor of the existence of two Chambers. He desired, however, to see both Houses animated by the same spirit, and deemed it necessary to introduce into the mode of nominating Senators the principle of proportional equality of communes. With him, moreover, it was a question whether the irremovability of Senators was not contrary to the principles of universal suffrage, and he observed that whereas the first irremovable Senators were elected by the National Assembly, they are now chosen by the Senate itself. They should, he considered, submit to a re-election by a congress of both Houses. In this way the Republican majority would obtain the "ballast and stability" it at present lacked, and a restriction of the constitutional revision to this might find a majority in the Senate willing to pass it. Among other reforms which M. Gambetta advocated were a complete system of primary secular education, and a law giving workingmen complete liberty of association. The main point of the speech was, however, the desirability of the fusion into a compact Ministerial majority of the different Parliamentary groups—an end which, of course, the *scrutin de liste* was designed to accomplish.

The press reception of the oration is not very flattering, though it appears to have been very popular. *La France* and the *National* are unfavorable, and consider the "programme" foreshadowed vague and dangerous. *Le Temps* eulogizes the speech, but does not deem the reconstitution of the Senate at all urgent. The *Journal des Débats* condemns the proposal, and points out that two months ago Gambetta did so himself. The *Paix*, the *Parlement*, and the *Dix-Neuvième Siècle* express similar opinions. There is at present but very little excitement with reference to the approaching election, and, so far as reported, no important Republican attempt to oppose M. Gambetta's programme, "vague" as it is, is likely to be made except upon the part of M. Jules Ferry, the Premier, who is announced as contemplating an active and conservative campaign.

M. Rouher has published a letter to the Electors of the Department of Puy-de-Dôme, which he represented in the last Chamber of Deputies, announcing his retirement from public life. After his long service he considers that he has "the right of not proceeding further," and he regards his permanent withdrawal from politics as "an act of dignity and homage towards those who are no more"—*i.e.*, the late Prince Imperial.

Two battalions of French troops and a battery of artillery have arrived at Goletta, which is called the first entry of the French military into the capital of Tunis. England and Italy, it is announced, have determined to send two more iron-clads to the Tunisian coast to protect their respective subjects. General Lougeret declares that he has discovered the plunder of the European quarters at Sfax to have been the work of Arabs before the landing of the French troops. Bou-Amena is reported to be "disheartened," and the inhabitants of Susa have applied for French protection.

Mr. Levi P. Morton the new, and Mr. Noyes the retiring, United States Minister to France, had an audience of President Grévy on the 5th inst. In presenting his credentials Mr. Morton remarked that, though America is on friendly relations with all nations, "towards France she cherishes a warmer and deeper feeling," and spoke of "the great work of securing popular freedom under the control of law" as the sentiment which "binds the two leading republics of the world." In reply M. Grévy observed that if the relations of the two countries could possibly be further strengthened the choice of Mr. Morton as Minister would secure that end, and added kind wishes for the prosperity of the country and the recovery of President Garfield. Similar courtesies were exchanged with Mr. Noyes.

In spite of much opposition to the bestowal of such honors upon a "comedian," M. Got, of the Théâtre Français, was made a Knight of the Legion of Honor, last week, to the great delight of his friends, to whom it is a "triumph for art."

It is now reported that the recent journey of the Russian Court to Moscow was due to the discovery of an extensive conspiracy to assassinate the imperial family. Sixty persons, some of them of high rank, are said to have been concerned in the plot. The trial of the "Black Division" will be begun on the 28th prox. before a special court. A reward has been offered for the capture of persons guilty of spreading among the peasants false reports regarding the redistribution of lands.

The Emperors of Germany and of Austria held a short conference, otherwise than socially of no importance so far as appears, at Gastein on the 5th inst., after which the latter went to Munich.

Ayub Khan, it is reported, entered Kandahar on the 30th ult.

The announcement of the census of Canada taken last April has just been made. The population is reckoned at 4,350,933, an increase of 18.02 per cent. in ten years; in 1871 it was 3,686,505. The increase is not satisfactory to the Canadians, and, moreover, the showing is reported to be as good as it is partly because of the inclusion of permanent absentees—emigrants from the Province of Quebec to New England factory-towns, for example.

NEW YORK CITY AND HER RIVALS.

We have been requested, apropos of the present "railroad war," to give some attention to the special interests of New York as affected by the pooling arrangements of the trunk-line roads, which allow the cities of Philadelphia and Baltimore differential rates to offset the natural or acquired advantages of this city as a centre of the export and import trade. The facts are substantially these: Under the pooling arrangement, third and fourth-class goods may be taken from Western points to Baltimore at three cents per one hundred pounds less than to New York, and to Philadelphia at two cents less; on first and second-class goods to Baltimore at eight cents less, and to Philadelphia at six cents less. Rates to Boston are the same as to New York, although the distance to the former city is fifty miles greater than to the latter. Various reasons are given for allowing these advantages to Philadelphia and Baltimore. Distance is somewhat in favor of those places, and cheapness of coal is somewhat in favor of the Baltimore and Ohio and the Pennsylvania railways. These facts would seem to be better calculated to serve as arguments for New York railways—*i.e.*, to justify them in getting all the business possible under such adverse circumstances—than to warrant the establishment of arbitrary rates in favor of Baltimore and Philadelphia. The New York Central managers, however, have always contended that, by reason of their low grades, their large local business, their New England traffic, and the marked supremacy of New York as an entrepôt of foreign trade, they could carry at as low a rate from Western points to this city as any competing line could carry to Baltimore or Philadelphia; and in this matter we have no doubt they spoke the truth.

Why, then, are differential rates allowed to rival cities? The reason is that the natural and acquired advantages of New York as a shipping point are so decided that upon equal rates of freight she would take nearly all the business, and leave Baltimore and Philadelphia and their tributary railways an insignificant share of the export trade. But the Pennsylvania and the Baltimore and Ohio railways are bound to get what they consider their share of the through-traffic from the West, and rather than surrender it they will carry freight for the bare cost of operating expenses, or even for less. In their view this is a matter of life and death, and they might as well die carrying for nothing as die for nothing to carry. Hence the New York roads must either allow them a rate sufficient to offset, or partly offset, the natural advantages of New York, or enter upon a war of rates leading to a serious diminution if not a total drying up of profits. In other words, there are four or five trunk-lines from the Atlantic seaboard to the Mississippi Valley, and they must all be supported or none can be. The unrestrained law of competition would result in bankruptcy to the carrying companies, but, as George Stephenson sagely observed nearly half a century ago, where combination is possible competition is impossible, or at best only occasional and fitful.

Now, it is not easy to say what should be done under these circumstances. The Chamber of Commerce Committee allege that the pooling arrangement is consented to by the New York roads in order to "sustain rates high enough to pay returns upon their enormous mass of watered stock." This is probably true, but if the New York roads had no watered stock—if they had no stock at all—the principle would still hold good, that if one or two roads consider it to be a life-and-death matter that they shall handle a certain proportion of the through-traffic from the West, the New York roads must either allow them to do so or must carry for nothing, and tax their local business to make up the difference. It is presumed that they tax their local business already "as much as the trade will bear." At all events this is alleged against them, and it is not desirable that such traffic should be subjected to heavier burdens. So long as the Erie Canal could carry at cheaper rates than any railway, New York had an immense advantage over other Atlantic cities, and one of which she availed herself to the utmost; and her metropolitan position is due to it. But now that railways can carry on equal terms with the canal, her superiority is liable to be contested by any city which can push a road to the Mississippi Valley, and this regardless of the capitalization of New York railways. Perhaps the abolition of tolls on the canal, when effected, will restore to the city the advantage it so long enjoyed. The experiment is well worth trying, especially since new regions adjacent to Lake Superior are destined to cut a large figure in the grain trade, whose traffic can be more advantageously handled by water *via* the Sault-Ste.-Marie Canal than by the long haul around the southern bend of Lake Michigan.

THE BRADLAUGH AGITATION.

Mr. Bradlaugh's Parliamentary proceedings, which culminated last week in his attempt to get into the House of Commons by main force, constitute what in French politics is known as an "incident." It has no direct connection with any of the questions upon which parties ordinarily divide, it need never have occurred at all, yet having occurred it creates great excitement and commotion, and forces politicians to take sides upon a question which they have no real desire even to discuss.

The history of the case is a curious one. When Mr. Bradlaugh was elected to the House of Commons he refused to take the customary oath on the ground that he did not believe in the existence of a God. Many people found it hard to understand why an atheist should object to recite what must be to him a mere meaningless form of words; but Mr. Bradlaugh's conscientious scruples appeared to arise from a feeling that to take an oath under such circumstances would be what Carlyle would have termed "unveracious" conduct, and truckling to the "mother of dead dogs." If this were a true representation of the condition of Mr. Bradlaugh's mind, it would only serve to show that he is an extremely conscientious man, highly sensitive with regard to the obligation of truth, and therefore a member whose scruples Parliament could not afford to slight. In this country the statutes of almost every State provide for the case of persons having conscientious scruples on the subject of oaths by providing that they shall take an affirmation instead, and although with us these nice consciences are more often developed among persons anxious to escape from jury duty than among statesmen with lofty political aims, still the principle is the same.

If the matter had ended here there would not have been much to say about it, except that it was a defect in the law of England or of the House of Commons that such a case should be unprovided for. But Mr. Bradlaugh changed his mind about the oath, and expressed a willingness to take it. The House of Commons, however, now said that he could by no means be allowed to do so, because he had already shown that oaths placed him under no religious obligation. In other words, the House, which originally would have been perfectly ready to admit Mr. Bradlaugh, an avowed disbeliever in the existence of a God, to his seat, provided he would take the oath, now objected to his taking the oath because his refusal to take it on a former occasion had proved that he did not believe in the existence of a God. Up to this point it would be a nice question which had displayed the greater delicacy of conscience, the House or Mr. Bradlaugh, but the only result which the trouble had produced was the exclusion of Mr. Bradlaugh, and his sudden conversion from an unpopular agitator into a martyr. The dispute, however, left Mr. Bradlaugh in a much better position than the House, for his exclusion after his expression of willingness to take the oath cannot be justified.

Not content with his exclusion, to make sure that nothing should be left undone, one of the most zealous members of the House went to work and had Mr. Bradlaugh prosecuted for illegal voting while in the House, under an old statute certainly never intended by its framers to be applied to such a case, and an enormous fine was imposed upon him, which he has no means of paying. Having considerable ingenuity, however, it occurred to him that if he was guilty of crime in voting in the House of Commons before being duly sworn in, his prosecutor was probably guilty of another old-fashioned crime in supplying money to institute proceedings to have him punished, and he therefore at once began proceedings against him for "maintenance." Finally he makes an attempt to enter the House by force. His attempt being pretty well advertised in advance, he draws together an immense crowd, who loudly cheer him on, the police throw themselves upon him in a body, and, after a fight in which Mr. Bradlaugh is said to have "contended for every inch of the ground," he is at length driven off the field, announcing, however, to the crowd that he will return to the

House "with sufficient force to either effect his entrance or compel the Government to arrest him." Petitions from all quarters have been pouring in in his behalf, and the Government have given out their intention to furnish him relief at the next session.

The case is a curious illustration of the fact that agitators who can manage to identify themselves in any way with popular rights can afford to take many more serious risks than their opponents can. Mr. Bradlaugh occupies logically an utterly indefensible position, and his attempt to make his way to his seat *vi et armis* is an act such as no legislative body in the world could permit and long continue to exist. But an injustice is done him and his constituents by excluding him from the House; most people feel that in these times the exclusion is impolitic and unfair, even if technically proper. The result is that the impression is rapidly gaining ground that Mr. Bradlaugh is a victim of tyranny and oppression, and that "the people" must stand by him.

The case recalls that of Wilkes, but the wide difference between the two men, between the grounds of the dispute about their right to sit in the House, and between the House of Commons as it was in Wilkes's time and as it is now, makes the questions presented by the Bradlaugh incident practically new. Wilkes, but for his unfair treatment by the House, would have had as little sympathy as Bradlaugh originally had; but this was owing to his private life, while in Bradlaugh's case his first notoriety, and his original widespread unpopularity, grew out of his publicly-expressed opinions. Wilkes's legal position with regard to the House was perfectly consistent, sound, and intelligible throughout, while Bradlaugh had at the outset, when he refused to take the oath, really no legal position at all. On the other hand, the House of Commons, in Wilkes's day a close corporation which the Government managed by the open use of money, has, in our time, become a strictly representative body, which is forced to regard the rights and feelings of constituencies in a way it never had done before. It is this fact which furnishes Mr. Bradlaugh and agitators like him with their political capital.

"FAIR TRADE" IN GREAT BRITAIN.

In considering the so-called Fair-Trade movement in England the first question to be asked is whether it represents any body of opinion in the United Kingdom sufficiently strong, compact, and organized (or capable of being organized), to be called a "Movement," or whether it is only the repetition of mutterings that have been heard from time to time ever since the repeal of the Corn Laws. A considerable portion of the landlord class have never been reconciled to free trade, even in the years most prosperous to the agricultural interest. When Sir Robert Peel abandoned protection they abandoned him and ranged themselves under other leaders, among whom Mr. Disraeli eventually became the chief. Disraeli, perceiving that the Corn Laws were as dead in England as the *corvée* in France, persuaded the land-owners that, although their principles were undoubtedly right, the times were not propitious for reasserting them. We believe that he never publicly recanted the dogmas of protection, although he put his foot upon every movement in the conservative ranks to rehabilitate them, either in or out of Parliament. Consequently, the protectionist policy, which has at no time been destitute of adherents, has had no leader since the death of Lord George Bentinck.

The competition of American agriculture during the past four or five years, coupled with harvests below the average in yield and quality, has produced almost a social revolution in Great Britain. Rents have fallen, or are destined to fall, thirty-three per cent. on the average, and this means in many cases, where estates are encumbered by settlements and by mortgage, the total extinguishment of the landlord's income. His portion being the surplus over a fixed money payment due to others, the whole loss from reduced rentals falls upon him; but it has happened in some instances that the reduction has been so great as to carry away all of his receipts and a portion of the entailment also. A great deal of suffering and soreness has resulted from the enforced lowering of rents. The old-school protectionists, whom Disraeli kept in subjection while he lived, are now reinforced and embittered by hard times and the prospect of continued hard times. It happens at this crisis of the agricultural interest that the commercial treaty with France has expired by limitation, that trade negotiations are pending with Spain, and that Germany has adopted a protective policy. Now, if ever, is the time for putting a duty on foreign grain for the benefit of English land-owners.

But it is too late a day in British annals to talk of re-enacting the Corn Laws for their own sake. Lord George Bentinck himself, if alive, would not expose himself to the sarcasm which such a scheme would bring upon its supporters. Protection must take some other shape unless it is to be laughed out of court. The enemies of free trade must find some disguise. Not even reciprocity will answer for a new shibboleth—the hollowness of that phrase having been long ago exposed and its advocates silenced. "Fair Trade" is the latest euphemism adopted for protection. As expounded by Mr. Bonamy Price, who does not avow himself one of its supporters, it assumes that it is within the competency of statesmanship to put some pressure upon countries which enforce protective tariffs against British goods by adopting discriminating duties against their goods. It would be worth considering, for instance, whether a tax laid upon American breadstuffs and provisions equivalent to the American tax on British iron would not help the Yankees to see the folly of protection, and thus promote the cause of "fair trade" between the two countries.

We venture the opinion that it would have that tendency, but that it would cost more than it would come to, and that it will not be carried into effect. A week's travel in the north of England and the south of Scotland will satisfy any observer that Great Britain has so far outgrown her land and her land-owners that no legislation having their special interests in view is worth a moment's attention if contrived at the expense of her furnaces, her looms, and her ships. Her manufactures and commerce dominate the markets and waters of the world—at no time more unmistakably than now. Her superiority is based upon cheapness of production—the art of offering more to foreign countries in return for their goods than rivals can afford to give. When she ceases to be master of this art she will cease to be Great Britain. Cheap food is an essential and indispensable factor in her problem. Fair trade may be a desirable thing, but the most unfair trade for her would be any system which makes bread and meat more costly. A plan to add five shillings per ton to the cost of coal by act of Parliament would not be more untenable, and would not be more hotly rejected if seriously proposed.

The inconsequential character of the Fair-Trade movement is disclosed by a late article in the *Quarterly Review*, which sets forth the grounds upon which its advocates rest their case. After arguing at great length that British trade is declining and that of foreign countries increasing—a postulate not supported but distinctly contradicted by statistics—the reviewer shows that sufficient revenue might be derived from a duty on corn to enable the Ministry to reduce or repeal the income-tax. This suggestion that the bread of the poor be taxed in order to spare the superfluities of the rich has met with all the ridicule it deserves, and there being no other gain hinted at in the article, except the hypothetical one that the Americans might learn something to their advantage if their grain were encumbered with a protective duty, it is evident that the cause of "Fair Trade" is not likely to make many converts. Free trade has never rested upon more solid foundations in Great Britain than at the present time. The supporters of protection under its new disguise are not as numerous or as influential, relatively, as the Greenback party in the United States.

SOCIETY NEWS.

When the London "society journals" first began the business of furnishing the public with reports of the gossip and scandal floating about London drawing-rooms and clubs, their appearance created a good deal of astonishment on both sides of the Atlantic. English newspapers had, time out of mind, carefully avoided this branch of enterprise, and it had become an established tradition about English society that what it especially loved was exclusiveness, and what it especially detested was any invasion of its privacy. In this country particularly, where until very recently the ideas commonly prevalent about English society were drawn mainly from the descriptions of novelists whose social atmosphere really belonged to the past, there seemed to be something monstrous and totally un-English in the establishment of organs for the dissemination of this sort of news. Nevertheless the

new press has had a remarkable success. No attempts have been made to suppress it. Hardly any of the people whose names it makes such free use of have called the machinery of the law into play against it, while it has, of course, from the nature of the news it publishes, attracted an amount of attention altogether disproportionate to its intrinsic importance.

It is probably the success of such papers as these in England that has led to the appearance of what is termed the "society column" in our newspapers, though the "society column" does not play in our social economy precisely the same part that the society journal does in England. For somewhat the same reasons that it has never been possible to establish an American *Punch*, the long-continued existence or success here of such a paper as *Truth* would be out of the question. It is not deficiency of humor in the one case any more than it is an absence of the love of scandal and gossip in the other, and that this is so is proved by the fact that if we have no *Punch* we have *Puck*, and "funny men" and columns devoted to wit and humor by the score, and that if we have no successful society journal we have column after column of "society news." The main difference between the two is that "society journals" are much given to scandal, while "society news" is mainly a public record of what are supposed to be interesting private social events.

One of the first questions which suggest themselves to any enquiring mind with regard to the news about "society" which he finds in his daily paper is, whether "society" probably likes that he should be furnished with it or not. The popular theory in "society" is that it does not, and that it is the wicked newspapers which are to blame for the glare of publicity thrown around the balls and dinners and parties, the lawn-tennis and polo, and the births, the marriages, the funerals, and even the engagements, of the people who carry on society in London, New York, Saratoga, and Newport. It is the prying reporter who, instead of minding his own business, has been making free with the secrets of family life, and breaking down the barriers which shield it from the public gaze. This theory, however, is altogether too like the theory that the scandals in which statesmen become from time to time involved, owing to their unfortunate propensity to peculation or other forms of immorality, are due to the morbid passion of the press for criticism of public men. If society were not beginning to like to have the newspapers give full accounts of the doings of its members, if there were any general feeling in the community that privacy is something to be respected for its own sake, and that any invasion of it is a serious blow at the bonds which hold society together, "society news" would never have become an important branch of journalism.

The interest of this new journalistic development lies, to our mind, not so much in any light it may throw upon the condition of journalism as in the light it throws upon the condition of society itself. That a great change has come over the whole tone of society within a generation, few people will deny; precisely what the change is, is harder to define. Perhaps the main difference is that it has ceased to be managed by persons of ascertained and assured position, who possess a common body of inherited social tradition, and is now carried on by a vast and fluctuating horde who obtain admission to it by birth, by money, by success of any kind, or often by mere audacity. At the same time, it has tended to have less and less connection with the serious work of the world—in England, through the gradual growth of a rich idle class amply provided with rank and money, without even the desire to affect intellectual tastes, and with no occupation but frivolous amusement; in this country, owing to the universal absorption of the great majority of the community in "business." It is easy enough to see why a love of privacy and a delicate reserve were necessary characteristics of society as it used to exist. Without these it could not preserve its corporate identity, or keep alive its traditions, or enforce its laws. But as its identity has been effaced, its traditions lost, and its laws changed or swept away by the great modern democratic wave, the reasons for privacy and reserve have disappeared. As long as it was a close corporation there was every reason why its proceedings should not be published to the world. It had the same sensitiveness on the subject that the House of Commons had in the last century on the subject of the publication of its debates. But now it would be just as absurd for it to have such a feeling as for the Corn or Cotton Exchange to resent the publication of reports of its transactions. It has, in fact, not merely lost its old love of reserve, but it has come to take a positive delight in publicity and notoriety. The very vapidity and emptiness of so much of its proceedings is one cause of its liking to see them published, because it gives them an importance which they would not otherwise possess.

When Mr. and Mrs. Orlando Jones of Newport make up their minds to add a room or two to their house, the approaching event probably seems to the whole family an ordinary enough matter; but when they find all the "great dailies" announcing to the world that "Mr. Orlando Jones is contemplating the addition of a wing to his charming cottage on Bellevue Avenue; the dimensions will be," etc., etc., it is not in human nature that Mr. Jones and Mrs. Jones and all the little Joneses should not feel that they are more important people than they were before; because, as we all know, Mr. Jones, excellent man as he is, made his money by "consolidation," and is never likely to be talked about by the newspapers for either his wit or his learning. For his emergence from his original obscurity he has to thank the inventors of "society news." In the same way when a couple of dozen boys and girls have a dance, and it is announced in all the papers the next morning that Mr. Orlando Jones, jr., "led the German" with Miss "Tottie" Smith, does any one imagine that the hearts of this eminent boy and girl are filled with rage at the publicity given to their evening's entertainment? On the contrary, they like it, and are greedy to get the paper and read about themselves in it. It is to them like applause to an actor. And when toward the end of the summer, intoxicated with the charms of her society, the youthful Jones asks the charming Miss "Tottie" to marry him, do they dislike seeing the imposing announcement in several newspapers having the largest circulation in the world that a "marriage has been arranged" between them? If they do they give very few and uncertain signs of it.

Moreover, the very large class of persons who are not actually in but who are engaged in "getting in" to society find their account in these publications, as they never could have done in former times, because it furnishes them with much valuable information which they can use in a variety of ways. That they may themselves use the columns devoted to "Society News" for the purpose of giving accounts of their own doings, and thus accelerate their social advancement, is an idea which the occasional use of the "interviewer" by accomplished statesmen for a similar purpose will suggest to many cynical minds.

MME. DE RÉMUSAT'S LETTERS.

PARIS, July 22, 1881.

THE 'Letters' of Madame de Rémusat* have not met with the same success as her 'Memoirs,' for the obvious reason that the 'Memoirs' are full of the great Napoleon, while the 'Letters' are full of Monsieur de Rémusat. The 'Memoirs' were written for the public; the 'Letters' are artless, full of details which have lost their interest. When we spoke of the 'Memoirs,' we said that in 1802 Monsieur de Rémusat became *préfet du palais* and Madame de Rémusat *dame du palais*. Rémusat was afterwards chamberlain and superintendent of the imperial theatres, a post which he occupied till 1814. Madame de Rémusat followed the Empress Josephine in her retirement after the famous divorce. Her first letters, now published, date from 1804, when Napoleon visited the provinces of the Rhine in company with the Empress. During the year 1805 the Emperor was crowned King of Italy and crossed the Alps with his whole court.

When these letters begin, the Duc d'Enghien had already been executed, and you probably remember the emotions which this event aroused in the heart of Madame de Rémusat, who was a royalist by birth. The scenes at Malmaison are described in the 'Memoirs' in a way which can hardly be forgotten. But Madame de Rémusat was young and elastic; she was attached to Josephine, and she evidently got over her instinctive feelings—we see no trace of them, at least, in the letters written soon afterwards. Madame de Rémusat had a real affection for her husband. She writes to him often in the style of a lover: "My friend, I have a presentiment that after this stormy and agitated era the remainder of our years will be easy, and that our lives will be peaceful and happy. A pretty house in the country, where we would educate our children well; a good and amiable friend there, whom one would not often leave, and *cara libertà*—what a delight! Let us work for this dear future." The court-life was partly the "work" she alludes to. The daughter of the Vergennes felt that she was earning her daily bread in a court of upstarts and parvenus. She has a peculiar way of speaking of the people of the new court, who had old names. Talleyrand is her demi-god, her protector, her great man—more, almost, than Napoleon. She constantly recommends people of the old régime for places or favors. "Do try," she writes to her husband, "to get appointments for the little De Grasse and D'Houdetot." Charles de Rémusat, who became Minister under Louis Philippe and the Republic of 1871, was then a small child. "Charles has had a funny idea: he wished to make a little drawing representing the Emperor shaving, and each of the sovereigns of Europe bringing him a part of his toilet."

When the Empire began to imitate the pomp of the oldest courts the position of the Rémusats, which had been very important under the Directory, became a little subordinate:

* *Lettres de Madame de Rémusat*, 1804-1814. Publiées par son petit-fils Paul de Rémusat. Avec un portrait. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern. 2 vols. 8vo. 1881.

"My friend," writes Madame de Rémusat on this subject, "I have always in my mind a reflection which hinders me from feeling deeply the little annoyances which vanity can cause us at the court. In fact, what have we done for the Revolution? What pledges have we given it, to use the fashionable expression? What claims have we to the distinction of the new authorities which it has created? We have suffered and moaned—a fact which interests nobody; and after this terrible break-up your situation must be envied."

This was the language of good sense, and Madame de Rémusat was quite right when she constantly urged her husband to take some administrative function, besides his functions at court. There was an old royalist in this young lady of Napoleon's court:

"You know," she writes, "my foible for Louis XIV.? The 'Memoirs' of Marmontel inspired me with a desire to read those of Saint-Simon. They amuse me, though he is very severe on the defects of his master, and very passionate in all his opinions. Notwithstanding all the evils which terminated that reign, the greatness of the century will always be imposing, and it will give such fine *relief* to the French name that we shall always be proud to bear it. I think of the century which is opening now, and of the great events which preceded it. However violent may have been the blows of the Revolution, whatever wounds it may have opened and painful traces it may have left, I believe—though I should not dare to say so to anybody but yourself—that our time, when it shall be seen from its true point of view, will also seem imposing to posterity, and that it will enhance still more the glory of the French name."

This is the "cri de l'âme," the true instinct of a soul hanging, as it were, between two periods, two ideals—attached to the past, and confident of the future. Such a profession of faith is all the more interesting as it has no motive. It is not made for the forum; it is a wife's confidence to her husband.

Madame de Rémusat was often alone, as the chamberlain had to remain near the Emperor. She occupied herself with the education of her son Charles, an amiable and intelligent child, who afterwards became a most distinguished man. She learned a little Latin and Greek, as many French mothers do, in order the better to teach her son. She was very intellectual, and read a great deal:

"This morning the curé of Sannois [Sannois is a little village near Montmorency, where she often lived] tells us that M. de Bonald has just published a book which proves absolutely the existence of an innate language, and which destroys the system of the Abbé Condillac. We at once unite against him; we begin a controversy; we plunge into the most profound metaphysics. We all exclaim together, in order to prove that people can think without speaking. Madame d'Houdetot tries in vain to be heard; the two Chérons, husband and wife, scream, this time in unison. The breakfast is forgotten. The curé feels that he shall be overpowered, but, like a clever man, he keeps his best weapon for the moment when he sees himself forced, and he crushes us all by saying that the Church will have people believe as he says. Then we are all silent; we only murmur between our teeth, and the curé, master of the battle-field, walks right and left, proud of having imposed silence on the bold logic of the niece of the Abbé Morellet [Mme. Chéron]."

Is not this a pretty picture?

During the great wars of the Emperor Napoleon France remained profoundly silent. The press was not free, and the public had no news except through the official "bulletins." Madame de Rémusat paints well this extraordinary state of things:

"You can imagine the effect produced by the victories and by the entry into Vienna. There was a feeling of extreme disquietude. Many false rumors, as usual, were spreading. At last we heard the fortunate gun [the victories were always announced by the guns of the Invalides], and we learned of these incredible victories. There was joy even in the streets, with a sentiment of French vanity which struck me, because it is unfortunately not common among the Parisians. . . . Each one now arranges Europe after his own fashion; we restore or destroy empires; we make peace or prolong the war. . . . In one drawing-room we make a king of Poland, in another a king of Bavaria—God knows what! Then they come to me, they put their questions; and when I am well tired of these questions, which I cannot answer, for the good reason that I know nothing, I say: 'Mon dieu! let him who governs us alone, and wisely enjoy in the idleness of your days the comforts which the activity of his days has procured you.'"

A few days afterwards she writes that a courier woke her up at seven in the morning:

"He rang louder than usual. . . . My whole household is at once in commotion; they all enter my room, shouting 'Peace! peace!' I still doubt; but I learn that last night in Paris it was announced in all the theatres that the first proposals were made by the Emperor of Austria, and that we are now treating. You can imagine the general joy. In the streets people embrace each other."

This joy was caused by false news; peace was only made a little while afterwards. Such was the life of a Frenchwoman at that time—long intervals of doubt and silence and fear, and then sudden outbursts of joy and enthusiasm. When the peace of 1805 was made, Princess Louis Bonaparte sent for Madame de Rémusat, who found her laughing and crying at the same time. Her first word was: "*He* commanded in person—he completely beat the two emperors." This was her short account of the battle of Austerlitz.

"The French," says Madame de Rémusat, "are a little like women—they are very impatient. It is true that in this campaign the Emperor has spoiled us, and no lover has ever been more desirous of satisfying the will of his mistress than his Majesty of contenting our wishes. 'Will you have a prompt march? Well, my army was at Boulogne. I have taken it in three weeks to Germany. You wish a town to be taken? There is Ulm, which has capitulated. You are not satisfied? Well, there are still other victories; then there is Vienna, which you wanted; and, finally, a pitched battle.'"

Madame de Rémusat must have been a most agreeable talker. Her letters have often the conversational tone, and she can relate the smallest incidents in a taking manner. For instance: "I had Friday last at dinner Madame de Vintimille, M. Pasquier [who became chancellor of France], the Abbé Morellet, and Picard [a dramatic author]. M. Pasquier was *en verve*—everything was good to him. We ended in our usual quarrel over La Rochefoucauld and La Bruyère. You know how this question always excites Madame de Vintimille; the abbé screamed as if he was twenty years old; I screamed as I could; M. Bertrand said constantly, 'Allow me, allow me' [*permettez, permettez*]; but we did not allow," and so forth. This lively way of speaking of trifles makes you go through the two volumes without ennui. Here and there you find a bon-mot. She announces, for instance, to Monsieur de Rémusat that the widow of Lavoisier (the famous chemist who died on the guillotine in 1793) is married again to an American savant, M. de Rumford: "Nothing is wanting in the match except the *calorique*." Madame de Rémusat was a great reader; she liked particularly the great writers of the seventeenth century. One day she obliges Talleyrand, the ex-Bishop of Autun, to read her aloud a sermon of Massillon's. She was not devout; she had become a woman in a time when the churches were shut, but we see her by degrees grow more and more religious. Her religion was a sort of Christian philosophy; her mind was full of tolerance, of ease—it was, perhaps, a little loose. She had the instincts of the eighteenth century in her; but she had been struck by the Revolution and by its horrors, and she revolved towards the old-fashioned ideas of the old régime as rapidly as her connection with Bonaparte would allow. On the whole, she was a very interesting person, full of sincerity, of *naturel*, fond of all intellectual pursuits, fond of the world, but passionately fond of her family.

THE VATICAN AND THE EXTENSION OF THE SUFFRAGE IN ITALY.

ROME, July 25, 1881.

A REGULAR "leap in the dark" is this new Reform of the Suffrage Bill voted by the Chamber of Deputies at the close of the last session, after ten years' debate, we may say, taking into account all the bills presented, rejected, or shelved during that period. Until yesterday, out of a population of 30,000,000 (say seven millions of males above twenty-one years of age) but little more than half a million were entitled to elect the representatives of the people to the national parliament. Of these scarcely more than half availed themselves of the privilege most highly prized by Anglo-Saxon nations—30, 40, 50 per cent. only depositing their votes in the urn on ordinary occasions; 62 per cent. in 1876, when the great fight between Conservatives and Liberals (or, as they say here, between Moderates and Progressists) left the latter victorious after sixteen years of exclusive power enjoyed by the former. Often have I tried to account to myself for this abstention, and never satisfactorily. Many people set it down to Pio Nono's injunction to all good Catholics to be "neither electors nor elected"; but the abstainers belong, as a majority, to a class who neither fast nor feast at the dictates of the Church. Some, of course, act in accordance with the instructions emanating from the Vatican, even as the "Puritan republicans" abstain from taking the oath or inducing others to take the oath to monarchy. But these "abstainers on principle," seeing that the world goes on the same without them, and that of nothing nothing can come, have each year grown fewer and fewer; the republican abstainers of to-day you may count on your ten fingers.

The cause lies rather in doubt as to the utility of exercising the vote. "Why lose time and take trouble to vote for Tizio rather than Cajo?" ask many. "The King remains the same, the laws the same, the taxes go on increasing, whoever sits on the ministerial benches." The repeal of the odious grist-tax on the inferior cereals made no impression on the people of the northern provinces, as there, unfortunately, maize is the staple food of the population; but nothing else has occurred to distinguish Right from Left, "progress" from regress, and the witty ditty of the Venetians gains ever fuller truth:

"Quando Marco governava
Si pranzava e si cenava;
Quando l'Austria governò
Si pranzava non si cenò;
Or che Italia ci governa
C'è la fame sempiterna."

That is to say: Under the republic we dined and supped; under Austria we dined only; now that Italy reigns we fast perpetually. And there is no denying that materially the working classes in city

and country "fared better when they were worse off," as taxes are doubled, provisions likewise; wages alone have not risen in proportion.

For the last two years deputies, ex-deputies, and republicans have held meetings and carried on a regular propagandism to instil into the people the belief that universal suffrage is *the* panacea for all existing evils, and the belief has penetrated to the brains of the workmen of the cities. The new law is, in fact, the recognition of universal suffrage, as *all* males above twenty-one years of age who can sign their names are entitled to be registered on the lists and to deposit their votes in the urn. Henceforward it suffices that a man sign in the presence of a notary the requisition printed or written by others, and he becomes a registered elector; the notary never to receive more than half a franc for witnessing and legalizing the signature. Clearly, therefore, every man who desires to vote can do so at the next general elections, having ample time between now and then to learn to sign his name. The opponents of the law hope that the Senate will throw it out, or at least increase the tax to be paid as land-tax or income-tax from ten to twenty francs per annum. But this is hoping against hope, as the Left has already "created" one hundred Senators and holds the menace of other forty "creatures" over the heads of that august body. King Humbert prides and piques himself on being a constitutional king *jusqu'au bout des ongles*; hence he will sign and seal whatsoever law be passed by the two Houses of Parliament.

The desperate leap, therefore, is taken; but into what utter darkness! The first question that arises is, Will the three millions now admitted to vote exercise their right with greater zeal than did the half million in the past? On the theory that a new broom sweeps clean, yes. On the other hand, it remains to be seen whether the half-savage, wholly-ignorant peasant population of the South will ever even hear that by learning to sign their name they may vote for a member of Parliament. The same doubt applies to the thousands of artisans in cities, such as Naples, who of governors and governed know only the recruiting sergeant and the tax-gatherer. Unless black, white, and red politicians set themselves for their own purposes to instruct, drill, and discipline the masses in the duties and beauties of the vote, we doubt their exercising the newly-conferred right.

What will be the conduct of the Vatican? is the next question. Pio Nono, suddenly bereft of his temporal power, learnt but slowly how much was implied in his cruel jest to the commander of the French troops who, when bidding him adieu, regretted that Rome was to be deprived of the protection of France: "Ça ne nous fait rien. La France a perdu ses dents" (Sedan). But only when French teeth were set firmly in the flesh of the Roman populations could he boast himself their master; when *Sedan* relaxed that grip, the prey escaped for ever. Pio Nono to his dying hour expected the Catholic hosts of Christendom to punish the "sacrilegious usurper" and restore to the Pope his own. Not so Leo XIII. A long residence as nuncio at the court of Belgium and the sharp, bright air of his beloved Perugian mountains had cleared his brain of all such cobwebs. On the day of his ascension he decided to bless the people from the outer balcony of St. Peter's, and take possession of the basilica of San Giovanni in Laterano. He saw clearly that the temporal power was gone for aye; that no Power in Europe would unsheathe a sword in its behalf. But he saw also that by accepting under protest the *fait accompli*, by revoking the edict "Nè eletti nè elettori," he could regain for the Church a large portion of the spiritual and moral power forfeited by his predecessor. Had not the Jesuits by sheer material force, and their satellites by their prophecies that any concession would be the ruin of the Church, prevented Cardinal Pecci from acting according to the dictates of his judgment and his conscience, to-day universities and colleges, secondary and elementary schools, communal and provincial councils and offices would be in the hands of the clergy and their adherents. But "the gods love Young Italy," and not the old Papacy. The golden moment was lost. Leo XIII. shut himself up in the Vatican, and is now, like all prisoners and exiles, an irritable, suspicious man, beset with sick fancies and distrustful of all; leaning now to this, now to that counsellor; never able to see things and judge events and circumstances in their true light and comparative proportions.

Still, he holds to his first conviction that conflicts between Church and state are worse than useless, ending ever in the defeat of the former. His conduct in Germany and France proves this, and the conflict in Belgium was none of his seeking. In Italy all the clergy of the northern provinces, and also of Sicily, assure him that unless the people are allowed to take their share in the affairs of the nation they will leave religion in the lurch and attend to their secular affairs. Leo XIII. is worn out with the daily, hourly contest; broken down with the tremendous responsibility laid on his shoulders. So he has adopted a half measure, saying: "I neither enjoin nor forbid. With secular and political matters the Church has nothing to do; let each man act up to his own conscience." Then, besides this, special injunctions are sent to bishops and priests and parish priests to see that all Catholics entitled to vote *be at least inscribed on the voting registers*.

The late fracas attendant on the reburial of the old Pope, exaggerated by the Catholics and palavered about by "own correspondents" to London newspapers, stood the Jesuits in good stead. A madder act than to allow a Catholic demonstration in the streets of Rome around the hearse of the man who for twenty-one years oppressed and cursed the Romans from his throne of bayonets, was never committed by any government. It is a wonder that all ended as it did; but the present Pope does not see this side of the question. "If," say the Jesuits to him, "the dead body of Pio Nono cannot pass through the streets without insult, what can your living Holiness expect?" And a glimmer of hope that the Powers of Europe will combine to guarantee his spiritual powers has revived in the "prisoner's" bosom. Hence the question of Catholics voting or abstaining is again in abeyance.

What will be the consequences? What number of Catholic voters will poll? For whom will they vote? No one in his senses would venture to answer either of these questions. From what I have seen of the workingmen in Venetian Lombardy I should say that they would choose radical deputies. Of the peasants it is far more difficult to judge. I hear a great deal of grumbling at the priests for exacting tithes—"forties" and "fifties"—for never visiting the sick or assisting the poor, for compelling the women to "glean" and the men to "thresh corn for the Madonna," when they and their children have barely polenta to keep body and soul together; but until the present House is dissolved and the results of the next general elections are known we can only say, "Chi vivrà vedrà"—Who lives will see. In Queen Margaret the Pope finds his stanchest ally, his strongest encourager to reconciliation. Then, again, the Vatican coffers are well-nigh empty, and that tempting three and a half millions of francs ready for payment to order. There is the plea, too, that the Socialists and Communists gain all the seceders from the Church. So it may be that universal suffrage, which has effected such strange and opposite results, may effect the reconciliation between Church and state in Italy. M.

Correspondence.

THE EMANCIPATION PEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Allow me to correct a slight error in the communication of Mr. Whittemore, in the *Nation* August 4, 1881. He says the pen with which President Lincoln wrote his Proclamation of Emancipation was presented to the late Mr. George Livermore by the President. In a letter to me written by Mr. Livermore, and enclosing both a photograph and a pencil-drawing of the famous pen, for my use in preparing my 'Pictorial Field-Book of the Civil War,' it is stated that the pen was presented by the President to Mr. Sumner at the latter's request, and by him presented to Mr. Livermore.

The pen with which that ever-memorable Proclamation was written was a common steel one, of the kind known as the "Washington." The handle was a common cedar stick—the whole affair as plain and unostentatious as the President himself. Benson J. Lossing.

The Ridge, Dover Plains, N. Y., August 8.

THE PEABODY LIBRARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "W. M. C.," in writing about the Peabody Library, seems to labor under a series of misapprehensions regarding it which could have arisen only from lack of familiarity with its workings. No one who is at all acquainted with the large number of rare and valuable books which it contains, or who knows anything at all about the constant accessions to its stores, could possibly style the Peabody Library a "fossil institution." The Peabody was not designed to be a circulating library, nor to furnish its readers with books which might be easily obtained at any bookstore. It was the founder's intention to bring together in a convenient building those books which, either from their rarity or from their extreme cost, are quite beyond the reach of persons of moderate means. To be plain, sir, it was meant for those who, though poor in pocket, are rich in brains—not a very *numerous* class in any place.

In regard to the card-catalogues, it is sufficient to say that *practical* librarians have found the system the only one of any use in a large and growing library. The "other formalities" consist simply in writing upon a slip of paper provided for the purpose the names of the books desired, and signing one's name to the order. That is all.

It seems to me that the library is open quite late

enough, both in summer and winter, for any mechanic or business man who has been working hard all day. It would be interesting to know how many of either class care to use a "*learned* library" at any time.

Is it not somewhat of a contradiction to speak of a situation as almost inaccessible, and in the same breath to condemn it as being too fashionable? There is an air, too, of charming innocence in the manner in which students and schoolteachers are coupled with "persons of infinite leisure."

Without opening up the vexed question of "Sunday closing," it will be sufficient to say that the Peabody Library, in not remaining open Sundays and holidays, follows a custom universal in this city.—Very respectfully,

JOHN H. BLACKLOCK.

BALTIMORE, Aug. 4, 1881.

THE PRESIDENT'S DISABILITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I send you the following in consequence of observing in the Baltimore *Sun* of this morning the statement that "Government officials are beginning to talk about the embarrassment . . . in consequence of the continued inability of the President to perform any of the functions of his office."

Mr. Madison's report of the 'Debates in the Federal Convention of 1787' shows that after "the proceedings of the Convention" had been "referred to a committee to prepare and report a Constitution conformable thereto," the Convention on July 26 unanimously adjourned till Monday, August 6, "that the Committee of Detail might have time to prepare and report the Constitution."

In the report delivered on August 6, by Mr. Rutledge, from that committee, article x. section 2, after a provision as to the President of the United States, for his removal from office, concluded as follows:

"In case of his removal as aforesaid, death, resignation, or *disability to discharge the powers and duties of his office*, the President of the Senate shall exercise those powers and duties until another President of the United States be chosen, or *until the disability of the President be removed.*"

August 27, there were objections to this clause and a motion to postpone it.

"Mr. Dickinson seconded the postponement, remarking that it was too vague. What is the extent of the term 'disability,' and who is to be the judge of it?

"The postponement was agreed to *nem con.*"

August 31, such parts of the Constitution as had been postponed and such parts of reports as had not been acted on were referred to a committee of a member from each State. The Committee of Eleven made, September 4, a partial report, which contemplated that a Vice-President should be elected, and that the latter part of section 2, article x. should read as follows:

"In case of his removal as aforesaid, death, absence, resignation, or *inability to discharge the powers or duties of his office*, the Vice-President shall exercise those powers and duties until another President be chosen, or until *the inability of the President be removed.*"

On September 7 was an insertion of words enabling the legislature to "declare by law what officer of the United States shall act as President in case of the death, resignation, or disability of the President and Vice-President." In lieu of words importing that "such officer shall act accordingly *until the time of electing a President shall arrive*," Mr. Madison moved to substitute "*until such disability be removed or a President shall be elected*"; which motion was seconded by Mr. Gouverneur Morris and agreed to.

A committee was appointed by ballot to revise the style of and arrange the articles which had been agreed to. That committee on September 12 made its report, containing the following words:

"*In case of* the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or *inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office*, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and the Congress may, by law, provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability both of the President and Vice-President; declaring what officer shall then act as President; and such officer shall act accordingly *until the disability be removed*, or until the period *for choosing another President arrive.*"

The last words, "or until the period for choosing another President arrive," were on September 15 changed into "*or a President shall be elected*" (according to the vote of September 7). So the Constitution was signed, and so it now is in the sixth section of the second article.

Although in case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death or resignation, the power and duties of the office would devolve on the Vice-President, and he would act accordingly until a President should be elected, yet they do not necessarily devolve upon him in the other case for so great a length of time. If, merely because or *in case of the President's inability* to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, such devolving may cease when the President's inability shall cease. The constitution of Virginia of June 29, 1776, provided as to the council of state, that "they shall annually choose out of their own members a president, who, in case of the death, *inability, or necessary absence of the governor* from the government, shall act as lieutenant-governor." Under that constitution there was frequently a case of such inability or necessary absence that the president of the council acted as lieutenant-governor; and when such inability or necessary absence ceased, the governor acted again.

C. R.

BALTIMORE, August 8, 1881.

OVERLAND RAILROAD RATES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Two paragraphs in the *Nation* of July 14 (No. 837, pp. 22, 23) indicate that you are but imperfectly informed as to abuses on the overland railroads. As you appear willing to aid in remedying them I give you some of the facts. The system of unlawful freight discriminations alluded to has not been recently revived; it has never for a moment been suspended since its formal introduction in the summer of 1878, but has been constantly enlarged and extended down to the present time, when it is more stringent and oppressive than ever before. The *modus operandi* is this: By arrangement between the Central and Union Pacific Railroad Companies the rates of Western-bound freights are fixed by the Union, and those of Eastern-bound by the Central Company. This arrangement is supposed to be nominal only; a sort of legal fiction to enable each concern to refer complaining parties to a "Mr. Jorkins," two thousand miles off; but that is the form of it. The Union Pacific Company has a printed classification of merchandise, and printed rates of freight for each class from New York and other Eastern points to San Francisco, ranging from $6 per 100 lbs. for first-class to $1 50 per 100 lbs. for Class D. These are declared to be the regular rates. But the company enters into contracts with the merchants here to carry for them at *special* rates, much reduced from these regular ones, on condition that the merchant shall import all his goods by their line; not only such as are usually sent by rail or *via* the Isthmus, but also such as have heretofore, and naturally, come by sea around Cape Horn; and they make him bind himself to ship by their road, and by such connecting roads as their general freight-agent shall, from time to time, designate, all goods purchased by or for him, or shipped by or consigned to him, by his procurement, directly or indirectly, or with his knowledge and assent. The contracts declare that their object is to give to the Union Pacific Company the transportation of all goods *bought, sold, dealt in, or handled by* the merchant; and any act of his tending to defeat this object constitutes a breach, so that he cannot even buy in open market goods imported otherwise than by rail, and this rule is enforced. They also provide that these special rates are for his own exclusive benefit, and he must not allow the use of his name or shipping marks by any one else. The freight must all be forwarded to Omaha by such carriers as are designated by the Union Pacific Railroad Company. They reserve the option (which is always exercised) of way-billing the goods and collecting freights according to the printed rates, agreeing to return the difference, on presentation of vouchers to the Central Pacific's freight-agent at San Francisco, after the lapse of a reasonable time—say thirty days—for transmission, verification, etc.

All our leading merchants have been forced to enter into contracts of this description; the man who attempts to import his coarse goods by sea, relying on the rail for such as need more rapid transportation, has to pay such rates on the latter that he cannot compete with his neighbors. He cannot even buy his coarse goods in open market here if they shall have come round the Horn, for that would defeat the "*bought, sold, dealt in, or handled by*" clause. Such goods and their importers are tabooed and "boycotted," and the merchant who touches them without leave of the railroad company can have no freight transported overland except at ruinous rates; even at such he is liable to casual delays, difficulties, and obstructions which, being unable to account for, his unregenerate nature attributes to malicious design.

The result is that ships obtain little or no freights from Eastern ports here; they have to come here in ballast, or half full, to load wheat for Europe, and our people are compelled to pay on their produce sent abroad a freight to cover the expense of the round trip. The standing forced loan exacted from our merchants, without interest, by collecting and after thirty days repaying the difference between printed and contract rates, may amount to half a million dollars; it operates oppressively to individuals, but to the community is of minor importance. But the tax levied on our exports in the form of enhanced freights to Europe is a monstrous and shocking wrong. In the absence of full statistics it is impossible to compute its amount,

but it is probably equivalent to about four dollars per ton on the exportable crop of the State. San Francisco, under this nefarious system, has degenerated from the rank and position of a maritime city open to the commerce of the world to that of an interior town some two thousand miles west of St. Louis, approachable only over deserts and mountains.

With these facts before you, which are known to every well-informed man in San Francisco (except, of course, the Railroad Commissioners), you can understand why the tide of prosperity which has spread over the rest of the Union during the last few years has never yet reached California, why all business has been depressed and real estate has been steadily falling in value ever since the overland railroad was completed. Perhaps, too, you will regard with more leniency the mistaken hostility to corporations (especially railroads) which has found expression in some of our recent legislation. Grant that it is unphilosophical, ill-directed, stupid, and in some respects unjust—that was not its intention; but people who have been so long and sorely oppressed as ours have been by the present monopoly cannot always reason coolly or justly as to the remedy, and in their anger seize any weapon at hand, careless whom else they may hurt, provided they can inflict a blow on their chief enemy.

You suggest an appeal to the courts—at least, so I understand your words "proceeded against with all vigor"; but who can proceed against them, and how? I defy any lawyer to point out a remedy, under existing laws, of the slightest value to the individual aggrieved. Our Railroad Commissioners, if so disposed, could doubtless do much on behalf of the public, if not to break up, at least to expose, the wrong. But the eyes of justice, you know, are bandaged, and they can only know what is officially communicated to them and duly proved by witnesses, and their governing majority has just completed a set of rules for proceedings before them well calculated to aid them in remaining ignorant of all public abuses of the kind. No individual merchant dare sue, complain, or even let it be known that he is dissatisfied, lest he should be straightway put at a ruinous disadvantage with his competitors in trade. His business would be broken up before he could get his first case sent to trial, and his family might starve while he was awaiting the result of new trials and appeals. The way of a man who enters into litigation with a company that keeps all the leading law-firms under standing retainers, most of the leading journals by some means quieted, and which finds in legislators, railroad commissioners, and auditors of railroad accounts its serviceable friends, is too hard to be voluntarily pursued by any man in business.

There is but one remedy for this monster grievance which oppresses the whole Pacific coast. The power so to oppress must be absolutely taken from the companies. For this purpose it is not necessary to establish rates of freight by law; but the law should lay down a rule for their establishment by the companies, and, once established, they should be made public, and no deviation permitted. The operation of the roads in all their departments should be kept under constant and vigilant supervision by Government, and any violation of law by railroad officials should be punished as a public offence. Actions for damages and like private remedies are wholly inefficient. Congress has ample power to remedy all evils in the overland system of transportation, for it is all built on Congressional legislation; and its just control of that system, judiciously exercised, could not fail to be attended with most beneficial results in the whole system of connecting roads.

The first thing needed is a Congressional committee of investigation, with ample powers and means to examine thoroughly into all existing abuses in the management of the Union and Central Pacific roads, and their leased and associated lines. The *Nation* cannot do a better public service than by aiding and enforcing through its columns the demand for such an investigation.

JOHN T. DOYLE.

SAN FRANCISCO, July 28, 1881.

DIVORCE STATISTICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I ask space to reply to the letter of Rev. Mr. Dike in this week's *Nation*, criticising a portion of my article on the "Divorce Question" in the *International Review* for August. When I wrote my satire, "Who is your Wife?" I prepared an appendix citing the authorities, but as the work was intended for the general public and the appendix would have given it a "heavy appearance," it was omitted for reasons which publishers of fiction will appreciate. As I expected, however, many critics, including members of my own profession, ventured to doubt some of the statements contained in the book. I therefore prepared the *Review* article to show that so far was the fiction from being an exaggeration that it fell short of the actual facts, and to offer a remedy for the evils set forth in it. Incidentally, I referred to Mr. Dike and his "statistics."

Mr. Dike says that *I* should have said that there was "one divorced *person*, not one divorce, to every six hundred and seventy-nine of the population in Maine in 1878, and not in 1880 as he has it." If Mr. Dike will look at the article again he will see that the statement is not made by me at all, but is quoted as having been made by ex-Governor Dingley. On Mr. Dike's explanation I was therefore right in criticising it; and if the ex-governor has been incorrectly reported, and Mr. Dike's figures are the correct ones, it does not in the least affect or alter the point of my criticism. The point is that these "statistics" leave out of consideration the fact, well known to every lawyer, that many of these divorces are obtained by persons who are not *bona-fide* citizens of the State where they are granted, but who resort to its laws and tribunals because, owing to the difference in laws, they could not procure a divorce in their own State; and, consequently, to charge these divorces to the actual inhabitants of the State where they were procured is to mislead, and present an incorrect picture of the State's morality. If Mr. Dike were a lawyer in active practice, instead of a minister without the means of judging from actual experience and observation, he would not regard my opinion as to the character of the majority of these divorces as so "incredible." He would know, what is more, that very often the "residence" which citizens of one State take up in another—New York and Connecticut, for instance—in order to procure a divorce in the latter, is merely *nominal*. But he says: "New Hampshire that same year had one divorce to every fourteen hundred and thirty-nine inhabitants. But if, as this writer declares on the next page, foreign parties are practically excluded from the courts of that State, we must doubt the fact he asserts of Maine." (The fact was intended as a general assertion.) Mr Dike seems to think he has me here. Let us see what my article does state. In answer to the broad assertion that the cause of the increase of divorce is loose laws, I explicitly say, what Mr. Dike admits, that "the increase has been as great in New Hampshire as anywhere else, while the law in that State has been changed but little in a century." Then I state that New Hampshire has a doctrine peculiar to herself, that the *delictum* must occur there to confer jurisdiction on her courts, "and that when the offence is committed when *both* parties are out of the court's jurisdiction it is no ground for a divorce." A moment's reflection should show Mr. Dike that this is very different from the statement he attributes to me.

The reference to France was made by me on the authority of Bishop, and also expresses my personal opinion. Mr. Dike will find it in vol. i. § 44 of the fifth edition. If it is not in the edition lately published, it is because since the first publication of his work Mr. Bishop, in the subsequent editions, has curtailed the argumentative and historical portions, and made it more purely a textbook. Lawyers are severely enough taxed for books without having to purchase every new edition. As to the repeal of the "omnibus" clause in Connecticut, I do not know how far the repealing act extends; I do know that the *grounds* for a divorce in that State are liberal enough to cover almost every case without it. The clause, according to Mr. Dike, conferred general jurisdiction on the judges to grant divorces in their discretion. According to Dr. Woolsey, it was, "any such misconduct as permanently destroys the happiness of the petitioner, and defeats the purpose of the marriage relation, shall be sufficient to entitle to a divorce." This might be repealed without taking away the discretion from the judges. Mr. Bishop, in the last edition of his work, does not *imply*, as Mr. Dike puts it, that this discretion still exists; he explicitly *asserts* it (Bishop, sixth edition, note to § 27.)

I am not surprised that Mr. Dike finds it difficult to reconcile Dr. Dwight's statements with his own statistics or the facts. But, having thus practically admitted the justice of my criticism, I am surprised that he should declare me at fault in my reasoning. He finds fault with my statement that, if his statistics were correct, in 1880 in Connecticut one in less than every twenty-five married pairs should have been divorced, and then says that for many years before 1879 the ratio of divorces to marriages was 1 to 10.4. Does he mean that one out of every ten marriages resulted in a divorce? If so, he makes it worse than I did; if not, what does he mean? The absurdity of the statement is too patent to need demonstration. He says that my assertion that "divorce is no more frequent among the lower classes than it is among the higher" is not true of New England, unless in exceptional localities. Does he mean by "higher" some particular arrogant "upper tendom," or does he use it as I do, as distinguishing between the educated and uneducated? If the latter, I am afraid he will not find many lawyers who will agree with him. But my assertion is general, and not particularly applied to New England. As Mr. Dike is not a Bostonian, I believe, he will probably be willing to concede, when his attention is drawn to the fact, that New England is not the United States, and that those of us who were not fortunate enough to be born in that section are still entitled to be counted in the nation's statistics, and are not mere appendixes.

Mr. Dike, referring to the responsibility of New York and other States for divorces in New England, says "the proof of this does not appear in the statistics." I should suppose not. I have not the remotest idea in what part of a court's records Mr. Dike would look to find it. But when he admits that probably "ten or fifteen per cent. of the divorces in New England in 1878 were of persons who came here for the purpose," and "for every one coming East probably two or more go West," he admits the force of my criticism that these "statistics" are not correct in the sense in which they are intended to be conveyed; for here, according to himself, would be from twenty to thirty per cent. of the divorces charged to the citizens of States which should not be credited with them. Dr. Woolsey, when asked in which State divorces are most frequent, replied: "I will not undertake to say, *so imperfect are the statistics.*" Yet Mr. Dike seems to regard his figures as infallible. It is a very simple thing to make a literally true statement convey a very different impression to the mind of the general reader, and, notwithstanding the old saying, figures are often the most mendacious of liars. I am sorry to have destroyed or impaired the effect of his "statistics," which he undoubtedly believes to be absolutely correct, but this is an iconoclastic age, and even the story of Blue-beard is now regarded as fiction. He will have great difficulty in making any lawyer believe that of those persons who seek other States to procure a divorce "more" of them do so to avoid publicity than because they cannot secure their end in their own State. He would probably welcome the Catholic rule (which makes France so moral) of indissolubility, if he did not adopt its mongrel offspring, having no divine or other authority, of divorce *a mensa et thoro*. Probably he joins with others in criticising my statement that the world always has been and is continually improving. One critic says that if this is so the world must have been very bad; but if it is not so I do not see how civilization could ever have advanced. He is probably one of the class referred to on page 141 of the *Review*.

The point he discusses does not, as he kindly admits, affect the merits of my article in the discussion of its main question; it simply arose incidentally. But, while I am not infallible, am open to correction, and welcome criticism as the best of teachers, I fear that Mr. Dike's letter will fail to convince me that my criticism of his and other statistics is erroneous on his own showing.

WALDORF H. PHILLIPS.

NEW YORK, Aug. 6, 1881.

Notes.

J. R. OSGOOD & Co. will publish early next month, as a holiday gift-book, Owen Meredith's 'Lucile,' with upwards of 160 wood-engravings after designs by prominent American artists. The form will be large octavo.——Among the forthcoming juvenile publications of Cassell & Co. will be the 'Little Folks' Album of Music' and 'Old Proverbs with New Faces,' the latter illustrated by Lucy Lawson, reputed "a most successful rival of Kate Greenaway."——A. C. Armstrong & Son have in press two juvenile gift-books, both abounding in colored illustrations, viz., 'Shaksperian Tales in Verse,' by Mrs. Valentine, and 'The May-Blossom; or, The Princess and her People.'——A limited fac simile reprint of the first edition of Burton's 'Book-Hunter' will be issued next month, with an added index, by Robert A. Tripple, Philadelphia.——'Pioneer Life in the West,' by J. B. Walker, is announced by Henry A. Sumner & Co.——A. D. F. Randolph & Co. add to the New Testament literature a little volume, 'Where the Old and the New Versions Differ,' the changes only being indicated in parallel columns. The complete texts thus placed side by side would seem preferable for convenience of comparison.——E. Steiger & Co. have now issued their pedagogic abstract of Kiddle and Schem's 'Cyclopædia of Education,' under the title of 'Dictionary of Education and Instruction.' It makes a duodecimo volume of somewhat more than 300 pages.——A fragmentary bibliography of "Educational Journalism" in this country is to be found in the address bearing this title delivered by Mr. C. W. Bardeen at Saratoga last month, and published at Syracuse by the author. The subject is a rather dreary one, but is treated in a readable, not to say lively, manner. Of existing journals devoted to education—the whole number has been legion—the average age is about three and a half years.——The *Penn Monthly* for August contains an interesting biographical sketch of the late Prof. S. S. Haldeman. He was, it appears, related not only to the British general, Sir Frederick Haldimand, who was stationed here prior to the Revolution, and afterwards became governor of the Province of Quebec, but to Mrs. Marcet (Jane Haldimand), an early popularizer of science, to whose 'Conversations' Faraday acknowledged his indebtedness.——The August issue of the *Magazine of American History* is a "Washington number." There is an excellent brief account, by Berthold Fernow, of Washington's military family during the war, and much kindred matter. The noteworthy illustrations are a fac-simile of a pen-and-ink sketch of Washington made about 1790 (as is supposed, by Benj. H. Latrobe, the architect of the U. S. Capitol); and a charming specimen of the St.-Mémin portrait-etchings, namely, of Dr. James McHenry, of Baltimore, Washington's military secretary, and subsequent Secretary of War.——A letter from Mr. Joseph Thacher Clarke, of the Assos expedition, on the "Architectural Aspects of the Chian Earthquake," is printed in the *American Architect* for July 30. It is an admirable and not too harrowing account by a highly intelligent observer. Mr. Clarke cannot forbear alluding to the effect on any of our great cities of an earthquake no severer than that of 1755 (the *Architect* has it 1775) in New England.——The *Bibliographer*, a periodical uniform in size and style with the *Antiquary*, is to be published by Elliot Stock, London, in the autumn.——The premium plate which each subscriber to *L'Art* obtains this year is a rather off-hand etching, by Champollion, of a hackneyed Spanish-Roman conventionality in *genre* by Casanova, in size 18½ × 15 inches. It by no means represents the quality of work which the readers of *L'Art* are familiar with, and may expect to find in each number.——*Polybiblion* states that the French National Library acquired last year a sealed box of letters by Alfred de Musset, not to be opened till 1910.——A plan is on foot in Belgium for offering a testimonial to Hendrik Conscience, the novelist, on the appearance of his hundredth volume. Although Conscience is the most zealous defender of Flanders and Flemish manners, and has done more than any writer to serve the Flemish language and spread the love of Flemish literature among his countrymen, yet his writings are as popular in Holland as in Belgium, and it is expected that the subscription will be willingly taken up in both countries.——The African Club of Naples has published in a neat pamphlet a lecture recently delivered by Count Luigi Pennazzi, describing his explorations in Eastern Sudan, or the vast territory between the Nile and the Red Sea. It opens with a feeling tribute to the late Romolo Gessi (Gordon's lieutenant, it will be remembered), who died in the arms of Count Pennazzi and his companion, Capt. Bessone, and was buried at Suez. A subscription is being raised to remove his body to Italy. Count Pennazzi describes him as wholly devoted to the extirpation of slavery and the slave-trade, and says his name will yet be written in letters of gold beside those of Franklin, Washington, and Garibaldi.——After a tedious intermission, the fifth number of Professor Daniel Sanders's 'Ergänzungswörterbuch der deutschen Sprache' has at length made its appearance. It is to be hoped that the new publisher will be more prompt with the rest of the work.

—We have been requested by Messrs. A. & C. Black to publish the following letter, which speaks for itself:

EDINBURGH, July 22, 1881.

SIR: My attention has just been called to the July number of a newspaper published by you entitled *Stoddart's Review*. This journal contains a notice of various alterations made in the American "reprint" of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' issued by you, and it also contains an advertisement announcing the volume thus tampered with as being edited by me.

I must ask you at once to withdraw my name from every such advertisement, as you are well aware I have neither knowledge, control, nor supervision of your reprint, and that I repudiate all connection with it.

As you have publicly advertised my name in this unjustifiable manner, I shall consider this letter as equally public.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

THOS. S. BAYNES.

MR. J. M. STODDART, Philadelphia.

—The twenty-ninth volume of the Proceedings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, being the record of the meeting held at Boston in August last, is just issued—in two parts royal octavo, of about four hundred pages each. The Boston session was in all respects a notable one. The continuous attendance upon the meetings of the Association amounted to nearly one thousand persons, including members and invited guests. About two hundred and eighty papers were presented to the Association. As usual, a good share of the more important papers appear in the Proceedings by title simply (more than two-thirds of the entire number are so given), only a small portion of those here published in full having any considerable significance. It is not easy to account for this—doubtless it is owing in great part to the delay in printing the volume, the best papers appearing meanwhile elsewhere. A good many of these papers are published in the *American Journal of Science*, but a very large proportion are never heard of after the simple oral presentation before the Association. Of the papers presented on mathematics and physics, 19 are printed and 63 not; in chemistry, 20 printed and 19 not; in microscopy, 6 printed and 8 not; in natural history, 21 printed and 40 not; in entomology, 8 printed and 21 not; and in anthropology, 11 printed and 37 not. The membership of the Association is increasing in magnitude with great rapidity; the list now contains 1,555 names enrolled—1,149 being members, and 406 fellows. Over 600 new

members were elected at Boston, and nearly 50 members were advanced to be fellows. With this unprecedented growth it would be impossible that all should be actively engaged in the direct advancement of scientific interests: probably a goodly majority would hold equal rank with Clifford's "second class of persons" in the British Association, "who are engaged in work upon what are called scientific subjects, but who in general do not, and are not expected to, think about these subjects in a scientific manner." The Boston volume closes with a few brief notes on the "Scientific Institutions of Boston and Vicinity." The Association will meet next week at Cincinnati, the chief officers being Dr. L. H. Morgan, of Rochester, the retiring President, and Professor G. J. Brush, of New Haven, the President-elect.

—The Census Office has published, as Bulletin No. 223, a preliminary report on the anthracite coal productions of Pennsylvania during the census year, by Professor R. Pumpelly. Anthracite is now mined in eight counties, an increase of two since 1870—namely, Lackawanna, which was formerly a part of Luzerne, and Susquehanna, in which one small colliery has recently been started. The number of collieries has been increased from 225 in 1870 to 273 in 1880. The average number of hands to each colliery has increased from 235 to 250, or only 6.4 per cent., while the average product per colliery has gone up from 69,320 to 100,488 tons, or 45 per cent. of increase. The actual output is estimated to have been 67.28 per cent., or about two-thirds of the possible output—in other words, the mines were worked up to two-thirds of their capacity, with the present force, under a steady demand. The value of the output was 26.86 per cent. of the capital. The total merchantable product was 27,433,329 tons, valued at the mines at $1 47 per ton. In 1870 the product was stated as 15,596,257 tons, showing an increase of 75.9 per cent. Owing to the decreased price of coal, however, the value of the product has increased but 5.25 per cent. This difference in price is, on the other hand, in large part accounted for by the depreciation of the currency in 1870. In addition to the merchantable product given above, 83 collieries report 7,060,447 tons of impure coal and dust, which is at present unmerchantable. This is 34.8 per cent. of their product, and, if the same proportion holds in the other collieries, there would be not less than 9,382,086 tons of unmerchantable "culm" produced, to which no value is assigned. About one-tenth of this is used at the mines, while at present the remainder of it is thrown away.

—In the census year there were employed at the collieries 68,239 hands, of whom 28.7 per cent. were miners, 69.5 were laborers above ground, and 1.8 comprised the administrative force. The total wages paid were $21,680,120. The average yearly income of each man was $359 08, and his average monthly income $42 33. On an average, the employees worked 70.69 per cent. of the year, while 28.60 per cent. was lost by stoppages, and only 0.72 per cent. by strikes. The last item shows that the relations between employers and employees are much more harmonious than heretofore. The increase of force employed over 1870—29.04 per cent.—consists largely of boys under sixteen years of age, at work above ground. The number of adult employees has increased but 20 per cent. The coal-lands which are reported as being worked amount to 164,852 acres, valued at $102,614,844—an average valuation of $622 47 per acre. Of the total number, 13,852 acres are reported as having been worked over; the lower seams of coal, however, even in this area have not yet been touched. An additional area of 53,385 acres of coal-land is held in reserve by the companies. On the extremely conservative supposition that only 27 per cent. of the contents of the anthracite coal-field can be mined and marketed, it is estimated that the production of anthracite, after 1880, will reach 4,009,640,000 net tons before the field is exhausted. This would indicate that the production of the census year could be maintained for 146 years.

—At the International Medical Conference, now in session in London, Dr. J. S. Billings, of Washington, D. C., read a paper recently upon medical literature, with especial reference to its character and distribution. The paper opens with the following statistics: It is usual to estimate that about one-thirtieth of the world's literature belongs to medicine and allied sciences. The number of volumes is computed to be about 120,000, and about twice that number of pamphlets, and this amount is increasing at the rate of about 1,500 volumes and 2,500 pamphlets annually. Out of the 180,000 medical men in the civilized world about 11,600 are producers of or contributors to this literature. These are divided among the different countries as follows:

	Number of Physicians.	Number of Medical Writers.
United States	60 000	2,800
France and Colonies	26,000	2,600
German Empire	32,000	2,300
Great Britain and Colonies	36,000	2,000
Italy	10,000	600
Spain	5,000	300
All others	17,000	1,000

The number of physicians who are writers is proportionally greatest in France and least in the United States. In 1879 the total number of medical books and pamphlets published was 1,643, according to the *Index Medicus*. Of these France published more than any other country, the contributions of the United States ranking third.

—The special characteristics of the medical literature of the present day are largely due to journals and transactions of societies. These form about one-half of the current medical literature, and are by far the most widely read and studied. They amounted in 1879 to 655 volumes, containing about 20,000 original articles which were judged worthy of notice in the *Index Medicus*. Classifying the literary product of 1879 by subjects, we find the scientific or biological side of medicine represented by 167 books and 1,543 articles. In this branch Germany leads, while the United States is very low in the list. The practical side of medicine was represented by 1,200 books and 18,000 articles. Here France showed the greatest production, the United States next, and then Germany. In scientific medicine we go to Germany to school, as that country at present leads the world. It was not long ago that the scientific student of medicine found his career anything but a profitable one. This condition is, however, rapidly changing, with the increasing specialization of his profession and with the general tendency of science toward achieving practical results. So vast is the present range of medical science that we must now look for original discoveries mainly to specialists.

—The movement of the Board of Censors of the New York County Medical Society to suppress the illegal practice of medicine under the State law of 1880, is one in which the public is generally interested. At a recent meeting held to consider the subject, Dr. F. R. Sturgis, a member of the Board, made an interesting statement explaining its action. The law provides for a registration in the County Clerk's office by every practising physician of his diploma, which shows, of course, his right to practise if he has any. The penalty for non-compliance is liability for prosecution as an illegal practitioner, and the provisions of the law have been generally complied with. The Board is invested with authority to commence prosecutions under the law, but only one conviction has, it seems, yet been obtained. The difficulty of securing evidence is the main obstacle in the way of the enforcement of the law, the patients of quacks having a disinclination to come forward as witnesses. The mere fact that a man displays a sign, or that he has an office for the treatment of patients, is not evidence upon which a conviction can be obtained. The Board of Censors will try to obtain some new legislation at the next session of the Legislature; we trust that it may be as stringent as possible, for there is probably no city in the world where medical charlatans ply their trade more openly and recklessly than in New York. The fact that diplomas are so easy to get in this country makes it doubly important that the conservative members of the profession should be supported in any effort they make to protect the public against this particularly dangerous form of rascality.

—"W. B." writes us from Boston:

"In a notice of Sibley's 'Biographical Sketches of Graduates of Harvard University,' in No. 838 (July 21, 1881) of the *Nation*, Benj. Tompson is said to be capable of good lines like the following:

> "My Lovalty is still the same,
> Whether I win or loose the game,
> True as a Dial to the Sun,
> Altho it bee not shin'd upon."

Was not Butler, who in 'Hudibras,' Part 3, canto 2, ll. 173–176, wrote—

> "For loyalty is still the same,
> Whether it win or lose the game;
> True as the dial to the sun,
> Although it be not shined upon"—

a maledictus who said Tompson's good lines before that worthy author himself said them?"

Unquestionably. We should have said "capable of *appropriating* good lines like the following."

—Mr. Henry Larkin, who indexed Carlyle's works and made the maps for the 'Frederic,' contributes a long article to the current *British Quarterly Review* on "Carlyle and Mrs. Carlyle," which is entertaining in several ways. It is a reluctant offering, and Mr. Larkin has "always conscientiously shrunk from the bare possibility of such a thing" as publishing reminiscences of the intimate relations he held with the Carlyles; but when a person's shrinking is conscientious and is once overcome, it is, it seems, abandoned with singular completeness, and we have here glimpses of the Chelsea interior which an observer whose shrinking was merely instinctive would probably have withheld from us. In overcoming his shrinking, moreover, Mr. Larkin gives his true disposition the freest play, and his essay thus has, in a degree unexampled even in what has recently been written about his master, the merits of the type unalterably fixed by Boswell. He began his acquaintance with Carlyle by writing him a letter objecting

to the depreciation of Cromwell in Carlyle's work, and got a reply saying, as was certainly reasonable, "It is a great satisfaction to me to be chidden from that side of the Cromwell Controversy." Two years after he became convinced that his own letter had been presumptuous and wrote to say so, adding that "next to my sovereign Lord and master Jesus Christ it was to him that I was indebted." To this Carlyle replied, expressing thanks and satisfaction for this "loyal feeling," which "to yourself also signifies much," and advising him to "persist in that disposition, whatever hindrances occur, so long as you can." For four years more Mr. Larkin "wearily plodded on," but chancing to learn that Carlyle wanted indexing done, "I saw at once," he says, "that my opportunity had at length come, and that there was now a possibility of doing something useful while I lived." Accordingly he offered his services, which were accepted with some dubiety at first, requested and even commanded as time went on, and remunerated to a ridiculously small extent, but in proportion to Carlyle's abilities and beyond the expectations or desires of Mr. Larkin, upon whom his employer had to press checks.

—For many years he "persisted in that disposition," and the reader will find few more suggestive narratives than his account of it. It is difficult to read it without a feeling of worldly commiseration, and reflecting that this sort of thing is the logical and practical outcome of the Carlyle doctrines of reverence and hero-worship. Mr. Larkin, so far as we can see, did nothing but reduce these notions, with which he had become thoroughly imbued, to practice, with the national literalness and with an apparent consciousness that people in general would misapprehend and possibly ridicule his motives. This indeed seems to have added a fillip to the interest of his self-sacrifice. Carlyle "loyally" accepted it, and one has an uncomfortable feeling that he "sized" his admirer at once, and saw no harm but rather some possible good to the latter as the result of an intercourse which at any rate was to be very profitable to himself. Mr. Larkin became a kind of factotum at the house in Chelsea, and when he married came to live next door to be within call. He finds this last to have been a mistake, as he was a little too accessible. When the 'Frederic' indexing was doing he and his wife sat up night after night to hurry it along; Carlyle was almost abusive in his insistence on haste, and thoroughly unappreciative of the gratuitousness and amount of the labor involved; and, finally, Mr. Larkin, like the trodden worm, turned on him and wrote what must have been a plaintive but distinct protest. Then he went to call, and the subject was avoided and never afterward referred to, though he thinks it always remained a bar to perfect cordiality between them. Mrs. Carlyle, it is perfectly plain, foresaw the result of the experiment, and tried to console Larkin in advance for his inevitable disappointment, after an abortive effort to prevent it. "Once she told me it was mostly mad people who came running after Carlyle,' leaving me to make my own application." Mr. Larkin's thesis, so far as he may be said to have one, is that Carlyle neglected and failed to appreciate his wife, and that his pitiful lamentations in the 'Reminiscences' are expressions of a terrible remorse. He gives numerous little confidences of Mrs. Carlyle to him to this effect, which in the whole perhaps he shouldn't have done. But probably no harm will ensue; most readers will see that the relation he bore to both husband and wife was peculiar, and not quite appreciated by him, and that each used him as a soft and grateful cushion on occasion. What Mr. Larkin fails to see, and what even Mrs. Oliphant missed, it occurred to us at the time of her essay on the same subject, is the probable fact that Carlyle and his wife understood each other better than any one else did either of them.

—Instead of choosing, as was surmised, the present Radcliffe Observer, Mr. E. J. Stone, for Astronomer Royal of England to succeed Sir George Airy, whose resignation took place on August 1, the lords of the Admiralty have just appointed Mr. W. H. M. Christie to that high and responsible position. Mr. Christie, though yet quite young, is very well known as the chief and confidential assistant to Airy since the autumn of 1870, but more popularly as the able editor of an astronomical periodical, founded by himself in 1877 and called the *Observatory*. Mr. Christie is the author of several important astronomical and physical papers, and is particularly an authority in spectroscopic matters, and has made a considerable series of observations for determining the motions of stars in the line of sight. A recent paper treats of the systematic errors of the Greenwich North Polar Distances. Early in 1880 he was elected secretary of the Royal Astronomical Society, and in February last was re-elected to the same office.

—It is proposed to start a Pāli Text Society on the model of the Early English Text Society, in order to render accessible to students the rich stores of the earliest Buddhist literature now lying unedited and practically unused in the various MSS. scattered throughout the public and university libraries of Europe. The Society looks forward to publishing, within a no very distant period, the whole of the texts of the Pāli Pitakas. Professor Fausböll, having completed the Dhammapada, is already far advanced with his edition of the Jātaka Book, the longest of the texts of the Sutta Pitaka; and Dr. Oldenburg has the Vinaya Pitaka well in hand. The remaining texts of the Sutta and Abhidhamma Pitakas lend themselves easily to distribution among various editors. The project has been most heartily welcomed by scholars throughout Europe. It is proposed to include in the Society's series those of the more important of the earlier Jain and uncanonical Buddhist texts which may be expected to throw light on the religious movement out of which the Pitakas also arose. Analyses in English of the published texts, Introductions to them, Catalogues of MSS., Indices, Glossaries, and Notes and Queries on early Buddhist History will appear from time to time in the Society's publications. For persons dwelling in the United States the subscription to the Society will be five dollars a year or twenty-five dollars for six years, due in advance. No charge will be made for postage. To non-subscribers the price of the volumes published will be about double the price of the subscription. The work cannot proceed until a certain sum is in hand; and those who wish to join in this undertaking should therefore send their subscriptions at once to Professor Charles R. Lanman, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

—The European journals bring notices of the life and works of Professor Theodor Benfey, of Göttingen, who died on the twenty-sixth of June, at the age of seventy-two years. He celebrated his "jubilee," or fifty-years' anniversary of graduation from the University as Doctor of Philosophy, in 1878, and had the satisfaction of then receiving tokens of recognition of his eminent services to science from every part of the civilized world; it was not suspected that his career was so near its close. He has represented Oriental, especially Sanskrit, learning at Göttingen since 1834, and has produced a remarkable series of works distinguished by immense erudition and the most indefatigable industry, along with wonderful acuteness and power of divination; but not exhibiting in the same degree soundness of judgment and practicalness. He was one who fought for his own hand, neither belonging to a school nor himself founding one, and holding himself aloof from controversy. His first notable and characteristic work was his Greek Root-Lexicon (from 1839), full of the most venturesome etymologies, of which, however, a larger part than for a time was believed have proved anticipations of science. His 'Sâma-Veda' (1848) was the first complete publication, with accents, version, vocabulary, and other apparatus, of a Vedic text—unfortunately, of much the least interesting one of its class. He produced three Sanskrit grammars, one of them in English, a chrestomathy with vocabulary, and a compendious dictionary. His edition of the 'Panchatantra' was the most important contribution to the study of folk-lore, and especially the tracing of European stories to Indian and Buddhistic sources. His journal, *Orient und Occident*, of which he himself wrote a great part, was unfortunately broken off in the midst of its third volume; apart from it, his numerous occasional articles are to be found especially in the *Gelehrte-Anzeigen* and Transactions of the Royal Society of Göttingen; some of them he recently collected into a couple of small volumes (noticed in our No. 817, Feb. 24, 1881). For many years past, he has been known to be engaged upon a Vedic grammar; and the specimens of it which he has from time to time published in the form of monographs on special points showed it to be constructed upon an enormous scale, and unlikely ever to reach the public in full; it is to be desired and hoped that its substance will be brought out by the care of some other scholar. Of his remaining works, the most conspicuous is a 'History of the Science of Language' and of 'Oriental Philology in Germany' (1869); he also made important contributions to the study of Zend and of the cuneiform or Achæmenidan Persian. He was of Jewish birth but of Christian profession; a man peculiarly and purely devoted to his work, exulting in it, filled with satisfaction at what he accomplished, and well-willing and helpful to his fellows. There remain of his generation of giants now only Pott and Stenzler.

—It would far exceed our limits to attempt a discussion of Horstmann's 'Altenglische Legenden,' chiefly of the fourteenth century (Heilbronn, 1881). We content ourselves with calling attention to the introduction. Here the editor gives, in less than forty pages, a highly satisfactory sketch of the growth of this branch of mediæval literature in general. Beginning with the *officium* and *horæ* of the early church, he shows how the legends of the saints began to acquire importance as a part of the church service in the ninth century by being introduced into the *nocturns*, which were gradually transferred from midnight to morning—*i.e.*, to *matins*. The relation of homilies to legends, and the encroachment of the latter upon the former in the services on saints' days, the formation of a *liber festivalis*, or fusion of homilarium and legendarium for the church year, and the significance of Voragine's *Legenda Aurea* as the final act in a long process of development—these and many other

points are brought out with great precision. No less valuable is Horstmann's exposition of the formation of the lives of the saints, from the calends and diptychs of the early church, through the martyrologies of Eusebius (in the version by Hieronymus), Bede (in Florus's version), Rabanus Maurus, Ado, Usuard, and their followers, to the finishing work of Voragine. The editor's wide reading has enabled him to bring together many facts hitherto scattered through inaccessible monographs and ponderous compilations. His view of the relations of the single churches to the Church in general is instructive; the services rendered by the national churches of Ireland and England are also treated with the attention that they deserve. In short, this Introduction is unquestionably the best résumé we have yet seen of a subject bristling with difficulties of all kinds.

—An important contribution to popular poetry has recently been made by Salomone-Marino in his 'Leggende popolari siciliane in poesia' (Palermo, 1880). The lyrical poetry and popular prose literature of Sicily have been fully collected and illustrated by Vigo and Pitrè, but narrative poetry was so lacking that students have heretofore believed that class to be peculiar to the North of Italy. The present volume, however, and a number of narrative poems in other collections show that the inhabitants of Southern Italy are by no means destitute of the epic spirit, although the tendency of the popular muse is undoubtedly lyric. The collection in question contains sixty-one *leggende*, an appellation embracing both legends proper (historical and local legends) and historical folk-songs, the latter largely in the majority. The collector, in his interesting preface, defends the popularity of his material, even where of recent date and by living authors. In this case the version current among the people only has been accepted. The fact that the author names himself in a legend is in Sicily no proof of its non-popular character, for the ambition to connect his name with this class of poems leads the rustic poet often to attribute to himself an old and anonymous legend or one belonging to another. More important is the distinction to be made between indigenous and foreign legends, for, especially since 1860, the popular literature of the two extremes of the nation is being rapidly exchanged and diffused by means of the army. The contents of the volume are too varied to be more than hinted at here. The poems date from Count Ruggiero (who died in 1101) to the death of Victor Emmanuel and Pope Pius IX. The famous Sicilian Vespers and the political events of 1860 are not forgotten. Here and there we find a pure legend like No. xx., "La Bedda di lu Scògghiu" ("The Beauty on the Cliff"), which relates how a maiden awaited her lover seven years on a cliff, asking the passing sailors whether they had seen him. At last a skipper tells her that he has seen a cavalier, "blond and slender, on a rock, with his breast shattered," whereupon the hopeless maiden throws herself into the sea. A poem on the cholera in 1837 is interesting as showing the belief at the time that the pestilence was spread by means of poisoners (the reader will recall the *untori* of the 'Promessi Sposi'), and it was even believed that King Ferdinand himself came to Palermo disguised as a monk to see whether the poisoning was carried out on a large scale, according to his orders, When we reflect that over sixty thousand people died in Palermo alone in three months, we can imagine what must have been the mental condition of the survivors.

THE ORIGIN OF NATIONS.

The Origin of Nations. In two Parts: On Early Civilizations; On Ethnic Affinities, etc. By George Rawlinson, M.A., Camden Professor of Ancient History, Oxford, and Canon of Canterbury. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1881. 12mo, pp. 283.

As appears from the title-page, Prof. Rawlinson's 'Origin of Nations' consists of two entirely independent treatises, having in common only the purpose of vindicating the authority of the Hebrew Scriptures against the assaults of historical criticism. The first part is devoted to chronology, the second to ethnology. The discussion is conducted with much learning, and has an especial value as being probably the ablest and most complete presentation of the arguments upon this side. The aim in the first part is to show that the results of historical investigation, especially in the decipherment of the monuments, do not invalidate the Scripture chronology. The author takes up the several nations of ancient times in nine chapters (including an Introduction), and discusses with considerable fulness the claims of each to an extreme antiquity. For the sake of completeness he has carried the enquiry a good deal further than was really necessary. If this claim can be sustained at all it is in Egypt, Babylonia, and India. If the annals of these three countries cannot be proved to be irreconcilable with the Scripture chronology, it is useless to look to Phœnicia, Lydia, Etruria, and the British Isles for such antagonism. Indeed, we think any reasonable person would be satisfied to let the question be determined by Egypt, for here we have unquestionably the oldest and longest continuous historical record. Naturally Egypt is the subject of the first chapter of the enquiry; and the enquiry might very well have stopped here.

It is a pity that Prof. Rawlinson does not tell us at the outset what he means by the Scripture chronology. The only clear impression one gets is that the chronology of the Hebrews is materially shorter than the alleged chronology of the Egyptians, and that therefore reason must be shown why the Egyptian chronology may be considered incorrect. Of course, as he himself says, it is very much guesswork. We have Manetho's tables, supplemented in part by the monuments; and it is *guessed* that more or fewer of Manetho's dynasties were contemporaneous. So, according as more or less of this contemporaneity is assumed, we have a number of dates for the accession of Menes, ranging from that of Mariette and Lenormant (B.C. 5004) to Sir G. Wilkinson's (B.C. 2691). The first is manifestly incompatible with the Biblical chronology; the last is quite as incompatible with Archbishop Ussher's chronology (the Deluge, B.C. 2350). Prof. Rawlinson at the close of the chapter decides to follow the Septuagint for this event, which places the Deluge before B.C. 3000. But he does not tell us why he follows the Septuagint for this event, nor whether he follows it for this event alone or adopts it as a whole, nor whether the Septuagint carries the creation back as early in proportion as the Deluge. The argument sums itself up in this: take the latest piece of guesswork for the date of Menes and the earliest for that of the Deluge, and it is certainly possible that the ancestors of the Egyptians, setting out from the Tower of Babel at the confusion of tongues, made their way to the valley of the Nile in time to found this empire.

The fact is, the whole discussion is premature and admits of nothing but "possible." We are willing to allow freely, with Mr. Rawlinson, that we have no clear historical evidence of the existence of any of the great empires earlier than about B.C. 2000, unless it be that of Egypt; further, that, as he remarks (p. 33), it is hard to believe that the valley of the Nile stood alone in excessive antiquity; and that the accounts of the earlier history of Egypt are fragmentary and incomplete in the extreme. For anything beyond this we must wait until the patient scholars who are at work upon this earlier period can offer us something besides guesswork—a time which Brugsch's recent discoveries make, perhaps, not so far distant as has been supposed.

The second part, in seven chapters, may be described as a commentary upon the genealogical table in the tenth chapter of Genesis. The author's object in this discussion, as stated in the preface, is to refute that modern view of Biblical inspiration which maintains that "while the writers of Scripture are to be held infallible guides in whatever relates to religion and morality, in other matters they are to be considered as simply on a par with other men, equally limited in their knowledge, equally liable to error, not a whit superior to their contemporaries or in advance of their age." The genealogical table in question appears to him "to deal a rude blow to such a theory," by proving that the Scripture account is fully substantiated by historical science. With some inconsistency, after this preface, he proceeds to deal with this genealogical table exactly as an unbeliever would do. In the first place he assumes, exactly as rationalists do, that where the Scripture account says "sons" we are to understand ethnological families. In other words, he places this table precisely on a footing with the Greek genealogy of the sons of Hellen. But what right has he, on his own principles, to give any but its obvious meaning to the plain language of the Bible? We read in so many words that "the sons of Japheth" were Gomer and Magog and Madai and Javan and Tubal and Meschech and Tiras; when he says that this means that the branches of the Japhetic race were the Kelts, Scyths, Medes, Greeks, etc., does he not deliberately use his own reason to explain away the language of Scripture?

Assuming, however, that he has a right to use this rationalistic process to establish the verbal inspiration of Scripture, let us examine some of the results at which he arrives. These results are ingenious and interesting, and in many cases conclusive; but let us see how far they can be used to support his fundamental principle, that "if in the material world God has wrought every minutest part to a finish and a perfection the highest that it is possible to conceive, *much more* is it to be believed that in the far more important treasure of his Word he has left nothing incomplete, but has given to every jot and tittle his full care, the utmost perfection of which it was capable, so that the whole is designed and is the utterance to man of Absolute Wisdom."

The seven sons of Japheth, enumerated above (Gen. x. 2), are identified by him with the following branches of the Indo-European race: *Gomer* is the Cimmerians, and the Cimmerians are, of course, the Kymry—that is, the Keltic race. *Magog* is "probably" the European Scythians. *Madai* is, of course, the Medes; *Javan* the Greeks (Ionians). *Tubal* and *Meschech* are the Tibereni and Moschi of Asia Minor; *Tiras*, the Thracians. Thus of the six great branches of the Indo-European race, as recognized by modern scholarship, his analysis

gives us the Iranians, the Kelts and Greco-Romans; the Indians, Slavs, and Teutons are left out, unless we assume with him (p. 177) that the Slavs may be meant by the Scythians (*Magog*), and the Teutons by the Thracians (*Tiras*)—taking as proved Grimm's generally abandoned theory that the Getæ and the Goths were the same. One would hardly say that this was a sufficiently close and positive identity with ethnological science to build an argument upon. In the next chapter Mr. Rawlinson proceeds to identify the sons of Gomer and Javan (mentioned in verses 3 and 4) with branches of the Keltic and Greek races. He then adds: "Why he has taken two only of the races and omitted the other five we cannot say. Perhaps he was not acquainted with the ramifications of the others; or perhaps he regarded them as sufficiently well known to his readers" (p. 189). Again: "The writer here informs us that there were within his knowledge three nations of Cymric and four of Greek origin." "*Within his knowledge!*" Whose? Are we not arguing upon the assumption that the statement is the direct word of God? Are we not told in the preface that we are to expect "nothing incomplete," and have we not here a very incomplete genealogy? Is not Prof. Rawlinson guilty of precisely the heresy that his book is directed against—making out the authors of the Scripture account to be "simply on a par with other men equally limited in their knowledge, equally liable to error," etc.? The argument is perfectly sound on rationalistic principles, and shows in a clear and satisfactory way how to explain the discrepancies and shortcomings of the Biblical record; but as a proof of the verbal inspiration of that record it is puerile. The identity here shown between the Scripture genealogy and the ascertained results of ethnology is so incomplete, and the portion that we have rests so largely upon sheer guesswork, that no person would take it as proving the authority of that record, unless he should start, as Mr. Rawlinson did, with the avowed purpose of proving that record inspired.

Our aim has been merely to show the insufficiency of the particular argument by which Mr. Rawlinson would establish his particular theory of inspiration. It may be remarked that M. Lenormant—whose chronology is furthest removed from Archbishop Ussher's—is a devout Catholic, as uncompromising a believer in the Christian revelation as Mr. Rawlinson himself. But he does not believe that the truth of Christianity depends upon the arithmetic of the book of Genesis.

'RUSSES ET ALLEMANDS.'

Russes et Allemands. Par Victor Tissot. Paris: E. Dentu; New York: F. W. Christern. 1881.

Victor Tissot writes so concisely and clearly on the important subjects of which he treats, that we do not wonder that this book in less than a month from the date of its publication attained a fourth edition. The French public, always eager for information when it is to be obtained at no great cost of time or labor, would naturally feel grateful to a writer who gives them the pith of ponderous German works in a few amusing and well-written pages, and would fly to this volume for light on Russian affairs, which through the assassination of the Czar have somewhat thrust themselves on their notice. Nihilism and secret societies have become the favorite theme for essay and romance, yet of Nihilism proper little was known in France excepting what is to be learned from Turgeneff's novels, or from the incoherent utterances of Rochefort's followers. The "Fathers of Nihilism," the first essay in this book, contains an account of the growth and development of this sect from the teachings of Alexander Hertzen, Michael Bakunin, and Tchernyshevski, with a history of their lives and work. It was at the house of one Stankievitch in Moscow, a follower of the doctrines of Hegel, that Hertzen, after imprisonment and exile, used to meet with the men who made such a mark in Russian literature and science. Bielinski, the radical critic, Granovski, the historian, and Bakunin, together with Hertzen, formed the extreme left of this circle. Aksakoff and Khomiakoff, the founders of the Slavophil party, also belonged to the number. They believed that in the doctrine of Hegel they had found a confirmation of their own views on government and society. "We spent whole nights," says Hertzen, "in discussing every paragraph of the three volumes of Hegel's 'Logic' and the two volumes of his 'Æsthetics.'"

Hertzen began his revolutionary career by publishing two pamphlets, "Dilettantism in Science" and "Letters on the Study of Nature." After a short term of Government employment, during which he wrote stories and novels, he gave himself up to his innovative ideas, in which he had absolute faith. He was, on account of continual conflict with the men then in power, consigned to imprisonment at Novgorod; he gave up his position as councillor, and after the death of his father, a man of fortune, he left Russia for ever. The south of Europe was then in a state of ferment. At Rome Hertzen formed his programme in a pamphlet entitled "Before the Storm," in which the following ideas are prominent:

"The future belongs to socialism, which will develop itself in all its phases to its extreme consequences, to absurdity itself. Then again from the Titan-like bosom of revolutionary minority the cry of negation will be put forth; and a mortal struggle will then ensue in which socialism will take the place of actual conservatism, and will be in its turn beaten by a power to us unknown. The eternal game of life, cruel as death, inevitable as birth, constitutes the ebb and flow of history, the *perpetuum mobile* of life."

This principle of universal negation is the very basis of Nihilist doctrine. In 1848 Hertzen was disappointed with the turn of events, which led to a bourgeois form of republic rather than to a socialistic solution. He continued denouncing it—"Death to the old world! Life to chaos, destruction! Room for the Future! We are not called to reap the fruits of the past, but to be its executioners, to persecute it, to judge it, to recognize it under all its disguises, and to immolate it to the future!" Sixteen years later, in 1864, Hertzen develops the same ideas in a pamphlet published in England under the title of "The Old World and Russia," in which, with sovereign contempt for Western civilization, he declares it to have played out its past and reached the very limits of remoulding. "Our revolutionary ideas are quite incompatible with the existing state of things." The Nihilist cares not what takes the place of what he destroys: "When spring comes again over the whited sepulchres of bygone generations, a young, fresh life will manifest itself!"

It was in 1857 that Hertzen began to publish his paper, the *Bell* (*Kolokol*). He was then living in London. Notwithstanding the most rigorous prohibitions of the Russian Government, the *Kolokol*, sounding the death-knell of despotism, used to find its way into all hands—even to the very table of the Czar. Hertzen's correspondents kept him informed of the most secret mysteries of the state; he knew what was passing at court, in the senate, in the police department, in the state prisons—everywhere. He acquired an immense influence over the educated classes, and the young students were completely carried away by his philosophic and social theories. Hertzen found himself strong enough towards the end of the reign of Nicholas to work for an insurrectionary socialistic movement in Russia, aided by Kelsieff and Bakunin, who were his intermediaries with the persecuted sects. His ideas were thus diffused among the people. In 1861 a monk, Father Pafnuty, came to London to confer with Hertzen, but, shocked by the irreverence and blasphemy of Bakunin's conversation, he returned to Moscow declaring that believers in the true faith could hold no commerce with the "libertines in London." The emancipation of the serfs stopped this movement. Kelsieff sent in his submission to the Government, and Hertzen, who seems to have drawn back when it came to putting his own theories into practice, became an opportunist, leaving Bakunin alone in the field to pursue his dream of annihilation, which has become the programme of militant Nihilism.

Michael Bakunin, born in 1814, was destined, as most noble Russians are, to a military career. After receiving what was then considered an excellent education, and having distinguished himself at his examination before leaving college, he had a right to a place in the Guards. This was, however, refused him, and he was sent to serve in the miserable villages of White Russia at the age of twenty-one. No wonder he got disheartened at so dull a life; he soon sent in his resignation and returned to Moscow, which was, under the reign of Nicholas, the rendezvous of all the malcontents. Bakunin joined at once the learned clique which met at Stankievitch's, and when his friends were dispersed went to Berlin, where he studied at the University. In 1843 he went to Paris, and there fell in with several socialist chiefs, being especially attracted by Proudhon. Espousing the cause of the Poles, he had the police at his heels, and his friends advised him to go to Switzerland, a safer soil for conspirators. He returned to Paris five years afterwards, and at a banquet given on November 29, 1847, to commemorate the anniversary of the Polish revolution of 1830, he made a speech which was translated at once into several languages. In this Bakunin prophesied that the future would efface the differences existing between the two great Slav races, and that they would be united in a federative republic. The Russian ambassador in Paris was ordered to require Bakunin's expulsion from France, and M. Guizot at once complied with this demand. Bakunin remained in Belgium till the revolution of February, which he and all his friends hoped to turn into a general reorganization of Europe. When convinced of disappointment on this score, he took part in June, 1848, in the Congress at Prague, the members of which, consisting of Czechs, Slovaks, Serbs, Poles, etc., dreamed of a federative Slav empire. This scheme failed ignominiously, and Bakunin took refuge among the Berlin radicals. In Dresden he became in May, 1849, one of the leaders of the local insurrection, and himself ordered the throwing of torches of burning pitch on the heads of the Saxon soldiers. He was taken prisoner at Chemnitz, and afterwards condemned to death, but the sentence was commuted to perpetual imprisonment. The Czar Nicholas demanded his rendition as a Russian subject, and

he was eventually placed in the fortress of Peter and Paul at St. Petersburg.

During the Crimean war Bakunin was transferred to Schlüsselburg, and was amnestied at the accession of Alexander II. and sent to Eastern Siberia, whence he escaped through the indulgence of his relative the governor-general, Count Muravieff-Amurski, who gave him a passport to Nikolayevsk; there Bakunin took passage on an American vessel, and thus, through Japan, San Francisco, and New York, got to London in 1861, where he found Hertzen and Ogareff. He determined henceforth to devote his energies to the Slav cause, and redoubled his vehemence against czarism. From the moment Bakunin became a contributor to the *Kolokol*, that journal no longer demanded reform only, but absolute destruction of all existing institutions. He even defended the incendiaries of May, 1862, in St. Petersburg, and incited his adepts to the most bloodthirsty revenge. The Russian liberal party broke entirely with this journal, once its own organ, when, in 1863, it took the part of the Polish insurgents.

The *Kolokol* was then transferred to Geneva, and Bakunin again returned to his former ideas of a cosmopolitan revolution. In 1867 we hear of him as a permanent member of the Peace League, but his views were not those of his associates, and he soon parted company with them and founded a new association, "The International Alliance of the Socialistic Democracy." In a long discourse at the Congress of Bern, Bakunin demanded the abolition of the state; the abolition of marriage as a political, religious, judicial, and civil institution; absolute equality of individuals, and the substitution of science for faith, and human justice for divine justice—in a word, collectivism to replace communism. "I abhor communism, which is the negation of all liberty. I am an enemy to communism, concentrating all the strength of society in that of the state, and putting all property into the hands of the state; I desire the organization of society and property to come from below, not from above; I am a *collectivist* and not a socialist." Hundreds of people became his followers. How many young men and women have devoted themselves to teaching his doctrines to the lower orders, living a life of the greatest privation, and giving up position, friends, and relations for the sake of promulgating these doctrines! How many have been sent to Siberia and their places taken by others! Bakunin sought to justify political assassination in two pamphlets, "Revolutionary Catechism" and "A Message to Russian Officers." When the Prussians were in possession of Paris Bakunin turned his attention to helping France. During the Paris Commune he went to Lyons to try and put his doctrine into practice there, under the auspices of Cluseret and kindred spirits; but when the National Guard took possession of the Hôtel de Ville again, Bakunin returned to Switzerland, where he died at Bern in 1872.

We now turn to Tchernyshevski, the founder of scientific, as Hertzen was of doctrinary, and Bakunin of militant, Nihilism. Tchernyshevski, in his 'Letters without Addresses,' showed how the people were continually called on to fight and to shed their blood for no advantage of their own. They were forced to deliver Moscow from the Poles, to conquer Little Russia, and to turn out the Swedes and Turks. In his commentaries to his translation of Stuart Mill's works he enlarges on the division of labor and the industrial question, discusses Adam Smith's doctrine with regard to social revolution, and refutes the theory of "political economy of the middle classes" to substitute the theory of political economy of the people. Tchernyshevski soon rallied around him the younger generation, who found in his teachings echoes of the pessimist and materialistic doctrines of Schopenhauer, Feuerbach, and Büchner, which had long taken the place of Hegel's philosophy. He wrote a novel while in prison, entitled 'What is to be done?' which created the new type of woman fitted to be the companion of the new type of man. This book became the gospel of young girls, who formed themselves on its heroine. Tchernyshevski represents woman as the victim of society, and incites her to deliver herself from its bonds, asking no help from any one, earning her own bread in order to become free. "The *Vera* of this novel became the model of the short-haired, student-looking girls with spectacles and masculine habits." He completely altered family ties for the younger generation, even changing the relation between husband and wife. Tchernyshevski's conjugal system is somewhat akin to Fourier's and Owen's, though more formalistic and conventional; for many marriages are quite platonic. In this system the woman marries the cause of humanity, and not the individual.

In 1864, after two years of the strictest imprisonment, Tchernyshevski left the fortress of Peter and Paul, to be put in the pillory on a public square at St. Petersburg. The executioner read over him a sentence of fourteen years' penal servitude in the mines for inciting revolt, and after that time perpetual exile. A sword was then broken over his head. Thenceforth dead to the world, he lives as a martyr in the hearts of the people, and from his prison in Siberia Tchernyshevski has done more against Russian autocracy than Hertzen and Bakunin at large in Europe.

Tissot, after giving an interesting account of the growth of Nihilism, continues to show how it no longer follows the old programme of carrying on a war against society, but has become a positive *vendetta* of the most ferocious and sanguinary kind, whose motto is "An eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth." The Nihilists, according to him, have no strong organization, and are continually given up to the police by the peasants they try to convert. He thinks they cannot be under the direction of any central committee, but form independent groups of four or five members bound together by similarity of aim and intention; the richest furnishes the means for the poorer, and if the group is not strong enough to strike the contemplated blow it seeks auxiliaries. People of high rank are supposed to belong to the Nihilists, but what constitutes their real strength is their boldness and heroic contempt for prison, exile, or death. Another curious fact to which Tissot calls our attention is that it is not the poorest sections of Russia, where the inhabitants are in the greatest want, that breed the largest number of political malcontents. The majority of the Nihilist men come from Little Russia, the province richest in corn, in green fields, in well-fed cattle, in vines, where life is easiest, the blood warmer, and passions more easily kindled; while, on the contrary, only the Russian women of North Russia are found in these ranks. They are less ideal in temperament and more positive than the daughters of the steppes. The liberal party demands, as in 1879, a constitution; but the terrorists, those who assassinate, will not rest contented with this even, repeating Hertzen's saying: "A constitution is merely a compact between master and slave." Social transformation by means of the demolition of everything existing will alone satisfy them. What will become of Russia in this crisis is more than our author tries to foresee.

The remaining chapters of this book are on the education of women in Russia, the universities, the Russian army, and the relations between Germany and Russia; also on the important part Germans have played in Russia, and their present influence there. Tissot's arguments go far to convince us that they are generally detested by every true-born Russian, though no doubt his own feelings have some weight on this question. The last essay is on the state of socialism in Germany. In this Tissot gives the history of the life and work of Ferdinand Lassalle. Those who read this most interesting volume will eagerly look forward to Tissot's promised 'Indiscretions de voyage' on Russia and the Russians.

GÜNTHER'S ICHTHYOLOGY.

An Introduction to the Study of Fishes. By Albert C. L. G. Günther, M.A., M.D., Ph.D., F.R.S., Keeper of the Zoölogical Department in the British Museum. Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black. 1880. 8vo, xvi.-720 pp.

Ichthyology. (Article signed "A. C. G." in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' ninth edition, vol. xii.) Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black. 1881. Pp. 630–695.

Dr. Günther has in times past done good service to ichthyology, and has given us the only tolerably complete "Species Piscium," in the form of a 'Catalogue of the Fishes in the British Museum.' This work was issued in eight volumes from 1859 to 1870, and reflected moderately well the state of science at that period. The author, however, has been unable to any considerable degree to discard what he has once accepted and to bring himself into relations with the science of the present, but adheres tenaciously to beliefs formed in a much less advanced state of knowledge, and in spite of conclusive evidence against their tenability. This mental attitude is prominently manifested in his new work as well as in his article in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' The 'Introduction' is really a complement to the 'Catalogue' divided into two parts, viz., a treatise on the principles of ichthyology, and a nomenclature of the genera, with definitions of all the including groups admitted by him. The curiosity with which the experienced ichthyologist will open the book must be soon subordinated to astonishment as he proceeds in the examination of it, for it is scarcely possible that any one should be prepared for the numerous errors of one kind or another that are constantly cropping out on almost every page. It is difficult to believe that one who has written so much on fishes as the author has should make so many lapses.

At the commencement of the chapter on the "History and Literature" it is alleged that "Aristotle had a *perfect* knowledge of the general structure of fishes," and in illustration of the thesis Aristotle is quoted as stating, among other things, that "all scaly fishes are oviparous, but the cartilaginous fishes (with the exception of the sea-devil [*Lophius piscatorius*] which Aristotle places along with them) are viviparous," and that "kidneys and urinary bladder are absent" (p. 2). Nevertheless, we find confronted with these statements contrary ones, to the effect that there are

certain "scaly fishes" which are "viviparous" (p. 159), and that of the cartilaginous "the majority of the Rays are oviparous" (p. 336)—which by the way, however, is also incorrect. Passing over the rest of the first chapter, which is defective in many ways, we come to the second, upon which we shall chiefly dwell. It is devoted to a "Topographical Description of the External Parts of Fishes," and in almost every paragraph there is some ambiguous or misleading statement. A notice of some of the graver errors will form the best means of conveying an idea of the work.

"In the body of a fish four parts are distinguished: the *head*, *trunk*, *tail*, and the *fins*; the boundary between the first and second being generally indicated by the *gill-opening*, and that between the second and third by the *vent*" (p. 35). Now, the boundary between the head and trunk may, in a certain sense, be said to be *generally* indicated by the gill-opening, but when we consider that all the representatives of the sub-classes of Leptocardians, Cyclostomes, and Selachians fail to have the parts so distinguished, and that even among the Teleosts the Pediculates and others form exceptions, the statement is too broad even with the word "generally" introduced. The statement that the boundary between the trunk and tail is marked by the vent is unqualified; nevertheless there are a number of forms which furnish exceptions—*e. g.*, the North American Aphredoderids and Amblyopsids (the latter comprising the celebrated blind fishes) and the South American electrical eel, and all the family of Sternopygids. In the last two the vent is just behind the chin.

"In fishes which are endowed with the power of steady and more or less rapid motion, a deviation from that form of body which we observe in the perch, carp, and mackerel is never excessive. The body forms a simple, equally-formed wedge, compressed or slightly rounded, well fitted for cleaving the water" (p. 35). The form most eminently adapted for rapid progress in the water is exemplified in tunnies and bonitos; their body is fusiform, little compressed, and boldly rounded. The form of the carp is not well adapted for rapid progress, the fish being rather a slow swimmer, and is also not what is generally known as wedge-shaped.

"The mouth is formed by the intermaxillary and maxillary bones, or by the intermaxillary only in the upper jaw, and by the mandibulary bone in the lower" (p. 37). This statement is a remarkable one to emanate from a professional ichthyologist and anatomist. Every tyro knows that the Leptocardians and the Lampreys are entirely destitute of anything like true jaws, and all the Selachians lack developed "intermaxillary and maxillary bones," and have the upper border of the mouth constituted by the palatine bones (p. 69).

"The jaws of some fishes are modified into a special weapon of attack (sword-fish, saw-fish); in fact, throughout the whole class of fishes the jaws are the only organs specialised for the purpose of attacking; weapons on other parts of the body are purely defensive" (p. 37). This paragraph caps the climax of false statements and unscientific generalizations. The implication that the "weapons" of a sword-fish and a saw-fish are both modifications of the jaws is tantamount to the assertion that the jaws and nose are the same thing. Dr. Günther himself has known this (see pp. 336, 337 of the 'Introduction'). There is possibility for difference of opinion as to what are "organs specialised for the purpose of attacking," but there is none that the saw of the saw-fish is a prolongation of the snout, and has nothing to do with the jaws. If it is conceded that any part or "organ" which is efficient for the capture of prey in active pursuit, or for active assault on another animal, is *pro tanto* specialized, there are several parts besides the jaws which are subservient to those ends. None of the sub-classes of Leptocardians or Cyclostomes having jaws, and yet all preying, the parts concerned therein are organs for attacking. (1) In the Leptocardians the fringed margins of the mouth are concerned. (2) In the Cyclostomes the suctorial and dentigerous oral disc and the tongue-like organ are the agents. (3) In the sharks the palatines bear the formidable armature. (4) In the saw-fishes of the shark order (*Pristiophorus*), as well as of the Ray order (*Pristis*), the saw, admitted by Dr. Günther to be a special weapon of attack, is not formed at all by the jaws, but by the rostral cartilage, and thus we have an exception to the generalization specified in the same line in which it is formulated. (5) Dr. Günther himself, in his 'Introduction' (p. 322), informs us, under *Alopecias*, that "when feeding it uses the long tail in splashing the surface of the water, while it swims in gradually decreasing circles round a shoal of fishes, which are thus kept crowded together, falling an easy prey to their enemy." And thus, even if we discredit the use by *Alopecias* of its tail against the whale, etc., we must consider it as to some extent a special weapon of attack. (6) The Sting-Rays (Trygonids) scarcely confine the use of their spines to defence, and these are at least offensive-defensive. (7) The Devil-fishes (Cephalopterids) are said to use the cephalic fins for seizing and grasping (see Elliott's 'Carolina Sports,' p. 58). (8) The Sticklebacks are well known to use the dorsal spines as weapons of attack, and to swim under and rip the belly of their antagonists. (9) The Surgeons, or *Acanthuri*, are credited with using their lancet-bearing tails by actively slashing therewith their antagonists, and it is difficult to surmise what would be the function of their characteristic armature save as weapons of offence as well as defence. (10) The Weevers (*Trachini*) use their opercular spines at least for offensive-defensive purposes, and Col. Montagu called them "*offensive* weapons." It therefore follows that, so far from the jaws "being the only organs specialised for the purpose of attacking," modifications therefor exist in (*a*) the mouth as a whole; (*b*) a peculiar tongue-like organ; (*c*) palatine bones; (*d*) snout; (*e*) cephalic fins; (*f*) supracaudal spines; (*g*) dorsal spines; (*h*) lateral caudal spines; and (*i*) opercular spines.

"In Dipnoi and other Ganoids, one [nostril] at least is within the labial boundary of the mouth" (p. 38). One unfamiliar with ichthyology would infer from this paragraph that one or more of several dilemmas existed, viz.: That some "Dipnoi and other ganoids" *might have* more than one nostril "within the labial boundary of the mouth"; that other existing ganoids had "one at least" or that the characteristic was of too little importance to diagnose. It is necessary, therefore, to be specific. Dr. Günther at one time contended that in the Dipnoi both nostrils were intra-oral, and even in the 'Introduction' (p. 355) asserts that they are "more or less within the mouth." It is quite safe to say that never has a fish been found in which there were (two pairs of) nostrils within the mouth, and the existence of both nostrils within the mouth would be an incredible anomaly. No other existing Ganoid has even one nostril "within the labial boundary of the mouth." The development of the nostrils in the Dipnoi is one of the most weighty and suggestive characteristics of the group, and one by which they contrast with all other living fishes.

"The *gill-opening* is a foramen, or a slit, behind or below the head" (p. 38). This statement is absolute, although we have a number of exceptions—notably all Pediculates—and, as the author himself afterwards admits (p. 39), the genus *Myxine*. These, of course, have the gill-openings behind the head (not in front), but not immediately behind, as is evidently meant.

"The margin of the gill-cover is provided with a cutaneous fringe in order to more effectually close the gill-opening; and this fringe is supported by one or several or many bony-rays, the *branchiostegals*" (p. 38). The statement so absolutely made is not true as to any of the representatives of the sub-classes Leptocardians, Cyclostomes, or Selachians, nor, among living typical fishes, of the Polypteroids and Dipnoans. The homologues may indeed exist, but not as functional "bony branchiostegal rays."

The trunk "gradually passes in all fishes into the tail" (p. 39). To this there are many exceptions, as in most rays, and especially in the representatives of the families Trygonids, in which the tail is very attenuated, whip-like, and abruptly differentiated from the trunk.

"The vent may be either close to the extremity of the tail or to the foremost part of the trunk" (p. 39). From this statement we should scarcely be prepared to learn that the vent may also be situated below the head and as far forward as the chin, behind which it is found in the Gymnotids and Sternopygids.

The pectoral fins "are always inserted immediately behind the gill-opening" (p. 42). The pectoral fins are inserted below the gill-openings in many Sharks, and in all the Rays they extend far forward beyond them. Among the true fishes, in the Pediculates their bases are in advance of the gill-openings, which are in their axils.

"In some Gobioids (*Periophthalmus*), Trigloids, Scorpænioids, and Pediculati, the pectoral fins are perfect organs of walking" (p. 45). It is certainly by the utmost stretch of language that the pectoral fins in any of the Trigloids or Scorpænioids can be said to be organs of walking. In fact, they cannot, in any logical sense of the word, be said to have that function at all.

"Scales of fishes are very different from those of reptiles, the latter being merely folds of the cutis, whilst the scales of fishes are distinct, horny elements, developed in grooves or pockets of the skin, like hairs, nails, or feathers" (p. 46). There are no such differences and relationships.

"All scales are continually growing and wasting away on the surface, and it seems that some fish at least—for instance Salmonoids—'shed' them periodically" (p. 50). This conveys the most misleading and erroneous ideas as to the genesis, development, and mode of growth of scales.

The contradictions of the generalizations just indicated are in almost all instances furnished by the same work. Unquestionably Dr. Günther has known better than might be inferred from the above enumeration of errors. It will certainly appear probable that if he has failed grievously in the treatment of a branch of his subject of which the data are most readily attainable, which is most within the general purview, and which has been the special object of his study, the chances are that he has failed at least equally in his consideration of the more recondite and less known

branches. This anticipation will be found to be fully realized. Every chapter, every section, will be found to be impregnated with errors. The mental idiosyncrasies already indicated may crop out in the most unexpected places, and there is no telling where fallacy of some kind or other may not lurk concealed. But the most apparent and radical defects are the disproportion and incongruity manifested in the systematic portion of the work. The author seems, indeed, to be destitute, to an unusual degree, of a sense of proportion and of taxonomic tact. To enter on a consideration of such questions would, however, transcend the limits of a review. Suffice it to state that he is not in accord with the best systematic zoölogists and original investigators.

Never has a score of years been so fruitful in researches and results as the period between the inception of Dr. Günther's 'Catalogue' and the present. In that interval Darwin has given to the world his immortal work and revolutionized the methods and objects of biological investigation, while laborers almost innumerable have elucidated the various branches of ichthyology—the anatomy, embryology, the past history, the systematic relations, the species, the geographical distribution of forms, the faunas of the world. All these have been in vain for Dr. Günther. One of the principal discoveries—that of *Ceratodus*—has been recognized by him simply to become a stumbling-block and involve him in one of the most astonishing mazes of errors of modern times. Unquestionably, the most prominent characteristic of the present time is the acceptance of evolution and its ramification into all the details of biological investigation and classification. But in the 'Introduction to the Study of Fishes' no allusion has been made to this principle, and the author's treatment of his subject indicates that it has been practically ignored. There is, however, no group of animals to which its application is more fruitful in suggestive and profitable results than the branchiferous vertebrates. Still scattered in the waters of the globe live here and there as solitary survivors representatives of types, once abounding in species, that enable us to trace the lineage of our branch from the humblest beginnings to the specialized Acanthopterygian and grotesque Plectognath and Lophobranchiate fishes in one offshoot, and to man in another. It is strange that evidence so striking as that furnished by the forms in question should have been so entirely overlooked by Dr. Günther. The failure to appreciate the facts doubtless results from the method pursued. A certain type has been assumed as "highest" on account of vague psychological conceptions, and with this as an initial form others are successively taken up, till the author has lost his bearings and recklessly dealt with the remainder. Had he been compelled to begin his series with the generalized, and then proceed to the more and more specialized, types the faults that now pervade his work would doubtless have been fewer.

Poetry of Byron. Chosen and arranged by Matthew Arnold. New York: Macmillan.

THE preface to this newest addition to the Golden Treasury Series is an essay on Byron by the editor (published some months ago in *Macmillan's Magazine*), including a justification of his attempt "to separate from the mass of poetry which Byron poured forth all this higher portion, so superior to the mass, and still so considerable in quantity, and to present it in one body by itself." The attempt seems measurably successful; it is certainly felicitously executed, though every one will probably, as we do, miss something or other not necessarily excluded by the scheme of selection. If any appreciable number of readers of the present generation, whose misjudgment of Byron is one of the strangest mixtures of literary ignorance and affectation, are led to read him by the present selection, from which the dross of his product is excluded, it is not to be doubted that it was worth making. At the same time we can hardly go along with Mr. Arnold in thinking Byron lends himself as happily to this treatment as Wordsworth, the same editor's volume of selections from whose works is an absolute success. Not, however, because, as Mr. Swinburne maintains, Byron "can only be judged and appreciated in the mass." Mr. Arnold seems to us to answer this objection sufficiently. But whereas very little more of Wordsworth's than is contained in Mr. Arnold's volume is worth much as poetry, a great deal that is here passed by is interesting and valuable, though it may be superfluous to a correct appreciation of Byron. In other words, the Wordsworth volume is a satisfactory substitute for Wordsworth's complete works, the Byron volume is by no means a satisfactory substitute for Byron's. "The Giaour" is undoubtedly a "string of passages," as Byron called it, but they are all of interest and value; "The Excursion," on the other hand, may have all the philosophic unity its author claimed for it, but by no means all of it is worth reading and owning. Neither does Byron's bad work obscure his good, as Wordsworth's does, it should be added.

Therefore it is for the missionary service it is likely to perform that this book is mainly important. In the same way, though to a greater degree, we think it may be affirmed, the essay which prefaces it will be found of importance. The point of view is this: "Surely the critic who does most for his author is the critic who gains readers for his author himself, not for any lucubrations on his author." Admirers of Mr. Arnold's gift of critical definition will possibly regret that he has given us so few of his own lucubrations in this essay. He borrows his statement of Byron's excellence from Mr. Swinburne, and he uses very happily the remarks upon his subject of Goethe, M. Taine, M. Scherer, Professor Nichol, and others, in order to present his view of the true portrait of the man and the poet. This view was long ago presented in brief in a few sentences of his essay on Heine, and the original "lucubrations" here are little more than an elaboration—though a powerful and telling one—of his old remarks that Byron "inevitably shattered himself to pieces against the huge, black, cloud-topped, interminable precipice of British Philistinism"; that he was "the greatest natural force, the greatest elementary power, which has appeared in our literature since Shakspere"; but that, "except for his genius, he was an ordinary nineteenth-century English gentleman, with little culture and with no ideas." The effect of the essay is, however, to our mind, enhanced by the way in which it is written, and it will not only gain more readers for Byron than an elaborate piece of special pleading and analytical examination would do, but the persuasiveness and verisimilitude of its conclusions are increased. They are, at any rate, we should say, nearly unimpeachable.

The Young Folks' Astronomy. By John D. Champlin, Jr. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

IT is always a difficult matter to put one's self in the child's place—to whom everything on the earth is new—and say what his thoughts are of the newer things he is told about in the sky, when he is beginning to study astronomy. The ideal text-book for the child's instruction would be made in some such way as this: Let the author take ten lads—separately, if possible—and put them through a course with the aid of a text-book like the one before us, carefully observing the impressions made upon their young minds by the various passages of the book, and particularly noting the sections which their frank questionings will show to be obscure or imperfectly treated. The book is then amended and afterward subjected to a similar experiment—that is, the whole method would be an approximative system of text-book building, the true scientific process. All this, of course, points directly to the fact that practical teachers would be the best able to make new text-books, unless their special knowledge were too restricted from coming at second hand. Unfortunately, this latter is too often the case, and there are evidences of it in 'The Young Folks' Astronomy.' To say that the "attraction of gravitation was first found out by Sir Isaac Newton"—a common blunder—is a good deal like saying that Benjamin Franklin discovered lightning. It is well enough, perhaps, as a general statement (though in effect a popular error), to say that the earth rotates on its axis once in twenty-four hours; but when the statement is made for itself alone, the more exact time—twenty-three hours and fifty-six minutes—should be given, unless it be expressly noted that the time is sidereal. We would not have spoken of the "edge of the earth" (in treating of twilight), of a "strong telescope," instead of a powerful one, of the "causes" (presumably meaning laws) of the movements, etc. No one read in recent astronomy would speak of transits of Mercury and Venus as giving the best means of calculating the sun's distance—if, indeed, Mercury would ever give any approach to the true value; and astronomers have pretty much given over Venus for anything accurate.

The typographical errors are few for even a small work of this sort. On page 146 reference is made to "satellites of the planets shown by dots near them," but neither satellites nor planets appear in the picture indicated; page 157, Mars, "a little less than half" should be "a little more than half"; page 186, the "distance of the nearest of them [fixed stars] is more than five hundred thousand times the distance of our sun from the earth" was probably intended for "two hundred thousand," etc. But the little book is full of good points, its typography is excellent, the illustrations are generally well chosen, and the fact that a fair share of them is taken from Newcomb and Holden's 'Astronomy' is a sufficient guarantee of their value. The book would be much improved by the addition of two or three easy lessons about telescopes, the velocity of light, the simpler methods of finding the sun's distance, etc.

The Sailor's Handy Book. By E. F. Qualtrough, U.S.N. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE matter of this manual is well arranged and carefully selected, being in great part a reprint of Bedford. It contains more useful information for the general nautical reader than any of its size heretofore published, and many of its sections are valuable to all seafaring men. By yachtsmen and captains of coasting vessels in particular it will be prized as a book of reference, but, until our naval service is more Anglicized than at present, naval

officers will find it more curious than helpful. The author's treatment of disinfectants, management of boats, and cutting and fitting rigging is not up to the standard of the rest of the work, and his terms, although professional in an English sense, are, in many cases, strange to our officers and seamen. As a whole, the book is a welcome addition to the nautical library.

A Brief History of Ancient Peoples; with an account of their Monuments, Literature, and Manners. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1881. 12mo, pp. 312–xvi.

BARNES's series of school histories is, for the limited ground that it covers (only the United States, France, and ancient nations), perhaps the best there is; and it is no doubt all the better for the slowness with which the successive volumes make their appearance, arguing a corresponding thoroughness of preparation. The author has a genuine power of narration and of selection, so that the books are at once readable and accurate, and contain, on the whole, what is best worth knowing. The field of ancient history is not so well adapted to compendious treatment as that of modern times, because it is made up of the separate histories of several distinct nations, to which, when told separately, it is hard to give reality or picturesqueness of effect by reason of the necessary brevity; while, on the other hand, it is difficult to weave them into one continuous narrative. Thus the volume before us contains nine histories instead of one. It would be impossible entirely to obviate this disadvantage; especially the histories of India and China, for example, do not touch those of Greece and Rome at any point, and must be treated independently. We think, however, that if the author had fully digested Mr. Freeman's great theme of the unity of history he would have found it possible to present in one consecutive view a history of that civilization which found its seat in Greece and Rome, with just its necessary connections in Egypt, Palestine, and other Oriental nations. That is all the ancient history that our school-children want—rather a view of ancient times than of the several ancient peoples.

The author has made as good a book as the method permitted, and it is especially noteworthy for the prominence given to the history of civilization proper. We find a few surprising misprints. In the table of contents, *Medea* for *Media;* p. 16, *Ædipus* for *Œdipus;* p. 133, *Pausanius* several times for *Pausanias* (which occurs once).

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Amenities of Home. New York: D. Appleton & Co.
Aunt Mary's New England Cook-Book. Boston: Lockwood Brooks & Co. 60 cents.
Cooke, Prof. J. P. Scientific Culture. New York: D. Appleton & Co.
Craik, Georgiana M. Sydney: a Tale. New York: Harper & Bros. 15 cents.
Dewey, Miss J. Helps to Devout Living. 3d ed. Boston: Lockwood, Brooks & Co. $1 25.
Dictionary of Education and Instruction. New York: E. Steiger & Co. $1 50.
My Sister Kitty: a Tale. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
New York Illustrated. New York: D. Appleton & Co.
Paul Hart: a Tale. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.
Sardou, A. The French Language Self-Taught. New York: D. Appleton & Co.
Scarborough, Prof. W. S. First Lessons in Greek. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. $1 25.
Silliman, A. E. Gallop among American Scenery. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. $2 50.
Spielhagen, F. The Skeleton in the House. New York: George W. Harlan. 25 cents.

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By J. D. Champlin, Jr. 16mo, illustrated, 60 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 18, 1881.

The Week.

THE saddest tidings that could afflict the American people are, as we go to press, being momently feared, if not awaited. Between the two classes of unofficial reports which have been current since the attempt on the President's life, the public mind, naturally hopeful, has steadily inclined to the more favorable, and latterly it might almost be said that all concern had been dismissed. The news on Monday, therefore, of the gastric difficulty which threatened to deprive the President of strength to endure even the healing wound, came with a shock hardly inferior to that of the first announcement of Guiteau's crime. Whether the stomach can recover its tone sufficiently to take nourishment again, is the grave question of the hour. There is nothing to be added to what has been already said regarding the calamity of President Garfield's death, if recovery is indeed impossible.

The Treasury drew into its vaults during the week a great deal more money than it paid out, and the result was a heavy decrease in the surplus reserve of the New York banks, leaving this surplus $2,087,500, against $5,735,225 the week before, $9,970,000 a year ago, and $1,408,500 two years ago. On the other hand, the rates for foreign exchange fell so much that at the close of the week there was a profit in importing gold. Less dependence is placed on gold imports as a resource for the autumn money market than on the heavy disbursements to which the Treasury is committed by reason of the refunding of the 6 and 5 per cent. debt at 3½ per cent. On the 12th of the current month about $12,000,000 5 per cent. coupon bonds matured, the money for which will come out gradually, and on October 1st about $30,000,000 5 per cent. registered bonds fall due, but can and will be paid before then, provided holders present them and are content to take interest up to the day of presentation. These extraordinary disbursements should prevent any stringency in the loan market, quite apart from the influence of gold imports. The difficulties between the trunk-line railroads continue unsettled, although negotiations are still pending between the respective presidents. A meeting of the Executive Committee of the trunk-line pool was held early in the week, but as important companies were not represented the proceedings were of no practical influence. The negotiations which are going on between the respective presidents of the leading roads have in view the formation of what is called a "money pool" for a term of years; that is, a lumping of the money received by all the lines for through-traffic, and its division on the basis of the relative business which the companies did last year. There is now little reason for believing that an arrangement of this kind can be made which will be satisfactory to all. The failure to come to an agreement has depressed the prices of the whole list of stocks. Another influence in the same direction late in the week was the serious relapse in the condition of President Garfield; and altogether the week at the Stock Exchange was one of depression. The price of silver continues steady at 51½d. per ounce in London. Here the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar closed at about 86⅝ cents.

The only political event of the week of any consequence was the action of the Virginia Republicans at Lynchburg. There were two conventions—of the coalitionists and the "straight-outs"—the latter engineered by Congressmen Jorgensen and Dezendorf, names that have a strange sound in the politics of the *pur sang* Mother of Presidents. An attempt to harmonize these two bodies proved unsuccessful. The straight-outs adjourned without being able to find candidates who would stand. The coalitionists resolved to make no nominations except locally, where their strength permitted, and recommended the general support of the Readjuster candidates. They professed the most honorable intentions with regard to the debt, however. Aware how little there is to choose on this head between the rival factions, they accused the Funders of being opposed to free schools, a free ballot, and a fair count, and of maintaining the odious capitation tax The Mahone party has therefore its coveted alliance. A correspondent, by the way, corrects our remark last week that Lynchburg was "a Mahone stronghold." The vote last year on the Readjusters' electoral ticket was almost too small to be counted, and the town is "regarded as the debt-payers' stronghold." But what we had in mind was Mahone's material, railroad interests centring at that place.

The majority against prohibition in North Carolina increases daily. Our correspondent on another page speaks of 30,000 to 50,000; but eighty-one counties have already made the majority 110,720, and the Raleigh *News* thinks that 10,000 will still be added. It is pretty certain that the temperance movement will not achieve any considerable success in that State so long as election returns require a fortnight to "come in." The Georgia Senate has just defeated a general temperance bill by a close vote.

Mr. John Thompson, the President of the Chase National Bank, and, he says, the oldest member of the Bankers' Association, read a paper on "Panics" at the convention at Niagara Falls on Wednesday week. It was rather a warning that there would shortly be a panic here than a discussion of panics in general. He declared that "the signs of an approaching 'blizzard' are numerous, but very delicate as yet"; that "the negotiations, the issue of stocks and bonds, are fourfold what they were in 1873," and as he thinks "panics occur every decade," he evidently looks for another in about two years. But then he is mistaken about the period of recurrence in panics. It is ten years in England; in this country it appears to be about twenty years. If we are to judge from the history of American panics, the next ought not to come before 1890, or thereabouts. It is very probable that the war and the abundance of irredeemable paper precipitated that of 1873, and that in the ordinary course of speculation we should not have had it before 1877, or twenty years from that of 1857, as that of 1857 was about twenty years from that of 1837. The reason of the greater staying power of American speculators is probably to be found in the more rapid increase of population through immigration, and the greater extent and productiveness of the fields offered to capital in this country. These two things, combined perhaps with the more sanguine temper of the people, sustain speculation twice as long as in England. Just now these agencies are more than usually powerful. Immigration is going on on an enormous scale, and the effect of existing railroads in developing production in the far West is unprecedented. In addition to this, too, not only has the producing power of the South been greatly increased, but, what is perhaps of more importance in its bearing on panics, its consuming power has been greatly increased. The negroes are in the market as buyers with varied wants, and plenty of money to spend. And we must not overlook the fact that the rate of interest is for this country still unprecedentedly low, which shows that though the speculators may be already displaying great recklessness they are still a long way from the end of their resources.

Their borrowing powers, however freely exercised, have evidently thus far made little or no impression on the mass of capital within their reach. This is due very largely not only to the great drafts we have been able to make on Europe during the last few years, through the sale of our crops, but also to the restored confidence of English investors in American securities, combined with complete loss of confidence in a large class of investments of which ten years ago they were very fond. They have been thoroughly frightened away from lending to states, like Turkey and Egypt and the Central and South American Republics, which were able to borrow such large sums before 1873. Land they will not now touch except at prices which but few owners are yet prepared to accept, and are very chary about lending on mortgage except with a margin which few borrowers can now offer, so that what used to be considered one of the very safest modes of putting money out at interest is practically closed to them. The general result is a flow of capital to this country which makes it difficult, for the first time in his experience, for the American investor to get more than five per cent. for his money, and makes it easy for the American Government, for the first time in its experience, to borrow all it wants at three and a half per cent Mr. Thompson's warnings are of course not to be disregarded. The seeds of the next collapse are doubtless being actively sown by thousands at this moment, but there is every

reason to believe that it is not so near as he thinks it is, and that the American panic cycle still stands, as it has stood since the beginning of the century, at twenty years or thereabouts. If it be asked why, when the period of recurrence is so well known, the speculators do not close up their transactions before it comes, the answer is that they always come to ruin through mistakes about the length of time it will require to carry out their undertakings. They know as well as any one that things cannot go on indefinitely as they have been going, but find they cannot unload as rapidly as they thought they could, and need, say, another year or two.

The best paper read before the Convention at Niagara Falls was that by Mr. George S. Coe on "The Currency of the Future." The gradual and certain extinguishment of the public debt at a period which can now be easily computed brings up the question, How shall the circulating notes of the national banks be secured when there are no longer any United States bonds to secure them with? Shall bank circulation cease altogether? Shall the national system be abrogated and the old State-bank system revived? Or shall national banking be continued under some other guarantee for the redemption of bank notes; and if so, what sort of guarantee? Mr. Coe dismissed the alternative of an exclusive greenback circulation, deeming any greenback circulation unsound and impolitic when no longer justified by the fiscal necessities of the Government. He also dismissed the alternative of a return to the State-bank system, with its multifarious confusion and its frequent swindling of note-holders. The national system, in some sort, he thinks, must be continued, and will be demanded by public needs and public opinion, after the national debt shall have been practically extinguished. But it can continue only on condition that the people believe that the notes are secured beyond the possibility of loss to the holders. It will not be sufficient that they are so secured, but the public must be convinced of the fact beforehand. There must be no more room for doubt about it than that 25 8-10 grains of gold are equal to a dollar. If the national-banking system is to be continued at all, this is its first requisite and *sine qua non*. Mr. Coe thinks security can be obtained under the National Banking act as it is, with additional provisions that the circulation of banks be limited to one-half or three-fourths of the cash capital paid in; that in case of bank failure the note-holders shall be preferred creditors, and that the notes shall draw interest at an extra rate for every day that they remain unredeemed after presentation.

We are constrained to differ from Mr. Coe both as to the estimation which the public will put upon such security and as to the sufficiency of the security itself. The National Banking act can never be better than the means employed to enforce it. Although its system of inspection by Government officers is very nearly perfect on paper, it is often found to be bad in practice—so bad, indeed, that in some of our large cities the condition of affairs could not have been worse if there had been no public inspection at all. Perhaps we shall be asked whether we can show a case of bank failure where the assets, coupled with the liability of stockholders, would not have been sufficient to redeem all the notes the bank would have been entitled to issue, and to pay interest on them also. We can at least easily imagine such a case. The spiriting away of a bank's assets has been known to take place by design, and under the very nose of a bank examiner. The best guarantee against this sort of rascality is the watchfulness of the bank depositors and their knowledge of the character and resources of the banker—that is, neighborhood knowledge—a kind of information not within the reach of the note-holders, who are scattered over a continent. But supposing the assets would always be sufficient to pay the principal and interest on the circulating notes at the end of a receivership; that would not be convertibility—it would not prevent the notes from depreciating in value, and therefore would not prevent the people from abrogating the whole system as soon as they began to feel inconvenience from it. The national banking system is too valuable to be lost, but it will be lost beyond a doubt if the security to note-holders is exchanged for anything less trustworthy and less esteemed than the Government's guarantee. We have no doubt that when the emergency which Mr. Coe anticipates actually comes, some way will be found to preserve this guarantee, and with it the national-banking system in its entirety.

The *Times* publishes some extracts from a letter on the subject of the proposed bankruptcy law, which calls attention to one of the most crying evils which the lack of a uniform law always produces. In many of the Western and Southwestern States, where public opinion and consequently legislation are apt to be strongly influenced by a consideration for the supposed interests of debtors, the exemption of "homesteads" from liability to sale under legal process has been carried to a point unknown in any other part of the civilized world. The Kansas Exemption law, for instance, covers a quarter-section of land in the country, an acre in an incorporated city, with all the improvements, and a good deal of personal property besides. It is said, and the estimate seems rather low, that under the provisions of this statute a debtor can withhold from seizure property to the extent of $100,000. The principle of the exemption of actual "homesteads" is a sound one, but the inflation of the "homestead" to this extent is objectionable. Such a law in many cases deprives a creditor of all redress. It is curious that communities which are always in the market as borrowers should think it advisable to pass laws which can only have the effect of frightening away lenders who do not like to take great risks; it is to the existence of such laws that the high rate of interest prevailing in the communities which pass them is partly due.

The first meeting of representatives of the civil-service reform associations organized in different parts of the country took place at Newport on Thursday. It was agreed to recommend and to employ every honorable means for the purpose of securing the passage by Congress of the bill introduced in the Senate by Mr. Pendleton, providing for competitive examinations preliminary to the appointment of persons to subordinate places in the Government service, and the bill introduced by Mr. Willis, of Kentucky, in the House of Representatives, prohibiting the levying of assessments for political purposes upon persons in the employ of the Government. The former is simply the legal embodiment of the system already tested in several offices in Washington and in the New York Custom-house. As it has been and is now in actual operation, there is no longer any doubt of its practicability, and the results of its working have been such as to settle the question of its usefulness. Mr. Pendleton's bill is designed to perpetuate it and to give it a more general application. Among those who have made the condition and needs of the civil service a subject of earnest study, there is scarcely any difference of opinion as to the desirableness of the passage of such a law. Mr. Willis's bill does not limit the freedom of anybody in the public service to contribute money to a campaign fund, if he really wants to do so, but it prohibits every sort of official pressure, and imposes proper penalties upon every attempt to apply such pressure. There will scarcely be any disagreement among sincere friends of civil-service reform on this point.

A resolution was adopted recommending the holding of "local examinations at various points convenient for those who might wish to be examined, for the different States"—which meets the objection that the system of competitive examinations would fill the Government offices at Washington with persons living near that city; and that the local boards conducting such examinations should be under the supervision of the Civil-Service Commission, existing by virtue of law. This resolution was intended to express the assent of the conference to a plan now said to be entertained and discussed by members of the present Administration. Finally, a resolution was adopted inviting the several reform associations to unite in forming a National Civil-Service Reform League, of which the Executive Committee of the association at New York, together with additional members to be designated by the other associations, are to act as a provisional "Central Committee," and the existing organizations were further requested to use their best endeavors for the formation of similar bodies in every Congressional district in the country. There is no reasonable doubt that all the associations already organized will comply with this request, and that the National Civil-Service Reform League will soon be an accomplished fact.

The efforts of the Commissioners of Emigration and the steamship companies to come to an agreement upon the question of immigrant fees have failed, and the matter is to go into litigation. The Supreme Court of the United States decided that the old law of New York

which levied a tax upon every passenger was unconstitutional, because it was a restriction upon commerce, and therefore beyond the regulating power of the State. The effect of this decision was to leave the Commissioners without money to carry on their useful and necessary work. The Legislature afterwards passed another law providing for the collection of inspection fees for every passenger; and it is this act which is now the subject of controversy. The representatives of the steamship companies deny its constitutionality, but it was understood some time ago that, recognizing the importance of the work of the Commissioners, they were willing to pay a part of the money. Negotiations to this end have fallen through, and a test case is to be submitted to the courts. It is difficult to see how the decision already made can be evaded. If the State tax is an unauthorized regulation of commerce when it is called "head-money," calling it "inspection fees" can scarcely make it anything else. It is desirable, however, to settle the question finally, so that if the State has no power in the premises Congress may provide for the supervision of immigrant affairs.

The *Times* publishes an interview with a gentleman, whom it vouches for as a competent observer, giving a gloomy picture of the condition of Mr. Hughes's colony at Rugby, Tennessee. He says that the settlement is in the middle of a virgin forest; that though the land had been partly cleared there appeared to be "no real soil anywhere"; that in the "English garden," the special property of the association through which the colony was started, "corn was a sad failure, the spindling stalks bearing little if any grain." There was "alleged hay," but "tomatoes were the only things that had at all the appearance of life." The investigator next discovered "a ravine running in picturesque beauty through one of the most romantic stretches of territory" he ever saw, "but there was no more soil through that ravine than lay up in the woods, and a man would die a dozen times before he was ever able down there to earn his bread and butter," and the same "mean dead land" he "found everywhere." The colonists are "much above the average of immigrants in point of intelligence," and are for the most part "really refined and inclined to be social." They have also "beautifully mown lawn-tennis grounds," but there are not more than three hundred of them at the outside, and nobody is "intensely enthusiastic" over the success of the colony. One gentleman "prominent in Rugby" acknowledged "that there was not prevalent the fullest sense of satisfaction. He said it had been discovered that large crops, such as wheat and corn, could not be even measurably well raised on their land; then he added, with no great show of enthusiasm, that it was possible manufactories might be established or that fruit trees might be found to thrive, and he had some other 'mights' to quote. But he spoke hesitatingly, and admitted that a big blunder had been made in bringing the colony across the ocean without a definite and fixed plan and without a full knowledge of the locality chosen for settlement."

The Lords, on the second return of the Land bill from the Commons, with some portion of their amendments accepted and the rest rejected, gave over further opposition, and on Tuesday put the bill upon its final passage, reserving the right to make a formal protest to the country. The Home Rulers have bitterly reproached the Government for its surrender, attributing a farcical character to the apparent contest between the two houses. Mr. Gladstone, however, denies that there was any understanding which brought about the compromise, and the Lords have therefore the full credit of their prudence, as well as of their boldness in demanding concessions. The bill will take effect this week.

The news from Rome that the Pope is thinking of leaving the Vatican, and has made known the fact in a circular to the nuncios abroad, is hardly to be taken seriously. It is most probably a confession that the weapons of defence against the "Subalpine King," so long used both by the present Pope and his predecessor, are worn out, and that some new mode of rousing the faithful must be resorted to. These weapons consisted in almost equal parts of lamentation and denunciation—lamentation over the condition of faith and morals all over Christendom, and denunciation of divers persons not named for their machinations against the Holy See. In fact the Papal Encyclicals, ever since 1849, may be said to have constituted a new kind of literature, the like of which had never been seen before. Of course the only thing that could make them effective was miracles or "special Providences" of a penal character directed against the persons or classes whom they held up to reprobation. As these have not come, and as the Pope's "imprisonment" in the splendid palace and spacious gardens of the Vatican cannot be made to wear a very dreadful air to a badly lodged and mocking generation, he has evidently reached the end of his resources, as far as minatory pastorals go. He is probably, too, and not unnaturally, alarmed by the disgraceful disturbance at Pio Nono's funeral, followed as it has been by a meeting in favor of the withdrawal of the parliamentary guarantees by which he holds the Vatican as a sort of sovereignty.

Any how, he is evidently going to try for some time the threat of running away, in the hope that it will harm or embarrass the Italian Government. But that he really means to go it is impossible to believe. There is, to begin with, no place for him to go to in which he would not be completely stripped of the dignity he gets not only from the guarantees but from the hoary and venerable traditions which surround him at the Vatican. He would plunge any Government on whose soil he settled into difficulties with its own subjects, compared to which those of the Italian Government are trifling. There has been for years talk of the British letting him settle in Malta, but in Malta he would have to live under the law; and a Pope living under the law would be sure before long to be in trouble with heretic officers of the law. If any Power ceded him territory—a little island like Elba, for instance—he would either have to defend it against communistic and atheistic filibusters, and thus become a fighting man—which the modern world will not stand—or provide himself with an armed foreign protector, which the other Powers would not stand. Italy is probably the only Power which Europe would now see in charge of the Pope without jealousy or irritation, if he were to keep up any state; so that the probabilities are that he will now, instead of writing a denunciatory circular when he is vexed, give orders to have his things packed, as a means of bringing the subalpine usurper to terms.

In the dim light of the reports which have reached us about it, the tour of Czar Alexander III. and his family from Peterhof to Moscow and back bears a very melancholy aspect. The motive of it is stated to have been—the communication comes from Copenhagen—the discovery on July 27 of a new plot against the imperial family, in which a number of persons of high rank were involved. The court departed a day or two later, without open preparation and without any announcement of the object and extent of the journey. The arrival at Moscow was, it appears, without *éclat*, and the words publicly addressed by the Emperor to the people of the old capital were not words of cheer and encouragement, but a faint expression of affection and sadness: "Moscow has always given an example to the whole of Russia; I hope it will ever continue to do so." The newspapers explained that the Czar had come to Moscow to do homage before its holy shrines. On the 31st the imperial party left suddenly—the telegram says "secretly"—for Nizhni Novgorod. In possible explanation of this unexpectedly speedy departure, we have the news, concurrently telegraphed from two quarters, that another conspiracy against the life of the Czar had been frustrated by the police, though the would-be assassin, a lady of high rank, managed to escape. All we hear after this is that the imperial family arrived at Nizhni Novgorod on August 1, at Yuryevetz, in the Government of Kostroma, on the 2d, and at Peterhof on the 5th—the journey having been completed in a week. It seems to have been the very opposite of a new monarch's triumphal tour; if it was not a double flight, it certainly had the appearance of it. No utterance of any importance was made by the Czar or by his adviser and travelling companion, Ignatieff. No allusion to the coming coronation was made, though many believed the imperial party contemplated staying in the old capital till coronation-day. The Old Russians and Slavophils expected a strong declaration in accordance with their political theories and aspirations, and must feel disappointed and mortified by Alexander III.'s lack of courage to make it. Nor is there any distinct indication that he is inclined to choose the opposite course and follow the path of liberal reforms which public opinion in St. Petersburg demands. He apparently hesitates and wavers, discouraging all his friends, while his foes are desperately active.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

THE week has been one of much anxiety at Washington, inasmuch as the President's pulse and temperature kept up after the time allowed by his physicians for the effect of the last operation to pass off in. Saturday there were unauthorized rumors that the trouble lay in the retention of pus in the wound, and that it had been determined to cut for the ball at all hazards, in order to establish a clear outlet from front to rear. Sunday, however, it appeared that the wound was doing very well, but that increasing debility had seriously affected the stomach, making it impossible for the President to retain any nourishment, or even a swallow of water, and requiring the administration of nutriment by injection. The temperature declined, the pulse quickened alarmingly, as did the respiration, and sleep was only induced by opiates. The physicians admitted their anxiety with great candor, for the first time since recovery began to be hoped for. Monday night the President slept well without the aid of hypnotics, though he had another bad time with his stomach about three o'clock. Tuesday morning he was very weak, and inclined to drowsiness, and the pulse had fallen from 125, or even 130, to about 110.

The Virginia Republicans held an excited convention at Lynchburg last week over the question of nominating a straight ticket or endorsing the Readjuster nominations. The delegates who assembled in the city on the 9th inst. speedily divided into two camps of straight-outs and coalitionists, and proceeded to hold conferences and informal discussions in advance of the meeting of the convention. It was rumored that Mr. Cochrane, chairman of the State Central Committee, had announced his intention of excluding all but straight-outs from the convention hall, and accordingly a prominent coalitionist at once rented a much larger edifice, and two conventions soon appeared inevitable. The "attitude" of the Administration was the subject of heated controversy, and though the straight-outs maintained that before his illness the President sympathized with them, the large preponderance of Federal office-holders on the other side was pointed to as significant. On Wednesday two conventions did meet. That of the coalitionists was decidedly the larger. Its sessions were also marked by greater and more eloquence. A conference committee was finally appointed by each body and decided upon making no nominations and no endorsement of the Mahone ticket. This agreement the coalitionist convention refused to ratify, and the straight-outs followed their example. The former at once proceeded to endorse the Readjusters' ticket, to appoint a State Committee, and adjourn. The straight-outs adopted a strong anti-repudiation platform, nominated General Wickham for Governor and Samuel Yost for Lieutenant-Governor, and upon the declination of both gentlemen adjourned *sine die*.

The New York Chamber of Commerce held a special meeting on the 10th to consider the freight question, so prominent at present, and appoint delegates to represent the Chamber at the Utica Conference called for to-day by a number of trade organizations throughout the State. After the appointment of delegates the report of the Special Committee on Transportation was read. It closed with a number of resolutions which were unanimously adopted, and were to the effect, among other things, that thanks be tendered to the trunk-line managers for "the general reduction in westbound open or tariff rates when it became evident that large shippers could command undue influences over shippers in general"; that "the amount of watered stock has nothing to do with the cost of transportation," which alone should govern rates; that "the practice of making excessively low rates during the season of navigation and unreasonably high rates during the winter months" is discrimination against the State as the owner of the canals and detrimental to commercial interests generally; that "reasonable, uniform, and public rates" are best for both commerce and the railroads, and that "we willingly concede rates which will pay liberal dividends upon the actual cost of construction," while demanding that stock watering shall cease and the public be guaranteed against its recurrence "by adequate legal enactments." Ex-Senator Conkling is expected to attend the convention, being "in sympathy with the objects of the meeting."

The Joint Executive Committee of the trunk lines and their Western connections met in Commissioner Fink's office on the 10th instant. Thirty-one roads were represented by agent or proxy. None of the Vanderbilt roads were represented in any way except the Michigan Central, of which the General Manager was present. Commissioner Fink announced the object of the meeting to be a consideration of the causes of the break in tariff rates, and of the best means to restore and maintain them. The first step to be taken was, he thought, "to concentrate the rate-making power in the hands of fewer persons, and to hold them responsible to the committee for any violation of the agreements." After a somewhat desultory discussion, in which Vice-President Blanchard repelled attacks on the Erie Railway Company, the committee voted unanimously to restore rates on east-bound freight to 20 cents per hundred pounds on grain and 25 cents per hundred on provisions from Chicago to New York, the new rates to go into effect next Monday. Whether they will or not is, of course, extremely uncertain, as the meeting was only a conference—or at least was so described by the only Vanderbilt representative present.

A convention of the American Bankers' Association met at Niagara Falls on the 10th instant. Papers on "The Coming Panic," "The Lake Trade," "Money and its Legitimate Uses through the National Banks," "Money and the Banking System" (Ex-Governor Fenton), and kindred topics were read by or for different bank presidents of this city, Buffalo, Portland, Me., and Madison, Wis., on the first day. On Thursday a letter from Secretary Windom on the recent funding operations was read. Controller Knox discussed at length "The Banking and Currency of the Country," and Mr. George S. Coe, of this city, read a paper on "The Currency of the Future," after which he was elected President of the association for the ensuing year. Bank taxation and a number of other subjects were considered on Saturday in various short papers, and the convention adjourned.

Many of the agents of the European steamship lines held a meeting last week to discuss the movement of the Emigration Commissioners to induce the companies to pay the emigrant head tax of $1, as provided by an act recently passed by the Legislature. It was the sense of the meeting that the tax was exorbitant by fifty per cent. and was, moreover, unconstitutional. The Commissioners also held a meeting on the same day, and decided to begin separate suits against the companies for each shipload of emigrants that henceforth arrives at this port.

Representatives of the various civil-service reform associations in different parts of the country met at Newport, R. I., on Thursday last, with the design of agreeing upon certain specific objects to be promoted by popular agitation and petition to Congress, and of establishing a centre of correspondence among the different associations to facilitate needed unity of action. It was agreed to use every means to secure the passage of the Pendleton bill, and the bill introduced by Mr. Willis, of Kentucky, into the House of Representatives prohibiting the political taxation of office-holders. Resolutions were also adopted recommending the holding of local examinations at points convenient for candidates, and inviting the several reform associations to form a National Civil-Service Reform League, and subordinate organizations in every Congressional district in the country.

Services were held on Sunday at Sea Cliff, L. I., the well-known camp-meeting ground, to commemorate the heroism of the late Captain Charles P. Smith, who saved so many lives at the time of the Seawanhaka disaster. Three thousand people were present. Mayor Grace was to have presided, but was unavoidably absent, and sent a letter which was read among other regrets. Mr. S. L. M. Barlow and other survivors of the accident attended, and after prayer, the singing of a hymn, and the reading of Scriptures, brief addresses were made, and the oration of the occasion was delivered by Mr. Richard O'Gorman.

The Coroner's inquest into the circumstances of the death of Conductor Lattin, of the New Haven Railroad at Rye, some weeks ago, was concluded last Thursday, the jury censuring the officers of the road for "gross negligence of duty in not familiarizing themselves with the fact that their rules have been violated at Rye station for the past ten years."

The deaths have taken place during the week of Matthew Vassar, a benefactor of Vassar College and nephew of its founder; ex-United States Senator Orville H. Browning, of Illinois; Señor Maximo Jerez, Nicarauguan Minister to this country; Mrs. Millard Fillmore, widow of the late ex-President; and Capt. Carlile P. Patterson, Superintendent since 1874 of the United States Coast Survey. Mr. Vassar's will contains a large number of bequests to educational and benevolent institutions. The Vassar Brothers Hospital (founded by the will) is given $85,000, besides being made residuary legatee; $50,000 are left to Vassar College for educational and scholarship funds, and $80,000 for professorships, and $15,000 are bequeathed to the Vassar Brothers Home for Aged Men.

Judge James D. Colt, of the Massachusetts Supreme Bench, shot himself in his office at Pittsfield, on the 9th instant, while laboring under the depression of hypochondria.

The agent at Rosebud has forwarded to the Interior Department further details of the killing of Spotted Tail by Crow Dog. According to his account, a conspiracy has existed among the subordinate chiefs of the tribe for some time, Black Crow being at the head of it and making no secret of his intention to get for himself the position of head-chief by fair means or foul. The agent therefore arrested Black Crow as an accessory, together with the actual murderer, and sent both to Fort Niobrara; which action has had an excellent effect upon the people at large, he says. He further recommends that no successor to Spotted Tail be appointed, since the office of head-chief is "a hindrance to civilization," the main business of its occupant being to centralize all power in himself. Delegates to Washington should, in his estimation, be selected for their general intelligence and loyalty by the agent.

A destructive flood took place last week in Gilpin and Clear Counties, part of the northern mining country of Colorado. The towns of Central City, Black Hawk, and Idaho Springs suffered greatly. The flood began in a mountain storm, and in an incredibly short time was sweeping everything before it. Two lives were lost, several persons were wounded, there were many narrow escapes, and the loss of property is estimated at $120,000 in the three places.

FOREIGN.

The difference between the House of Lords and the Commons over the Land bill has created a good deal of excited speculation in England during the week. The bill was returned to the Commons on the 9th, and since then it has apparently been the Government's policy to accede to all reasonable amendments made by the Upper House, but to reject all those conflicting with the principles of the measure or in any way tending to defeat its substantial success in operation. The Liberal press has exhibited some fears of compromise and has

been full of adjurations to Mr. Gladstone to stand firm and let the consequences take care of themselves. There has been more or less serious talk of the peers remaining precisely as firm on their side, with the result of an appeal to the country by Mr. Gladstone. This course, however, commended itself to no one but the Parnellites, whose numbers would undoubtedly be increased by an election now. The *News* remarks: "If Mr. Gladstone resigns he would make the peers our masters. If the vote of a majority of the hereditary legislators could at any moment overbear the decision of the country, parliamentary government would become a farce. The same may be said of a dissolution of Parliament and a general election."

So far as "demonstrations" indicate public opinion, the peers have been shown that the press has not misinterpreted it, and Lord Salisbury probably could see nothing to gain by a dissolution. Saturday afternoon public meetings were held in various parts of the country, and on the same evening Liberal organizations, farmers' associations, and agricultural laborers' clubs everywhere assembled and denounced the peers with enthusiasm. On Monday there was a numerously attended meeting of the Committee of Federation of Liberal Associations, Sir Wilfrid Lawson and Messrs. Monk, Collings, Firth, and Barran, members of Parliament, being present. Resolutions were adopted which declared that the Lords had mutilated the Land bill in the interest of land-owners to such a degree that it was wholly unacceptable; appealed to the Government to adhere to the measure as it left the Lower House and withstand a class majority of peers; and pronounced the constitutional question raised as to "the possibility of maintaining a system which will enable an irresponsible chamber to defeat the will of the nation." Mr. Gladstone received on Monday a hundred messages from Liberal clubs and other organizations urging Government insistance, and was appealed to in the House by several of his followers to the same end.

At a recent council of the English Cabinet, it is understood that the proposition was made to drop the Coercion act, and if after the passage of the Land bill there should be a reasonable prospect of restored tranquillity, to liberate the prisoners arrested under the act after each had served a term of six months' imprisonment. Up to the 2d instant there were 192 such prisoners.

Mr. Bradlaugh has been ill with erysipelas since his encounter with the police in his attempt to enter the House of Commons. It is believed that he will take no more active measures until the next session of Parliament, when the Government will propose a resolution allowing him to take the oath, and if the resolution is defeated, will introduce a bill altering the Parliamentary Oaths act.

The British "industrial classes," or such of them as are opposed to free trade, held a large meeting in Exeter Hall, London, on the 10th instant, at which Sir Algernon Borthwick, proprietor of the *Morning Post*, presided, and to which the workmen's societies of Bristol, Birmingham, Liverpool, Leeds, Hull, Glasgow, and other industrial centres sent delegates. The chairman made a speech, in which he said that France had made the greatest advances within the past twenty years; that America came next, while England was a bad third; which state of things he ascribed to the British policy of free trade. He advocated a duty of a shilling per quarter on all imported corn. Commander Cameron, the African explorer, followed to the same effect, supporting a resolution that called for "the imposition of such revenue duties as will enable British manufacturers and workmen to compete on a fair footing with foreigners in the British home market" One of his arguments was that President Garfield had pronounced protection necessary to American prosperity, and if that was the case with "a young country and virgin soil," it was so with England. The resolution was adopted, and sent to the Government and to the opposition leaders. It is likely that the three months' prolongation asked by England of France for the commercial treaty will be granted, *M.* Saint-Hilaire evincing every disposition to grant concessions. In the House of Commons on Saturday Mr. Ritchie (Conservative) moved an address to the Crown praying Her Majesty to withhold her consent from any treaty with France which substitutes specific for *ad valorem* duties to the detriment of British manufactures. After opposition by Sir Charles Dilke, the motion was negatived by a vote of 150 to 80.

Premier Ferry has been strongly attacked by a Gambettist writer, and, with the usual credence given in Paris to such straws, it is accepted as a "declaration of war" by the President of the Chamber upon the Government. At a banquet given to M. Ferry at Raon-l'Étape, in the Vosges, the Premier prophesied the return of moderate men as the result of the election, and dwelt on the necessity of rejecting Socialist candidates and of concord among the Republicans. At a banquet in his honor at Nancy on the 10th inst., however, M. Ferry made the following remark: "The country will reply that between a moderate, partial revision (of the Constitution), such as was recently explained by the great orator at Tours, and an absolute, violent, and radical revision, which is the favorite idea of the irreconcilables, there is a gulf—an abyss"; and still more significantly he added that "should some one be found with more powerful hand than mine" to effect Republican union, "I am ready to assist him as first lieutenant." A correspondent says this is "generally understood" to indicate the complete submission of M. Ferry to Gambetta.

Meantime "the great orator" made a speech Saturday evening at Ménilmontant which "is interpreted" as a decision to accept the Premiership of the next Cabinet. He made an elaborate statement of the reforms he counted on carrying in the next Chamber. First came the reform of the magistracy and the army. The number of judges and law courts could be reduced, and something similar to the English circuit system be adopted. He believed in making compulsory army service universal, including priests and teachers, though he favored abolishing the system of three years' service. He would refuse liberty of association to religious congregations, and adopt a foreign policy of peace and firmness. "France was not isolated, but she needs no alliance." He added: "I hope to see the day when our severed brethren will once more be united to France," to which remark the *North German Gazette* takes grave exception. "It shows," says the *Gazette*, "Gambetta's anxiety to be regarded by his countrymen as one who has devoted himself to a lifelong task of effecting the realization of French projects of revenge."

The International Exhibition of Electricity was opened in Paris on the 10th instant by President Grévy, accompanied by the Ministers of Marine, Foreign Affairs, and Posts and Telegraphs, M. de Lesseps and others. The United States section was much behindhand at the outset, though the Edison display was described as "very promising." Saturday night Edison, through his agent, created a good deal of commotion by a seizure, upon injunction, of the Maxim lamps in the Exhibition, which were at once sealed up.

The London *Times* Rome correspondent says the recent statement by the *Diritto*, that the Pope intends going to Malta to reside, is true in substance, but that no immediate action is contemplated, the fulfilment of the threat (or announcement) being "dependent on circumstances." Cardinal Jacobini explains a paragraph in a subsequent circular to the ambassadors at the Vatican as intended to draw attention to the "increasing possibility of the Pope's departure from Rome."

Recent persecutions of Russian Jews have been so scandalous as to lead to a Government investigation at Kharkoff, where Count Kutisoff received a deputation of Hebrews on Monday, who ascribed the riots to a variety of other than economic causes. They were assured that the Government was determined to prevent the repetition of outrages, and to that end had instituted an enquiry into the condition, numbers, and occupations of the Jews of the western provinces. The Emperor William has also commanded special information from the local authorities as to the recent Semitic persecutions in Pomerania.

The King and Queen of Spain have been inspecting the navy at Ferrol amid local rejoicings and the customary pageantry. There is much excitement over the coming elections, which occur Sunday next. The Basques and Navarrese threaten a return of ten or twelve Carlist Deputies, and Don Carlos has sent written instructions to his party to take part in the elections and do their best. As many as are elected, however, will, of course, have to take the oath of allegiance to Alphonso in order to retain their seats. Castelar's electoral speech delivered in North Aragon is censured by the Republican press for its concessions to the conservative principles of the Government; he was very severe upon radicalism, and the candidates of his party of advanced Republicans will, it is reported, receive Government support.

There is also a good deal of excitement over the elections in Germany, particularly in the press, the *North German Gazette* having become so much heated in its attacks on the Progressist papers that the latter have "declined to notice it in any way," whereat the *Gazette* exults. The appointment of Dr. Korum to the vacant bishopric of Treves, in Rhenish Prussia, is accepted as an indication that Bismarck has, after all, "gone to Canossa." The Berlin correspondent of the London *Times* comments thus on the incident: "The Government has allowed the Catholic clergy to exercise their old influence upon the public schools in regard to their administration. Different dioceses have been again instituted, the payment of clergymen's salaries renewed, and the rights of the orders for nursing the sick enlarged. The Government took these measures in the interest of the state, but the Curia has made no sacrifices. It has succeeded only by passive resistance, and it is feared that other and greater concessions will be made to the Vatican, particularly if the elections produce a conservative majority for the Government."

The Cornell crew have again been defeated abroad, experiencing hard luck at Vienna also. Great preparations had been made for the race, which was for a trophy valued at £250, and it was witnessed by vast numbers of the Viennese. Betting was in favor of Cornell, as the Vienna crew had had but a few weeks' practice; but the latter appear to have obtained a winning lead before Shinkel, the Cornell stroke, was taken with cramps, when the visitors were obliged to stop rowing and give up the race.

The drought in Switzerland has now lasted two months with the exception of a few showers, with the result of completely burning up the grass and preventing the usual second hay crop. In most parts of the country also there is a great scarcity of water, from which and from the heat whole herds of cattle have perished in the Canton of Schwyz, in the Vaudois Alps, and in the valleys of the Jura.

The correspondent of the London *Daily News* who was imprisoned at Merv with slim chances, as he thought at one time, of ever getting away, has arrived at Meshed, and telegraphs that the Tekke chiefs before his departure desired him to deny absolutely the rumors of negotiations between them and Russia, and the presence of three Merv Elders at St. Petersburg. Persia, he declares, is anxious to secure the alliance of the Mervli, who are, however, opposed to it.

"PRESSURE."

THE utterances on civil-service reform which recent events have called out from Congressmen, leading off with Mr. Dawes, of Massachusetts, all but invariably, while deploring the position in which the present system places members of Congress, throw the blame of it on "pressure" from their constituents. We believe that during all the discussions of the last ten years not one Congressman has avowed that he liked to share in the patronage and profited by it personally. They all say they do not like it and would gladly be rid of it. Some say, however, that they do not see what could be substituted for Congressional recommendation, as long as the President has to fill places with persons, from distant parts of the country, of whom he cannot possibly have any personal knowledge. Others say it were easy enough to find a substitute for it, if "the people" were willing that one should be found, but maintain that "the people" are not willing. Their constituents, they allege, not only insist on members of Congress providing candidates for Government employment, but engage in the pursuit of Government employment, through members of Congress, with such vehemence and eagerness that Congressmen, whatever their private opinions about the spoils system, have to submit. This is substantially the position of Senator Dawes. It is the excuse which nearly every member of Congress, if driven to the wall, makes for failing or refusing to give the civil-service reform movement more active support. Nothing would please him better, he will say, than competitive examinations or any other test which would relieve him of the odious and troublesome duty of dunning the departments, but he is only a representative, and has in this as in other matters to meet the wishes of those who elect him.

That this defence produces a good deal of impression on the public mind there is no doubt. The steady and useless repetition of it for many years has created a very hopeless feeling among a large portion of the public about the possibility of any change. It has bred even among those who most deplore the evils of the spoils system the kind of resignation which one so often meets with among the enemies of universal suffrage. They dislike it, but they submit to it as they submit to bad weather, or the deceitfulness of riches, the ingratitude of children, or any other national or social phenomenon which individuals can do nothing to prevent. Many, indeed, have come to look on the spoils system, or the distribution of patronage through Congressmen, not only as inevitable, but as something peculiarly American, a national characteristic which it is now idle to inveigh against. The American people, they think, are bent on holding office. Every family wants at least one office, and the member from the district has to try to procure it; and the member generally says the truth of the matter is, that if we want civil-service reform we must begin, not by berating the President and the Senators and the Representatives, but by taking the individual American citizen into some secluded place, and convincing him of the vanity of office-seeking and of the moral beauty of appointment for merit and tenure during good behavior.

Now, a flood of light, might, we think, be let in on the subject if Congressmen would explain in detail what they mean by "pressure," and what they mean by their "constituency," when they are talking about the inevitableness of the spoils system. This is apparently just one of the cases in which facts and figures would almost close the debate. "Pressure" from constituents is not an imponderable agent, like heat or wind. Nor is it a bodily sensation, like the "sinking," or "feeling of goneness," which the patent-medicine vendors describe in aid of the sale of their bitters. "Pressure" is something tangible, visible and describable. It means a certain number of applications for Government employment from a certain number of persons, who give their names and addresses and produce a certain number of recommendations in support of their applications. They go in the flesh to the Congressman, and he keeps some record of them in the shape of memoranda or correspondence. He knows exactly how many of them come to him in the course of a year, and knows what kind of persons they are. He knows or does not know what their antecedents are, and what reasons they give for wishing to enter the public service. He knows, too, how many of the voters of his district are sufficiently interested in each case to sign testimonials, or write private letters about it. Any Congressman can, therefore, if he pleases, tell the public exactly what the "pressure" on him amounts to, and thus enable it to judge to what extent, if any, the spoils system is rooted in popular support, or, in other words, what proportion of the American people is interested in its maintenance. If it really appears that the bulk of the constituencies exert themselves even in a small degree to keep it going, of course a great deal of trouble would be saved. The civil-service reform associations would be greatly discouraged, if indeed they did not shut up shop, and the spoils system, instead of being denounced, would begin to go round the world as an American invention with gum shoes, mixed drinks, and the air-brake.

To make our meaning more clear, let us take Mr. Dawes's case as an illustration. He says he is, like other Congressmen, the victim of "pressure." Now, we do not know what this means any more accurately than if he said that he was "not feeling very well to-day." But let him furnish us with facts and figures, and all will be clear. The total vote of Massachusetts in 1880 was 282,512. This is really Mr. Dawes's constituency. But let us suppose that, for office-seeking purposes, it is only the Republicans whom he represents. His constituency then consists of 165,205 persons. They form a busy, industrious, intelligent, and well-to-do community. If any considerable number of them have been bringing "pressure" to bear on their Senators about offices, it certainly would furnish a weighty argument in favor of the spoils system. Now, what are the facts of Mr. Dawes's "pressure"? Have 200 voters pressed him in the course of the past year? Or 500? or 1,000? or 2,000? or 5,000? or 85,000? Let us know, if possible, what this mysterious force consists of.

THE RAILROAD WAR.

MR. C. F. ADAMS, JR., and Mr. David A. Wells have practically resigned their positions as arbitrators under the pooling arrangement of the trunk-line railways, each of them having addressed a letter to the Executive Committee declining to receive compensation for their services while they have no duties to perform. This action undoubtedly signifies that they look upon the present railroad war as not likely to be soon terminated, for if it had no deeper root than the jealousy and excessive zeal of local agents engaged in "cutting rates" at Kankakee, Kalamazoo, Council Bluffs, etc., they would probably conclude that the storm would soon blow over, and would therefore take no official notice of it. Whatever their opinions may be as to its probable duration, their refusal to accept money legally their due, but which they have not earned, must impress the railroad men as something novel in their experience.

The opinion has gained ground in Wall street that Mr. Vanderbilt really began the present war, and that he alone can put an end to it, but that he is not likely to do so until there shall have been a trial of endurance sufficient to demonstrate who is the strongest, and leave nothing open to doubt upon that point hereafter. Mr. Vanderbilt's recent interviews with newspaper reporters seem to confirm this view. He has assumed the attitude of a champion and defender of the trade of New York. He has taken his stand on the platform prepared for him by the Chamber of Commerce Committee three years ago, and which he then rejected as untenable and chimerical. The Chamber of Commerce contended that New York was entitled to equal rates with other seaboard cities without regard to distance; the pooling arrangement having made differential rates in favor of Baltimore and Philadelphia intended to counterbalance the advantages which New York possessed as a shipping point. It is worth remarking that Mr. Albert Fink contended at the time that New York gained rather than lost by this arrangement, since it was susceptible of proof that Baltimore and Philadelphia possessed advantages in respect of distance and cost of fuel which would enable their railways to carry at a small profit even when the New York railways were carrying at a small loss. In other words, he held that if competition were allowed to have free play, New York would lose rather than gain, so long as the issues of the fight depended upon the mere cost of carrying; *i. e.*, the wages, the wear and tear, and the fuel expended. If the rates charged on through business—from Chicago, for instance—should fall below cost (as they have recently fallen), so that the difference must be made up from other sources of revenue, or by assessing the shareholders, then Mr. Fink could not assume to be wiser than others in telling how the grain trade would be divided between the several Atlantic cities. He did say, however, that the bankruptcy of one or more of the trunk lines would not put an end

to the fight, but would rather aggravate it, since in railroad wars the victory is to the weak and not to the strong; a railroad in the hands of a receiver being under no obligation to pay dividends or even interest.

Wall street has its ideas also concerning the reasons which impel Mr. Vanderbilt to enter upon a railroad war. Zeal in behalf of the mercantile interests of New York is not one of the motives with which he is credited, since the facts are in no wise different from those which existed in 1878 when he was specially appealed to by the Chamber of Commerce Committee and declined to accept their advice. Various motives are ascribed to him which are not within the range of newspaper discussion, since none of them can be verified. When a person charged with such weighty responsibilities adopts a policy destructive not only of the property under his immediate care but of other properties equally extensive, he ought to have very good reasons for what he does, and he ought to explain them in such a way as will leave no doubt as to what they really are, however much their sufficiency may be called in question.

The public who are not shareholders in the New York Central or any rival railway are supposed to reap benefits from the railroad war. So they do while it lasts, just as they would if tea and coffee fell from the clouds in sufficient quantities to give everybody a month's supply for nothing. If we could have fiat transportation as easily as the Greenback party think we might have fiat money, the prices of wheat and corn would be no higher at the doors of a New England factory than on a Western farm, and that of cotton cloth would be the same to the Minnesota grain-grower as to the Lowell operative. This would be a temporary advantage to both, since each would have the money now bestowed upon the carrier to expend in other directions. But since the present railroad war can last but a short time, being necessarily limited by a few weeks or months, its effect upon the public will be like that of any other carousal. Markets will be deranged by the introduction of other than business principles into trade. Expectations will be excited which cannot be realized. Secrecy and uncertainty will take the place of prudent calculation. There can be little profit and no satisfaction in business which moves by a succession of jerks; and in the end the commercial community will be required to pay the expenses of the war if any means can be devised by the exhausted combatants to collect it from them. Moreover, it is not unlikely that Congress may take a hand in settling this and all other disputes to which the railways are parties, being moved to do so by their confessed inability to settle their disputes among themselves. The railroad problem will appear to be more of a problem than ever when acknowledged experts are unable to solve it, and empirics will come to the front with remedies which may prove to be worse than the disease, but which they will insist upon trying through the medium of legislation. They will be nothing daunted by the fact that rates are as much too low as they have at other times been too high; nor is there any good reason why they should be. If Mr. Vanderbilt can blow hot and cold out of the same mouth, they can accomplish the feat with equal vigor and at less expense to themselves.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF GAMES.

WHATEVER may be thought hereafter of the nineteenth century in other respects, it will be impossible for posterity to deny that it has done more for the advancement of games and sports than any century since the fall of the Roman Empire. Not only has it greatly popularized them, but it has developed them to an extent hitherto undreamed of, and in this process has greatly enhanced the dignity of the position accorded to them in the general estimation. With a large and constantly increasing class in England and America, they have acquired a place among the serious occupations of life; and this is true not merely of "professionals," but to a very great degree of amateurs as well. The constantly growing importance attributed to the whole subject is reflected, of course, pretty accurately in the press, and, to judge by the space given up to it, it would hardly be an exaggeration to say that capable men who devote their exclusive attention to racing, rowing, wrestling, running, walking, polo, rackets, lawn tennis, chess, billiards, or whist, have just at present a better chance of immediate distinction and world-wide fame than is afforded them by literature or art, or the church, or law, or politics.

The distinction, too, is rendered all the more attractive by the fact that it comes, at least in the case of all outdoor sports, early in life, when ambition and the enjoyment of applause are both at their keenest. Sidney Smith used to insist that for perfect happiness in life every man ought for three or four years at the opening of his career to be a belle. A distinguished young polo player or lawn-tennis champion or boating man has now the opportunity of enjoying many delightful sensations closely analogous to those hitherto monopolized by successful *débutantes*.

There is no better indication of the intense seriousness of Anglo-Saxondom, in this comparatively new field, than the surprising development that all the games and sports to which it has devoted itself have undergone within the last fifty years. In trotting horses, for instance, everybody can remember when the limit of extreme speed was about one-seventh slower than it is now. In rowing it is difficult to tell with mathematical accuracy what the improvement amounts to, owing to the differences created by currents, winds, and tides, and the fact that no two courses are alike; but no one at all familiar with rowing either in England or America will doubt that, if the two could be fairly compared, the performance of a crack racing crew to-day would make that of the crews of twenty or thirty years ago seem like the work of mere bunglers. In cricket the constantly increasing skill in bowling has made it necessary to diminish the width of the wicket, we believe more than once in the history of the game; and base-ball, to judge by many of the best recent games, would seem to be rapidly nearing a point at which, with two evenly matched nines, it would be impossible for either side to score anything. In long-range rifle shooting the scores have become almost incredible. In lawn tennis, a game of comparatively recent invention, an amusing excitement has been produced by the innovation introduced this summer by an English player named Renshaw, and called after him the "Renshaw Smash," as to which it seems to be a disputed point whether the game can longer be played against any one who has made himself a master of it.

Exactly the same thing is going on in regard to indoor games. The principles of whist as the game is now played by really distinguished players, or explained in treatises of recognized authority, constitute a little science which bears pretty nearly the same relation to the art of playing the game that thoroughbass does to that of musical composition. In billiards the rapid development of what is known as the "rail" game by professionals made it necessary a year or two ago to remodel the rules entirely. A delicacy of touch and a sharpness of vision had been developed which enabled a really expert player, after once getting the balls into a certain position, to continue scoring almost indefinitely. After much painful and conscientious thought had been devoted to the subject it was determined to prevent this by new rules which should make "open" playing on certain parts of the table necessary; but it is now said that the masters of the "rail" game have learned to cope with this new obstacle, and that some drastic measures will have to be speedily resorted to or the old difficulty will reappear.

It is a fact which may be worth the passing attention of social reformers and others interested in ascertaining the true place of women in modern life, that this development of games and sports should thus far have been exclusively the work of man. There is nothing in the Constitution or laws of either England or America to prevent women from devoting their time and attention to this sort of activity. Nor do the prejudices of society any longer stand in the way. No one considers it improper for a woman to row a boat, or to play ball, or lawn tennis, or billiards; but for all that they have developed surprisingly little proficiency in any of these directions, and, except as spectators, have done almost nothing for the advancement of this great modern interest. Of course in many sports their physical weakness puts them at a disadvantage if they play against men, but then they need not play against men. In this kind of contest men always prefer to be pitted against adversaries of their own sex. Why do not women like the same thing? It is notorious that they dislike nothing so much. Intelligent women always have rather a hankering for a share in the amusements of men, and their beautiful taste for self-sacrifice is seldom more touchingly shown than when they resist their longing to take part in sports which they usually spoil. Again, there are many games in which physical strength is not needed for excellence. Most of the leading billiard players now on the stage would stand a very poor chance in any athletic contest. Yet in billiards women have as yet made no mark. There are no eminent women "professionals" in any part of the world. What the true explanation of these facts may be, we will not undertake to say. Conservative sociologists, who take the old European view of the relations between the sexes, will perhaps say that the fondness of man for games and sports is connected with the inherent pugnacity of his disposition; that even civilized man is at bottom a fighting animal, and that the secret of his universal enjoyment of amusements of this sort is not the game itself, but the struggle for victory. No one, however, who knows much about domestic life will admit that the *gaudium certaminis* is exclusively a masculine trait. Whatever the true explanation may be, the fact cannot at present be disputed. If we could imagine the world carried on by women alone, one of the first results of the extinction of man would unquestionably be the disappearance from it of almost all the games

and sports which now constitute so large a part of its serious work.

THE MONARCH MUMMIES OF EGYPT.

CAIRO, EGYPT, July 25, 1881.

A DISCOVERY has just been made in Egypt which, besides being of the highest archæological value, cannot fail to arouse special interest in America. The obelisk which now stands in Central Park was hewn from the granite quarries at Assuan, in Upper Egypt, and erected at Heliopolis, the City of On of the Bible, by order of King Thothmes III., the fifth King of the XVIIIth Dynasty, who reigned B. C. 1600. The central columns of hieroglyphics of each of the four faces of the obelisk set forth the titles and honors of Thothmes III., whom Dr. Brugsch Pasha has designated as the Alexander the Great of Pharaonic history. Two hundred and seventy years later (B. C. 1333), King Ramses II., surnamed Ramses the Great (the Sesostris of the Greeks), ordered that his own titles and honors be inscribed upon the obelisk. The two outside columns of each of the four faces of the Central Park obelisk are composed of the hieroglyphics of Ramses the Great. Three thousand years later—that is to say, in the month of July, A.D. 1881—the mortal remains of these two monarchs were discovered in an almost perfect state of preservation in a cave cut in the solid rock near Thebes, where, together with the mummies of thirty other royal personages, they had been concealed by the Egyptian priests during those stormy days when Cambyses and his Persians overran Egypt and mutilated her sacred monuments.

Last June Daoud Pasha, Governor of the Mudirieh of Kench, noticed that the Bedaween brought in an unusually large quantity of relics, which they offered for sale at unusually low prices. This aroused suspicion, and by means of rewards and threats of corporal punishment the Pasha found out that what seemed to be an inexhaustible store of antiquities existed in a cave in the mountains near the Temple of Deir-el-Báhari, about four miles from the Nile to the east of Thebes. Daoud Pasha at once telegraphed the fact to Cairo, and the Khedive directed Herr Emil Brugsch, a younger brother of Dr. Brugsch Pasha (who, during the absence of M. Maspero, was in charge of the Boulak Museum), to proceed at once to Deir-el-Báhari and investigate the matter. The result is that day before yesterday Herr Brugsch returned from his mission and safely landed in Cairo a steamboat full of the most precious relics of the Theban dynasties. The following list of the principal objects of this "find" cannot fail to be of interest:

MUMMIES OF SOVEREIGNS, WITH THEIR WOODEN COFFIN CASES, JEWELS, CANOPIC JARS, ETC., INTACT.

	Approximate date (Brugsch).
1. Aahmes I. (Amosis), 1st King of XVIIIth Dynasty	B.C. 1700
2. Amenhotep I. (Amenophis), 2d King of XVIIIth Dynasty	" 1666
3. Thothmes I., 3d King of XVIIIth Dynasty	" 1622
4. Thothmes II., 4th King of XVIIIth Dynasty	" 1600
5. Thothmes III. (The Great), 5th King of XVIIIth Dynasty	" 1600
6. Ramses I., 1st King of XIXth Dynasty	" 1400
7. Seti I., 2d King of XIXth Dynasty	" 1366
8. Ramses II., 3d King of XIXth Dynasty	" 1323
9. Pinotem I., 2d King of XXIst Dynasty	" 1022
10. Raskhenen (?)	

Queens:—

1. Ra-ma-ka (Hatasou?)
2. Aa mes Nofert Ari.

Seventeen other princes and princesses, and among the latter Maut Nedjem, a daughter of Ramses the Great.

Four papyri in a perfect state of preservation. One of these, that of Queen Ra-ma-ka, is most beautifully illustrated and illuminated in green and scarlet. It measures sixteen inches wide, and, when unrolled, its length will probably be found to measure 120 or 150 feet.

A magnificent tent made of pieces of leather of different colors and bearing the cartouche of King Pinotem I., with the royal vulture and stars in red, yellow, and green.

Fifteen enormous wigs which were worn upon occasions of ceremony. These wigs are about two feet high, and are made of curled hair or wool falling in braids behind the back.

Three thousand seven hundred small porcelain funereal statuettes, each bearing cartouches and inscriptions.

Nearly two thousand other objects; such as drinking cups, baskets, vases, lamps, urns, chairs, dried fruits, boxes, etc., etc.

It is impossible to estimate the archæological value of these treasures until a careful inspection of them has been made and the papyri fully interpreted and compared with others. In the meantime the articles are carefully locked up in the Museum of Boulak, which is now necessarily closed to all visitors. M. Maspero is at present in Paris preparing for publication the texts of the pyramids of the Vth and VIth Dynasties, which were brought to light last winter. The text of the pyramid of Unas (the last king of the Vth Dynasty) will be published at Paris in the next number of M. Maspero's *Recueil*. Fragments of this text, hitherto not supposed to have had any relation to each other, have been used in many later temples and tombs. This adds force to the growing conviction among Egyptologists that the earliest Egyptian civilization we know of is the highest, and that all that we know of it is its decadence. The oldest pyramid is the largest and best built; the oldest temple—that beside the Sphynx at Gizeh—shows masonry since unapproached; the oldest papyrus —though as yet hardly understood—is the wisest, and the tombs and the temples of the Theban period are filled with extracts from ancient books not yet found complete. Three or four of these books furnish five-sixths of the texts of the Tombs of the Kings.

THE TRUE AGE OF THE MYKENÆ FINDS.

ATHENS, July 23, 1881.

IN a letter which you did me the honor to print, on the site of Troy, I alluded to the question opened by the excavations of Schliemann at Mykenæ as one which was not to be regarded as settled by the Agamemnonian theory. I have since then been over the excavations and the ruins of Mykenæ, and revisited the collection in the Patissia Museum, and find my convictions, based on previous examination of the latter, completely confirmed, and the post-Hellenic character of the tombs opened by Schliemann established beyond, it seems to me, any reasonable doubt. Had Schliemann possessed the slightest archæological insight, he would have seen that the structure he unearthed was of such utterly barbaric construction that it must have long ante-dated or post-dated the city of Mykenæ, whose walls, containing examples of nearly all the styles of structure from the earliest Pelasgic to distinct Hellenic, show from beginning to end technical skill far beyond that shown in the monument opened by Schliemann. This must then be much earlier or far later; there is not a stone in them analogous to anything of the known work of the period lying between Tiryns and Corinth. The examination of the *ensemble* of the monument shows that it cannot have existed when the walls of Mykenæ were built, as it is erected in an outer court of the citadel, and the oval bastion (which is its principal feature, and which was the place of interment, *seventeen* bodies being deposited here and none elsewhere) is built up of rough stone and supported against the inner face of the Pelasgic wall by buttresses of similar material, showing beyond any question that the city wall (to which the Lion Gate belongs in continuity and technique, material and design) existed already when the tomb was built. What is still more convincing is, that in the construction of this mausoleum there were employed stones taken from both Pelasgic and Hellenic mural structures, *indicating* that the appropriation post-dated the ruin of the Hellenic city, but *proving conclusively* that it is later than the Hellenic construction. Everything about the monument goes to show that the art of stone-cutting was at a very low ebb, as there is no attempt to work any of the harder stones, and the monumental tablets surmounting the graves are of soft sandstone, easily cut by stone or bronze implements. There was no period in Hellenic history, from the entry of the Pelasgi into the Peloponnesus until history resumes its clear thread, when Greek art was at the low state indicated by this structure. There is not an analogous stone in all the Greek cities. It is evidently a barbaric intrusion into the existence of the city. To anybody who has made a careful study of antique wall structure, the first inspection of the rude and barbaric work shows clearly that it is long posterior to the original city; but the manner in which it is adapted to the court inside the Gate of the Lions, and the use of old material most distinctly part of the walls of ancient Mykenæ, are conclusive.

Now the history of Mykenæ until its overthrow by Argos is clear traditionally and by the evidence of the walls. It came down into the period of most perfect wall structure, shown in some temple remains at the rear of the city. In the time of Pausanias and Strabo it was unrecognizable ruin. Where between these points can we place the monument in question? Earlier than 500 to 800 B. C. it cannot have been, for the latest Hellenic structure found at Mykenæ comes down to that date; and as the destruction of the city by the Argives may be put somewhere near that date, we have distinct concurrence of the evidence quite sufficient to account for the city to that time. Nor can it come in later than the Roman conquest, or we should have had historical and structural evidence of it. The occupation was clearly temporary, because it has not left any recognizable signs of residence; and it may have been indeed only the halt of a nomadic people, or one emigrating to find a permanent home. There is no other trace of it than this monument yet disclosed; but as the site is very partially excavated, we may eventually find more.

The history of the monument, as drawn from the internal evidence clearly deducible from the structure and the objects found in the graves, is this: Some barbarous tribe had penetrated to Mykenæ, and, finding the ruins and site still constituting a stronghold, adapted it to their uses and temporarily established themselves there. They had come from the pillage of many rich cities, some of which evidently possessed a far more highly developed art than did the tribe itself. But the treasures they brought with them, and of which that part which belonged to their chief was buried with him, do not show the slightest analogy with the archaic objects found in early Greek tombs, Spata, Orchomenos, etc. On this point the Greek archæologists are decided. There is one apparent exception, which I will presently explain. There are engraved stones unmistakably archaic and others unmistakably Asiatic: but, as I wrote the *Nation* last year after the first cursory examination of the treasure in the Museum, there are also engraved stones beyond any question of the Roman

epoch, cut with the wheel, one being a patent imitation of an archaic design. The objects gathered here range from the archaic to the finest Eastern art; bronze swords exquisitely inlaid with designs in gold—in my opinion Asiatic—being among them, with seal rings of similar provenance, with intaglii in the gold. Nothing is so remarkable in the collection as the heterogeneousness and chronological range of it; and wooden objects were found in a state absolutely incompatible with their having been buried in this soil, exposed to rain nine months of the year, during a period such as is predicated by attributing them to an archaic sepulture. There is a pair of large earrings which I judge to be Celtic; and the only articles from which we can draw authoritative conclusions as to the state of art with the race to whom these interments belong are the tombstones above the graves, and the thin gold plates found in numbers on the ground with the skeletons, and which are stamped with a butterfly. Of both these we can only say that the art is so primitive as to have no distinctive character unless it be barbaric, especially the tombstones, which are immeasurably beneath the lions of the great gate of Mykenæ.

Now the only time at which a tribe of this description could have so established itself in the Peloponnesus was either during the migrations of Celts, etc., about the time of Philip II., the Gothic (later), or the Slavonic (later still). But the use of bronze swords, of which there were fifty in the graves, and the absence of iron (which, however, is not conclusive, as iron in such a position might have been rusted and dissolved away, leaving no trace whatever), render the later dates exceedingly improbable, while the presence of archaic objects rather indicates a period during which archaic work was still treasured. I am disposed, on all these grounds, to place the date of the interment somewhere between 500 and 200 B.C., and most probably about the reign of Philip, in whose time we know the Celts had intimate relations with Greece and their colonies came down into Asia Minor; and though we know nothing of a colony in Peloponnesus, we can easily suppose that in the state of Greece at that time a wandering warlike tribe could work its way to a position like that of Mykenæ, and maintain itself there a long time. That it was prior to 600 B.C. is impossible; that it was later than 200 B.C. is possible, but most improbable.

That this tribe was non-Hellenic is shown by the burial entire, as there is not the slightest evidence of cremation on a single article, and tolerably conclusive contrary testimony in some articles. The use of the gold masks on the faces of the dead is an indication opposed to Hellenic customs, and only known elsewhere, I believe, in some prehistoric interments in Spain. The little circular plates mentioned were probably ornaments of the funereal robes, of which the stuffs have quite perished.

This monument I conceive to have been a dynastic burial-place, for which this court outside the citadel was chosen, and to construct which the earth was excavated down to the rock, going through the debris of early Mykenæ and throwing up many fragments ranging up to the earliest times. Among these are some moulds cut in hard stone for the casting or striking of gold ornaments, and they are the only articles except fragments of pottery, most sure to be found under these circumstances, which are analogous to those of Spata, etc. Being worthless to the invaders, they were thrown back with the earth in refilling the graves, and were thus found, the various epochs mingled in an indiscriminate confusion. These fragments, thrown into the rubbish heap of archaic Mykenæ and turned up again by the excavation down to the solid rock to bury the bodies of these barbarian chiefs, are probably the only objects found which belong to the early city. As to Agamemnon, there is as much probability that the remains are those of Nimrod as his.

The most careful reëxamination of the objects in the Museum shows nothing to invalidate my hypothesis of the nature of this tomb, and not a particle of evidence to connect it with any period of Greek history or pre-history. As with regard to Hissarlik, it is easy to see that Dr. Schliemann, carried away by his enthusiasm and with no archæological education or judgment, assumed everything that confirmed his fond theories, and utterly misinterpreted all the evidence offered by the objects found. Nothing can be more pernicious to the progress of sound archæology than the false *éclat* of this gold-and-silver-seeking archæology, which has just the relation to archæological discovery that Californian gold-digging has to geology. As one of the soundest and most authoritative English archæologists said to me within the past few weeks, "The way in which the discoveries of Dr. Schliemann have been received by the general public has retarded the progress of sound archæology fifty years." Dr. Schliemann passes for the hero of modern archæology, and those who have money to give to archæological research (rarely or never archæologists) make him their type and model; and it is not pleasant to say, what must however be said, and has been already said in private by almost if not quite every sound archæologist in Europe, that Schliemann is not an archæologist, and has not the primary qualifications to become one; and he has not thus far made a discovery of any scientific value, nor is he on the right track to do so. Wealthy men who wish to aid in archæological research must understand that between this and treasure-finding there is a relation of negative value: the more probability of finding treasure, the less of archæological discovery.

W. J. Stillman.

P. S.—I see in the *Nation* a suggestion by Mr. Davidson that if America founds an archæological school it should be at Smyrna rather than at Athens. This is, *me judice*, most sound advice. For everything but epigraphy the advantages of Smyrna are enormously greater, while the grave consideration that you must give everything found in Greece to the Greek museums will deprive our work of the substantial support indispensable to its prosecution. You not only cannot have for your museum any portion of what you find, but you must excavate under the eyes of Greek superintendents. The academies here have as much political value as scientific, and as they can take nothing away they are mainly interested in epigraphy.

Correspondence.

PROHIBITION IN NORTH CAROLINA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As you will have learned before this reaches you, the prohibition movement in this State has met with an overwhelming defeat. Full returns enabling us to ascertain the majority against it have not yet been reported, but the indications are that it will be somewhere between 30,000 and 50,000. This result is due to the negro vote, which was nearly solid against it. The white vote was divided, but there is little doubt that a considerable majority of whites are in favor of it.

There are some things connected with this movement and its result which furnish food for reflection. In the first place, it is said by the old inhabitants here that there has never been such a campaign as that made by the prohibitionists since the celebrated "coon-skin" campaign of General Harrison. The question was discussed at every voting precinct, and at many of them as many as three or four times. It was advocated by the best men of both parties and by every leading colored man in the State but one. The anti-prohibition canvass, on the other hand, was almost entirely a "still-hunt." The only white citizen of this county (Lincoln) who made a public speech on that side was one who spent some time in jail some years ago on a charge of burglary. The man who was to have organized the "anti" association in the county died at his home in a drunken spree on the day for which the meeting was called. Colored preachers and white Republicans who have managed and led the colored people ever since the war found themselves in many places unable to influence a single vote. When Bishop Hood, the colored bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church, undertook, after a communion service in one of his churches, to make some remarks in favor of prohibition, the greater part of his congregation, communicants and all, rose in a body and left the church.

What the final result will be it is difficult to tell. The statistics show that North Carolina is the banner State in the number of distilleries and the amount of whiskey bought and consumed, and also in the number of persons who cannot read, in proportion to population. Our wise men think they see a relation of cause and effect between these two facts, and seem determined to continue the agitation of prohibition until they succeed. If this is done it will result in a breaking up of the old party lines on State issues, and, it is to be feared, a distinct arraying of all the vicious and communistic elements of society against the virtue and intelligence of the State. There was a decided communistic tone in all the anti-prohibition speeches made in this region, a disposition to glorify ignorance, to inflame the poor against the rich, etc. With such material as abounds here for bad men to work upon, the prognostics of the future are anything but pleasant. We did not expect to overthrow in one campaign an evil which has had a hundred years to entrench itself in the habits of the people; but the question has assumed a shape in which it involves a great deal more than the simple prohibition of whiskey; and what legislative iniquities this triumphant majority of negroes and ignorant white people, ascertained by this election, may now call for only remains to be seen.

S. H. C.

Lowesville, N. C., August 6, 1881.

DIVORCE STATISTICS—A LAST WORD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have not the time, even if you have the space, to make all the mistakes and misconceptions of Mr. Phillips's reply to my criticisms plain to those of your readers who have never examined divorce statistics. Readers at all familiar with the statistics will readily see his errors.

The only point of any consequence in which he really corrects me is in his reference to New Hampshire, where his italicising of the word "both" points to a partial error which I readily see. That aside, and one or two minor points also excepted, I stand by each and all the criticisms, *as I made them* in my letter in the *Nation* of August 4, as substantially correct. The inability of Mr. Phillips to criticise divorce statistics is finely illustrated by his remarks on my statement that "the ratio of divorces to marriages for many years"—it was for fourteen years—"before 1870 in Connecticut was 1 to 10.4." The expression is almost invariably used

in official reports of divorces; and the fact is well known, and appears in more than one official report. Mr. Phillips is the first to be struck with its "absurdity." No man who had ever more than looked into a registration report would have failed to see its meaning instantly.

Let me add that I wrote my criticisms of his article with letters of correspondents lying before me written in criticism of some of the very statements made in his article which he tries to defend, and giving some of the proofs I used in writing. It is amusing, to say the least, to find in his reply an attempt to extricate himself by turning these authorities, on whose statements I was in part depending, against me, and in two instances on the very points they had named in their letters to me. Mr. Phillips's guesses at my "probable" opinions and the pessimistic views of the friends of divorce reform generally will strike most of those connected with the movement as laughable. The way, too, he speaks of "a lawyer in active practice instead of a minister, without the means of judging from actual experience and observation," reminds one strongly of the way the "practical politician" has of looking at certain things.

Yours respectfully,

SAMUEL W. DIKE.

ROYALTON, VT., August 13, 1881.

Notes.

JAMES R. OSGOOD & CO. will publish in October a new novel by Miss Blanche W. Howard, author of 'One Summer.'——Messrs. Harper and Appleton have both brought out editions of Mme. de Rémusat's 'Letters,' in Mrs. Cashel Hoey's and Mr. John Lillie's translation.——The Washington and Lee University, Lexington, Va., has just issued a supplement to its catalogue, in which we find both an historical sketch of the institution and an announcement of a centennial celebration, next June, of the granting of its first charter in 1782. The ceremonies will form part of the regular commencement proceedings, and at the same time it is hoped the new Library Hall and the Mausoleum in memory of Gen. Robert E. Lee will be ready for formal dedication and public inspection. What is even more to the University, perhaps, a railroad will by that date connect Lexington with the rest of the world. The movement, begun five years ago to rehabilitate the University, has borne good fruit in the shape of endowments, the late Col. Thos. A. Scott being among the most liberal benefactors.——The value of such a work as 'New York Illustrated,' of which the Messrs. Appleton have just brought out a new edition, will grow with time, and no long time either, considering the rate at which this metropolis is demolished and rebuilt. These views have the merit of fidelity, and are picturesque without undue embellishment. They may be safely commended to foreigners as showing just how the city looks and what are its characteristic sights. There is a liberal selection of samples of domestic architectural details, some of which will make the judicious smile. We miss a representation of the Farragut monument, and perhaps not enough has been done otherwise for our New York statuary, meagre as is the meritorious display. ——Vol. 2, No. 6 of the *American Journal of Philology* opens with the first of a series of articles on the new version of the New Testament by Prof. Charles Short, of Columbia College.——A forcible addition to the literature of civil-service reform is the pamphlet 'Address to the People of Missouri' just issued by the State Association, of which Mr. Henry Hitchcock is President, and Mr. John W. Dryden Secretary (St. Louis).——The *Athenæum* states that Mr. Talboys Wheeler is about to publish 'Tales from Indian History, being the Annals of India retold in Narratives'—a sort of 'Tales of a Grandfather.' The legends of India will not be neglected.——Dr. Elizabeth Blackwell's 'Advice to Parents in the Education of their Children' has appeared in a French version ('Conseil aux Parents,' etc. Paris: Germer Baillière et Cie.)——Perhaps the best collection of French classics for the use of American readers is the set of Elzevirian 16mos published by M. Jouaust in his 'Nouvelle Bibliothèque Classique.' These neat and even dainty little volumes of delightful typography allow a choice among Régnier, Montesquieu, Régnard, Malherbe, Corneille, Diderot, Racine, and La Rochefoucauld. A two-volume Rivarol is a recent addition. The latest issue is a selection from the 'Théâtre de Marivaux,' with a preface by M. Sarcey. To follow it shortly are announced the plays of Molière. These books cost but three francs a volume stitched, and only four sewn in board cases.——In the same form, the Libraire des Bibliophiles (New York: F. W. Christern) is sending forth a collection of books about hunting, some reprints of rare treatises, and others edited from the original manuscripts of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. This series is called the "Cabinet de Vénerie," and is edited by MM. Ernest Julien and Paul Lacroix. The same house announces a fine edition of the 'Colloquies' of Erasmus in three octavo volumes, illustrated with fifty-two etchings by M. J. Chauvet, mostly vignettes, let into the text. ——Still another volume of M. Zola's collected criticism has appeared, being the chief articles contributed by him to a Russian review at the request of Turgenef. It includes studies of Balzac, Flaubert, the Goncourts, Erckmann-Chatrian, and concludes with a sweepingly unfavorable consideration of the better-known French novelists of our time. 'Les Romanciers Naturalistes' is the title (Paris: Charpentier; New York: Christern). There is a scathing review of it in a recent number of the *Revue Politique et Littéraire*, which quotes M. Zola's remark that he does not think himself the greatest man of the century, and that he calls himself an idiot twenty times a morning; adding acidly enough, that criticism is M. Zola's strong point, although he has here exaggerated somewhat, as usual. ——Parts 29–32 of Oncken's 'Allgemeine Geschichte' (New York: Westermann) conclude the history of the Italian kingdom of the Ostrogoths and begin that of the Visigoths; continue that of Prussia; conclude that of the great English Revolution, and carry on the history of the Roman Empire to the time of Caracalla. The illustrations are, as heretofore, abundant, curious, and authentic, and engraved in the best manner.

—Mr. Lang's remarks in his 'Library' on book-buying as an investment are confirmed by the result of the auction sale of the library of Mr. G. Lewis Way, translator of Le Grand's 'Fabliaux.' Two hundred and five lots of rare old English poetry, romances of chivalry, and the like, which cost him less than £400, sold on the 1st of last month for £2,324 7s. 6d. Bodenham's 'English Helicon,' for instance, which he bought for 14s., brought his heirs 14 guineas; 'Britain's Ida,' first edition, brought £68, cost £1 1s.; Shakspere's plays, second folio, £69, cost £1 1s.; Gower's 'Confessio Amantis,' printed by Caxton, £199, cost £5 (though less than perfect, it could not be recommended by the auctioneer, as in the common story, as "A fine copy, gentlemen, and quite imperfect"); Southwell's works, £135, cost £2 12s. 6d. The greatest enhancement which we have noticed, however, is in Milton's 'Paradise Lost,' first edition, £22, cost 3s. If one could only know what to buy, books would pay as well as depositing money in a savings bank at 4 per cent. compound interest, and one would have the enjoyment of the books to boot. But how is one to avoid the fate of those who bought noted editions of the Greek and Latin classics at enormous prices a couple of generations ago, whose successors now find that their whole library is not worth an old song, not at least such old songs as Mr. Way collected?

—A writer in a late *Spectator*, in reviewing Mr. Lang's book, undertakes to give some hints to the young collector by which he shall know what line to choose, at least in the department of illustrated books. The advice seems reasonable, but after all it may not be better than "tips" on the winning horse in the Derby. A change of fashion, a new craze on the part of the public, a total loss of interest in what delights them now, may leave the present generation of collectors as high and dry fifty years hence as the followers of Dibdin are at present. Yet, if the intrinsic value of the object had anything to do with the charm of collecting, and influenced at all the higher of the prices paid—which we fear it does not—illustrated books would certainly be the best to buy. Exquisite binding and perfect typography can hardly give the amount of pleasure that good engravings in early impressions can, and nothing prevents the illustrated book from being well printed and well bound. It is not, however, only costly illustrated works that the *Spectator* recommends. "Even a clean copy of the first edition of 'Alice in Wonderland' or 'Through the Looking-Glass' will some day fetch money," it says. But this, after all, is because there will, in the nature of things, soon be almost no clean copies of such favorites. The first editions of Thackeray's and Dickens's novels, though they bring good, have never yet commanded extravagant prices. Yet their intrinsic value and the pleasure they are capable of affording are not inferior. But the editions were large, and there were many of the works, and copies have not yet become rare. When they do there will be—shall we say?—a "boom." Then, perhaps, in the sale of the library of some Way of fiction we shall read that the first edition of 'Vanity Fair,' sold for £149 4s. 6d., cost 18s.; or 'Pickwick Papers,' uncut copy, £300, bought at some previous sale for £98. That may be in the middle of the twentieth century, yet already one work of Dickens's which is really rare, 'Three Ways of Spending Sunday, by Timothy Sparks,' has lately given the lucky bookseller, who paid 3d. for it, a profit of £6 14s. 9d., and was resold for £8 8s. If any city were interested in Dickens or Thackeray as Scotland is in Burns, no doubt the result would come sooner. The Kilmarnock edition of Burns's poems (1786), published at 3s., was sold not many years ago for £5, in 1869 for £14, in 1870 for 18 guineas, in 1875, in New York, for $155, in 1881 for £49, and at the dispersion of Mr. David Laing's library a copy with some manuscript lines by Burns himself brought £94. By all means let the young collector choose the works of men who combine a genius that delights the world with nativity among a small people of strong national feeling.

—Dr. T. Sterry Hunt, in a recently published pamphlet of about one hundred and fifty pages, containing an account of the coal and iron resources of the Hocking Valley and the industries associated therewith, has furnished some interesting data concerning the quantity and the sources of supply of coal consumed during recent years in the Northwestern States,. He has also called attention to the fact, which he had already pointed out in a report published in 1874, that between this bituminous coal-producing region and the great Northwestern States there exists a

certain commercial and industrial relation, mainly based on coal and iron, similar to that established between the anthracite region of Pennsylvania and the States of New York, New Jersey, and the New England group. The region, which has come to be known as the Hocking Valley coal-field, has an area of about 250 square miles, drained by the Hocking River and its tributaries, in southeastern Ohio, and included in the northwestern portion of the great Appalachian coal basin. Within its limits there occurs a bed or beds of coal of extraordinary thickness and value, compared with which all the other coals of Ohio, excepting the Mahoning Valley, and of Illinois and Indiana, with few local exceptions, are much inferior in quality, being generally poor, watery, and sulphurous; and although these latter will doubtless be made to subserve local wants, it is clear that the great States north of the Ohio River must in future look for the chief part of their fuel supply to the Eastern or Appalachian basin. From data gathered in 1874 it appeared that, of the coal received at Chicago, three-fifths, or about 960,000 tons, came from the East; and it was estimated that the supply of coals in 1873 from the Eastern basin to the five Northwestern States—Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Michigan—was approximately 6,000,000 tons. From 1873 to 1879 the quantity of Eastern coal received at Chicago gradually increased from 1,668,257 tons to 2,384,974 tons, and for the first nine months of 1880 to 1,949,825 tons, an excess of 264,286 tons over the receipts for the same period in 1879. The supply of coal from the Eastern basin to the Northwestern States, Ohio included, is stated at 7,000,000 tons for 1879, of which 2,000,000 comprise the anthracite, coke, and bituminous coal from Pennsylvania and West Virginia, the other 5,000,000 tons having been mined in Ohio. In 1880 and 1881 the total supply from Eastern sources is estimated at 9,000,000 and 11,000,000 tons, of which, in each year, more than 7,000,000 tons are credited to Ohio.

—The great Eastern or Appalachian coal basin includes the coal-bearing strata of Pennsylvania, Maryland, Ohio, West Virginia, eastern Kentucky, eastern Tennessee, Georgia, and Alabama, with a total area of about 58,000 square miles. On its eastern border lies the anthracite region of Pennsylvania, comprising an area of about 470 square miles, having before it to the north and east the rich and populous but coalless States of New York and New Jersey, with those of New England, which look to it for their chief supply of fuel. Moreover, in New York, in New Jersey, and in eastern Pennsylvania are immense deposits of rich iron ores, which find in the anthracite the fuel necessary for their reduction and manufacture. On the opposite border of the Appalachian basin lies the coal region of eastern Ohio, and particularly the Hocking Valley coal-field, with its 250 square miles of superior and easily-mined coal, sustaining similar relations to the rich and populous States of the North and West which must, in time to come, look to it for the supply of a great portion of their fuel; besides which, as a further resemblance between the two regions, there are the vast amounts of iron ores—not only those of Southern Ohio, but those of Lake Superior—which, with the rapidly increasing export trade in coal from this region, will find their way thither in larger quantities to be smelted and manufactured. In view of these facts Dr. Hunt predicts a future for the metallurgical industry of the Hocking Valley coal-field and its vicinity comparable to that of the Lehigh Valley and of Pittsburgh.

— The last of Bodenstedt's "Letters from America," like one or two preceding, is devoted to our German fellow-citizens; and his views are novel and interesting just from the fact that he does not regard the subject from a practical or political standpoint, but from a literary one. He has nowhere observed intellectual growth as the result of the infusion of Germans into native society, and is quite convinced that "the German sinks, morally and mentally, in proportion as he adopts the habits and views of the Yankees." He excepts a few men like "Körner, Stallo, and Schurz," who are too rare to prove the contrary, and he admits that, from a material point of view, the course of his "aping" countrymen is justifiable, but observes, as a partial explanation, that want of education is, to a large extent, hidden through the medium of a foreign tongue, "especially when one's mother-tongue is German."

"It is only the thoroughly-educated Germans who speak their native language as well as they do English. In every city which I visited I found a circle of such countrymen, and therefore supposed their number to be larger than, according to the information imparted by various well-informed booksellers, it really is. Thirty years ago, that is, the importation of German books was far larger than it is now, and in the last ten years it has decreased in a much larger proportion than before."

A cure for this intellectual estrangement, and a service of incalculable value to both nations, would result, Mr. Bodenstedt thinks, from the realization of Auerbach's plan for a German university. "This would be a light-house such as the world never saw. For as many German students would then go to America, to enlarge their ideas, as Americans now come to Germany to acquire a foundation for their culture, and American Germans would then be secure of a better future than they will gain by absorption into the native race."

—The historian of the German constitution, George Waitz, having carried his great work down to its completion (in eight volumes) in the full establishment of feudalism, has resumed the revision of the earlier portion and issued the third edition of the first volume—that which treats of the primitive Germans. The first edition of this volume was published in 1844; the second in 1865, when the publication of Roth's 'Beneficialwesen' had led him to modify his earlier views in some respects, while in others he maintained his original position against Roth's assaults. This controversial attitude belongs rather, however, to the three following volumes, upon the Merovingian and Carolingian periods. Neither does it especially mark the present revision; rather the careful and thorough examination of a large amount of discussion and controversial literature, conducted in admirable temper, with great sagacity and common sense, and with judicial fairness. Undoubtedly this volume, published under the separate title, 'Die Verfassung des deutschen Volkes in ältester Zeit,' is the best and most complete account of the primitive institutions of the Germans. It is noteworthy that the dedication to Leopold von Ranke, who was at the head of the historians of his native country when it was penned, still finds him, thirty-six years later, as actively engaged in historical composition as ever.

—"A. T." writes us:

"The newspapers are full of stories about Bleichröder, the Jewish banker of Berlin, who has just been 'decorated' by the French Government, and I am reminded of an anecdote which I heard ten years ago, but which I have never seen in print. When Jules Favre had his famous interview with Bismarck to settle the terms of peace, and the latter named the amount of the indemnity, Favre was shocked, and protested that France could never pay so much. 'Why,' he exclaimed, 'if a man had begun counting from the first year of the Christian era and counted till now, he could not have got up to such an enormous amount.' 'Very true,' said Bismarck, 'and that's why I brought my friend Bleichröder with me—he reckons from the Creation.'"

—In 1871 the French Government laid a heavy tax on paper, as a war tax, to be removed in better times. But the French have found, as we have done in similar cases, that it is easier to impose a tax than to remove it. M. Jules Simon, in a late speech in the Senate in favor of its abrogation, cited some curious facts. First, books are now printed on much worse paper—this every purchaser of French books knows. Second, M. Léopold Delisle, of the Bibliothèque Nationale, declares that the books which that library is now receiving from the copyright law will not exist fifty years hence, so flimsy is the paper, and that to preserve any record of the French literature of the present day it will be necessary to require the copyright copies to be printed on a stouter paper than the rest of the edition. Third, an increase in price to correspond with the tax has not been made on the costly books, where the rich could afford to pay it, but upon the cheap books devoted to the spread of popular instruction and primary education. The book that sold for 100 francs before the war still sells for 100 francs; but the books that were 40 and 75 and 125 are now 60 and 100 and 150. So that the French Legislature have been unconsciously pulling down the edifice of popular education which it has been their especial desire to build up.

EDMUND BURKE ON IRISH AFFAIRS.

Letters, Speeches, and Tracts on Irish Affairs, by Edmund Burke. Collected and arranged by Matthew Arnold. London and New York: Macmillan & Co.

"ALL the wise men were on one side, and all the fools were on the other, and—all the fools were right." This is the cynical joke in which Lord Melbourne summed up in his later life his opinion of Catholic Emancipation. No one would take in earnest expressions which were never meant as more than a grim jest at the vanity of human foresight; but if for Lord Melbourne's conclusion we substitute "and both the wise and the fools were in the right," we shall get a rough account of an historical paradox. For, turn the matter as one will, there remains something paradoxical in the results of Liberal doctrines as applied to dealings with Roman Catholics. The problem which needs explanation is, How it has come to pass that a course of policy so manifestly right that hardly an argument worth the consideration of any man out of Bedlam can now be produced against it, has yet borne fruits which certainly are not in the harvest which men who fought for the cause of justice, of humanity, and of tolerance expected to reap. No better mode of finding an answer to a riddle which has considerable speculative interest, and even some practical importance, can be suggested than a careful perusal of the book in which Mr. Arnold has collected and arranged the letters, speeches, and tracts of Burke on Irish affairs; for their main theme is the urgent necessity of repealing the penal laws against Catholics. On this matter Burke, from his earliest manhood to the day of his death, never varied his opinions or his tone. What he wrote in 1760 he reiterated in 1796. He in fact supplied the whole arsenal of effective arguments by which, more than thirty years after his death, the cause which he advocated was at last won. If he did not gain the battle, he armed the warriors who fought out the fight.

No one who reads Burke will fail to see why all the wise men of England had perceived long before O'Connell was heard of that the Catholics must be given the full rights of citizens. "Our

constitution," he writes, "is not made for great, general, and proscriptive exclusions. Sooner or later it will destroy them, or they will destroy the constitution." This principle lies at the basis of the whole matter. There is no single argument valid for supporting the permanent exclusion from political and civil rights of a whole class of citizens which is not fatal to the ideas of freedom and free government embodied in the English constitution. So true is this that theorists like Mr. Froude, who more or less openly condemn the policy pursued for the last fifty years towards Roman Catholics, do not conceal their contempt for the whole scheme of representative or parliamentary government. Such writers are consistent. We have no concern at the moment with the worth of their doctrines. It suffices to point out that the dogmas of which Carlyle was the chief exponent would at any date between 1760 and 1830 have been scouted by every Tory no less than by every Whig.

If one is to understand the controversy which terminated in the Catholic Relief Act, one must be careful not to import into it opinions and feelings which were unknown until years after that controversy came to a close. Burke and his disciples were in principle invincible on the ground on which they stood, and that they had a right to stand on this ground was conceded even by their opponents. But the true strength of their case lay not so much in general principles as in facts, the very existence of which is almost forgotten by the present generation. Students who hear of Catholic disabilities think mainly of exclusion from Parliament, or, if they carry their thoughts a little further back, of deprivation of the franchise. But the plan of government of which exclusion from political rights formed a part was, as Burke urges again and again, a complete system of tyranny. "For I must do it justice; it was a complete system, full of coherence and consistency, well digested and well composed in all its parts. It was a machine of wise and elaborate contrivance, and as well fitted for the oppression, impoverishment, and degradation of a people, and the debasement of human nature itself, as ever proceeded from the perverted ingenuity of man. . . . My opinion ever was (and in this I heartily agree with those who admired the old code) that it was so constructed that if there was once a breach in any essential part of it, the ruin of the whole, or nearly of the whole, was at some time or other a certainty." Thus wrote Burke in 1792. Thirty years earlier he set forth in plain language what this system really was. It broke up the domestic relations of Catholic families; it set husband against wife, child against father; it took away the right of self-defence; it "disabled three-fourths of the inhabitants of Ireland from acquiring any estate of inheritance for life or years, or any charge whatsoever on which two-thirds of the improved yearly value is not reserved for thirty years"; it struck at the root of Irish industry, and constituted as direct a "discouragement to melioration" as if the law had said in express terms, "Thou shalt not improve"; it outraged the whole religious sentiment of the people, degraded their priests, and deprived the class who could alone exercise moral influence over the mass of Irishmen of the education and training which could make this influence beneficial.

No doubt between 1760 and the close of Burke's life the system of oppression had more or less broken up. But every breach made it more difficult to defend the remaining portions of what was once a consistent scheme of government, and, as time went on, a system which had ceased to be consistent became in the eyes of every statesman a source of pressing danger. Burke's later writings are little else than eloquent denunciations of the madness of throwing the Roman Catholic population of Ireland into the hands either of France or of the party at home who were supposed to sympathize with French doctrines; and, even when the storm of the Revolution had passed, conservative statesmen felt more and more strongly the impolicy of turning into revolutionists a part of the population whose creed and sympathies fitted them to be the allies rather of conservatism than of radicalism. To all this must be added that the direct argumentative answers to the Roman Catholic claim for political equality were too contemptibly weak to be dignified with the name of sophisms. Arguments, for example, from the coronation oath played a great and practically important part in the whole discussion of Catholic claims; but these arguments now sound so weak that it is difficult to realize that they ever deserved the elaborate confutation which Burke gives them. The pleas for intolerance and the replies thereto read almost equally unreal. They might, one fancies, amuse the ingenuity of a special pleader, but could hardly deserve the attention of serious politicians. No wonder that all the wisest men in England felt assured that on the subject of Catholic Emancipation they were absolutely and entirely in the right. Reason, humanity, and justice were clearly in favor of emancipation; the pleas of intolerance were such as might influence the clergy described in the best of Macaulay's political songs, but would certainly not weigh with any men better instructed than the parsons who crammed the coach which "rattled over Trumpington stones," filled with zealots prepared to punish Peel for his apostasy from bigotry to good sense. Let it also be at once conceded that in substance the wise men were in the right. To maintain Catholic disabilities was to struggle against the nature of things. Can any one conceive the existence in the United Kingdom during, say, the commotions of 1848 of a policy which excluded the majority of Irishmen from a right to sit in Parliament? To ask the question is to answer it, but the answer is decisive in favor of Catholic Emancipation.

How, then, were the fools in the right? The answer is that the policy of complete toleration has not in the case of Irish Catholics produced exactly the results looked for by its authors. It has not blended Ireland and England into one state, united in sympathy and interest. Mr. Parnell is less loyal to the empire than was Grattan or O'Connell. It has not made the differences between Catholics and Protestants politically unimportant; the unoppressed Roman Catholic hierarchy of to-day are more oppressive, less tolerant, less amenable to considerations of patriotism or statesmanship than were the bishops and priests who a century ago met oppression with declarations of loyalty, and seemed prepared to unite with Protestants in alliance against the infidel assailants of Christianity. That this is so every candid and clear-sighted man must perceive, but the further enquiry remains: What are the causes which have made the anticipations and forebodings of bigotry and folly come at least as near to the truth as the forecasts of tolerance and wisdom? The answer to this question, though it is worth giving, is not, when the enquiry is fairly put, hard to find.

In the first place, a policy framed by the wisdom of Burke, and advocated by men who shared his views, was put into execution not by Burke or his followers, but by bigots or time-servers, who carried out good measures in the very way that was not recommended by the persons who designed these measures. Burke may well claim to have forewarned the world against every error which could be committed with regard to Catholic Emancipation, and each of his warnings was given in vain. He expressed the most unmistakable doubts as to whether the time for union between England and Ireland had arrived. He obviously would have opposed to the utmost the proposal to unite the two kingdoms without liberating the Catholics. Pitt chose to take in hand the measure which Burke had pronounced of most dubious wisdom, and to neglect the measure which Burke believed to be of pressing and immediate importance. Burke, in effect, recommended that the Catholics should be at once emancipated, and that plans of legislative union should be postponed. Pitt hurried on the union, and postponed for at least a generation the emancipation of the Catholics. Burke, again, was never tired of insisting that all concessions made by England should be conceded while they were still matters of grace. He was, throughout, true to his "old, standing, invariable principle that all things which come from Great Britain should issue as a gift of her bounty and beneficence rather than as claims recovered against a struggling litigant"; for he knew that "a concession in which the governing power of our country loses its dignity is dearly bought, even by him who obtains his object. All the people have a deep interest in the dignity of Parliament." The full import of these maxims is not yet understood; the minister who in 1829 at last gave effect to Burke's policy understood their import less than any man of equal ability. The gravest charge which can be brought against Peel is that he encouraged resistance to just claims as long as yielding could appear to be the result of bounty or of beneficence, and gave way to irresistible pressure exactly at the moment when concession was, and appeared to be, the result of fear or cowardice. Burke's statesmanlike wisdom cannot be made responsible for the effects of Pitt's weakness or of Peel's unstatesmanlike shortsightedness.

In the second place, the wisdom of the wise always is (as it certainly was in the case of Catholic Emancipation) at the best but incomplete wisdom. Burke was the wisest man of his generation, but he belonged to his generation, and shared or even exaggerated some of the errors of his age. No one can now fail to see that the whole tendency of that age was to underrate the effects, bad or good, to be produced in politics by theological differences. That "priests of all religions are the same," is a sentiment which in one man's mouth means a sneer at all religious teachers, while in another's it is the expression of the sentiment that all pious men teach in substance the same essential doctrines of sound morality; that the Catholic priest, the Anglican parson, and the Methodist minister are all at bottom exponents of the impressive and simple dogmas which make up the essence of true Christianity or of natural religion. But the sceptic who distrusts all priests, and the moralist who with perfect sincerity avows his equal respect for the priests of every form of the Christian faith, not to say of every form of Deism, each tacitly assumes that the specific differences which divide (say) Papists from Protestants are, for the purposes of every-day life, of no practical importance. That this was the sentiment of Burke's age among what would now be called "thinkers" of all descriptions, scarcely admits of doubt. Grattan's speeches are, as Mr. Lecky points out, full of intimations of this opinion. "Bigotry may survive persecution, but it can never survive toleration." "What Luther did for us philosophy has done in some degree for the Roman Catholics, and their religion has undergone a silent reformation; and both divisions of Christianity

unless they have lost their understanding, must have lost their animosity although they have retained their distinctions. It is the error of sects to value themselves more upon their differences than upon their religion." This is precisely in the spirit of Burke. The Reformation seemed to him entirely a matter of the past: "The affairs of religion, which are no longer heard of in the tumult of our present contentions, made," he writes, "a principal ingredient in the wars and politics of that time"; and his whole tone of argument is tinged with the fixed belief that the passions of that time have nothing whatever to do with the politics of "an age when men are infinitely more disposed to heat themselves with political than with religious controversies." Moreover, in Burke's mind the sentiment of religious toleration was tinged with hereditary and imaginative sympathy for Catholicism. He thought that a Catholic was as good as a Protestant, and one may perhaps add that he liked a Catholic a good deal better than any Protestant, except possibly an Anglican. Odd as the juxtaposition seems, Robespierre and Burke stood in this matter not very far from each other. The bitterest description the Terrorist could find for an opponent was that of "a Protestant and a philosopher."

The wisest statesman and the narrowest-minded fanatic of the eighteenth century happened on this solitary point to be at one. They each belonged to the same age and shared the most widespread of its illusions. For experience enables us now to say confidently that the influence of theological passion and theological belief was not dead in Burke's time, and, further, that the question is open to doubt whether the influence of theological dogmas will ever die. France, Belgium, Germany, Italy, Ireland, and Spain, even our own country, afford to thinkers of the nineteenth century sufficient proofs of the fact both that Roman Catholicism is a living power and that the views of life held by zealous Papists are with difficulty reconcilable with the principles which lie at the foundation of modern secular politics. This, which is now the firm belief of many if not most modern statesmen, was, by one of the paradoxes of history, the traditional sentiment of uneducated Protestants from George III. down to the meanest fool or fanatic who followed Lord George Gordon. "I am most afraid," writes Burke, "of the weakest reasonings because they discover the strongest passions." This sentiment is one of the profoundest which he ever uttered. It has even a more profound sense than its author fully perceived. The force of weak reasonings may be due to the power of traditional sentiments better worth consideration than the arguments by which these sentiments are defended. The "fools" felt and proclaimed that the differences between sincere Catholics and sincere Protestants were no more trifles in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries than they had been in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; and the fools were right, for a man's sincere theology will, for good and bad, affect all his views of life. The wise proclaimed that the practice of justice and toleration was the only true mode of dealing with Papists; and the wise also were right both in morals and in policy.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Beautiful Wretch: a Brighton Story. By William Black. New York: Harper & Bros.

Sunrise: a Novel. By William Black. New York: Harper & Bros.

Miss Williamson's Divagations. By Miss Thackeray (Mrs. Richmond Ritchie). New York: Harper & Bros.

Matrimony: a Novel. By Wm. E. Norris. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

The Fate of Madame La Tour: a Tale of Great Salt Lake. By Mrs. A. G. Paddock. New York: Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

The Exiles: a Russian Story. Translated by Geo. D. Cox from the French of Victor Tissot and Constant Améro. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros.

MR. WILLIAM BLACK is now the author of a dozen or more novels of unequal merit, and his pen is so prolific that it has become difficult for criticism to keep abreast of his performance. Indeed, criticism has almost abandoned the task, and recognizing him as having established for himself a *status* as a writer of fiction well adapted to his market, almost hesitates to enquire what that *status* is. There is a characteristic vein of sentiment and style which runs through all his novels, but it is hard to define its exact nature. They are all love-stories, but there is nothing very individual about that. They are all modern in tone and feeling, but that does not distinguish them from a thousand others. They abound in what would twenty-five years ago have been called slang, but English fiction has been within that period so permeated by slang that a great body of it appears to have become part of the accepted language of novel-writers. Mr. Black has a feminine way of dealing with his subject which would distinguish him easily from most of his predecessors, but which is less individual when he is compared with his contemporaries. Perhaps, on the whole, the most that can be said about him is that he writes very readable stories, and that his two latest tales will unquestionably commend themselves to the very large audience which he has collected together by his earlier books.

The plot of 'The Beautiful Wretch' is essentially very simple. Miss Anne Beresford is a young and pretty English girl, who meets early in life Captain Frank King, of the Royal Navy. Captain King falls in love with her, asks her to be his wife, is refused, and goes off. Some years later he returns, renews his acquaintance with the Beresford family, and is startled at finding in Madge Beresford, a younger sister of Anne's, a sort of facsimile of his first love. The resemblance is so striking that he falls in love with Madge, or thinks he does, and becomes engaged to her (he has left the service and become a landed proprietor meanwhile). On the other hand, ever since she refused him, Miss Anne has been herself in love with Mr. King, and when she reappears on the scene he immediately finds that falling in love with a facsimile is a poor business, if the original is the real cause of the sentiment which the facsimile seemed to inspire. In short, the young man finds himself engaged to one sister and in love with the other—a heartrending situation, which, however, is rendered less wretched by the fact that Miss Madge has another lover whom she really likes better than the one she is engaged to. She and Jack Hanbury are wards in Chancery, and forbidden by the Vice-Chancellor to communicate with one another—a fact which greatly heightens the interest of the situation. Of course, in the end the two wards make a runaway match, and then Miss Anne is able to marry the man she has loved through so many vicissitudes. The story would be an awful warning against confused engagements but for the fact that everything turns out so happily as to produce the impression that the author's view of the real philosophy of life is contained in the vulgar, but once popular, distich:

> "It's no matter what you do
> If your heart is only true."

It is unnecessary to tell any one who is familiar with Mr. Black's novels that in psychological analysis he is rather weak, and 'The Beautiful Wretch' furnishes no exception to the rule.

In 'Sunrise' he has attempted a much more ambitious task than merely writing an ordinary English love-story. The heroine is the daughter of an eminent but bad Socialist conspirator, who is one of a band of Internationalists sworn to elevate and redeem mankind by any means in their power. Like most conspirators of this sort, they make little real progress in the redemption of mankind, but a great deal in the art of assassination. They are bound together by bloody oaths, and hesitate at nothing. The hero, an Englishman of a calm, cool temperament, falls in love with the heroine, and through his affection for her, and the wiles of her father, and the persuasive arguments of a weak-minded friend who is a victim of the "enthusiasm of humanity," joins the organization. To get rid of him, he is directed by the father to go upon a mission of assassination which must necessarily end in his own death; and so much does he regard his oath that he unhesitatingly sets forth. How it is that he neither assassinates nor is assassinated, how the wickedness of the father is brought to light and its threatened consequences averted, and by what subtle ingenuity the lovers are made happy in the end, we must leave the reader to find out for himself. What is most striking in the story is its unreality. It is absolutely impossible to imagine an Englishman such as the lover is represented to be getting involved in such a network of intrigue and conspiracy. To make the situation at all possible, it would have required a totally different character and mind in the hero; but, as we have suggested, Mr. Black's characters belong to him, not to themselves.

'Miss Williamson's Divagations' is the curious title of a collection of stories by Miss Thackeray, who displays in them all that delicacy of thought, feeling, and expression which laid the foundation of her first success, blended with the feebleness of grasp which has told so fatally upon it since. We do not expect from a feminine hand a masculine story, at least now that George Eliot has ceased to write; but still we are exacting enough to require even women to avoid as far as possible the sentimental commonplace. Miss Thackeray affects the pathetic, but the secret of pathos is reserve rather than redundancy.

Mr. W. E. Norris is, so far as reputation goes, a new novelist, though his hand is that of an experienced writer. He has been compared in some quarters to Thackeray; but the only resemblance consists in a vein of cynicism which, however, is very different from that half-cynical, half-pathetic humor with which the style of the author of 'Vanity Fair' is infused. Mr. Norris does not need to be compared with any one else, because he has a style of his own, and, to judge by 'Matrimony,' is likely to make a place for himself without the adventitious aid, if aid it be, of being supposed to resemble some greater writer. It is impossible to read a chapter of this novel without seeing that he is far better equipped than most novelists for the work he undertakes. We confess that it is a considerable pleasure, in these days of over-refinement and subtle delicacy, to find a new novelist who looks at the world simply from a man of the world's point of view, and does not care to conceal the fact. He "knows his world," which is a pretty extensive one, and includes among its inhabitants not only English people of all classes and conditions, but a considerable variety of Continental types as well; and, above all, he has a knowledge of the human heart and a capacity for analyzing its processes which is,

to say the least, of great utility to a writer of fiction. The scene of 'Matrimony' is laid in great part in the little seaport town of Beachborough, and chiefly deals with the loves of Claude Gervis and Nina Flemyng, on the one hand, and Genevieve Gervis and Sir Frederick Croft on the other. The story is supposed to be told by Mr. Knowles, a middle-aged bachelor, and the extreme cleverness of the author is perhaps best shown in the way this is done. The narrator is always himself, and yet he does not thrust himself upon us offensively. Readers of 'Matrimony' who have also read 'Mademoiselle de Mersac,' one of Mr. Norris's earlier novels, will see that the author and Mr. Knowles have a good many traits in common, and yet they are by no means the same person. A very remarkable peculiarity of 'Matrimony' is that the male characters are better on the whole than the women, and that in Claude Gervis the author should have succeeded in drawing a hero who is almost without faults, and yet who is not a prig. He is what men would call a "good fellow," notwithstanding that women would call him a "charming man." We cannot help liking him throughout. Freddy Croft, however, is better than Claude. His type is that of the good-natured, amusing, honest, uneducated young Briton of the present day, who "goes in" for horses and athletic sports, talks slang, takes his amusement noisily and boisterously, and reduces most mental and moral distinctions to the difference between good and bad "form." This is the type, but Freddy has a character of his own. He has a fund of racy and original humor, he is a good friend, and he has an only too susceptible heart, which leads him to fall in love not only with Genevieve Gervis, but with other young ladies as well. As an illustration of the author's combined facility of description and suggestion, which is one of his strong points, we may quote his introduction of Freddy to the reader:

"I don't know that I ever heard anybody call Freddy Croft good-looking; but, on the other hand, I cannot call to mind a single instance of a stranger having failed to be attracted by him. The word attractive, indeed, seems to hit him off better than any other; for I take it that nine people out of ten feel instinctively drawn towards a young fellow who has the conventional attributes of his age—a well-knit, vigorous frame, a clear complexion, laughing eyes, and a countenance which proclaims aloud that its owner is wholly unacquainted with care. There are certain youths who are like the very embodiment of youth: it is impossible to look at them without feeling young again one's self for the moment; and one is naturally disposed to shake hands with anybody who can bestow upon one so agreeable a sensation. Freddy Croft's fair hair, which curled obstinately, in spite of being cut as close to the head as the scissors would go, his blue eyes, and the half-innocent, half-mischievous expression of his boyish face, made him at all events a pleasant object to look upon, and went far to atone for a decided irregularity of feature; and if in stature he fell somewhat short of even the medium standard, he was too well put together for this to count as a serious defect."

The father of Claude Gervis is a cynic about whom people's opinions will differ. For ourselves, we must confess that he is wholly unnatural, and that his cynicism is as exaggerated in a different way as that of the distracted husband in "My Young Wife and Old Umbrella." He is made the vehicle for a great many acute observations upon poor human nature; but to our mind he is the least successful character in the book.

To turn to the women, Nina is a flirt, and as a flirt well drawn, though the author might with advantage have made her a less glaring case of congenital depravity. Of course, it is natural enough for an enthusiastic young poet like Claude to fall in love with any pretty woman, no matter what her character may be; but the author is bound to make the situation seem natural too; this we do not think Mr. Norris here does. The love affair of Genevieve and Freddy is, on the whole, better managed. Genevieve is a vague character, however, and except that she has strong musical tastes, we never clearly make out what sort of a person she is. If the author were of the number of those who think, with Pope, that most women have no character at all, we should have suspected him of an attempt in all the early part of this novel to illustrate the truth of the verse in the person of Genevieve. But we think the defect in definiteness of outline comes from the fact that he has a much more profound comprehension of masculine than of feminine traits. It would be too much to expect everything; and if Mr. Norris does not succeed as well with his women as his men, it is a fault which can easily be forgiven by those who have had much experience of the opposite defect. We have no space to analyze the plot of 'Matrimony,' nor would it be worth while; for the art of the story lies not so much in the plot—though there is a great deal of art in the skill with which the secret of the Russian princess's life is kept back to the end of the book—as it does in the manner of telling the story, the excellent management of all the details, the conversations, and the running comment of the narrator. A novel-reader who does not find in 'Matrimony' a great deal of entertainment must be very hard to please.

We are forced to think that Mrs. Paddock's book would have been more telling if cast in the form of a simple narrative of detached facts, like her earlier 'Life among the Mormons.' There is not only the obvious difficulty that the darker secrets of that prison-house can never be told in public print, but the author herself at least feels the necessity of substantiating the truth of the incidents by frequent foot-notes. Any effect which continuity or unity of plot might have upon the imagination is thus lost, and this is of more consequence inasmuch as Mrs. Paddock is a somewhat dull story-teller. The descriptions of scenery read too much like the pages of a geography, and even with unequalled materials—the thirst of the desert, the mother's broken heart, the agony of an outraged wife—there is still left much of the impression of watching blows with a blunted instrument. The fate of Madame La Tour—abduction under cover of alleged insanity, and close confinement for fifteen years until death—fills but one-sixth of the book; the other five give the disconnected histories of her sons and daughters, which, with their dreadful episodes, would make stock-in-trade for a whole school of realists, but which in the author's hands are hardly so much as sensational. It is a curious discrepancy, which we are unable to explain, that while Mrs. Paddock's own theory, so to speak, as one may judge from preface and appendix, is the hopelessness of the situation, in her story all the principal characters of the younger generation renounce their delusion and escape the Mormon power, some even defying it successfully in Utah itself.

'The Exiles' is a translation from the French of the story of life in Siberia from which the recent melodrama of the same name was made up. The spectators of the play have doubtless supposed it an exaggeration of the original, but that is a total mistake. Outside fairy-land or Munchausen we have never seen it surpassed. The utter destruction by *fire* of a vast forest covered with "a winding-sheet of snow, . . . like an immense glacier of the primitive epoch," is nothing to authors who carry safely a party of fugitives, including a child of thirteen, a young lady, and a French dancing-master, eighteen hundred miles northward to Behring's Straits, in the midst of an arctic winter. Of course they reach the friendly ship with bundles of rubles still untouched, pockets full of emeralds, a complete collection of Siberian curiosities, *and* the dancing-master's "pocket-violin"! As if the tragic improbabilities of the tale were not enough, they are set off throughout by the comic absurdities of the translation. Comments might have been needless but for an assumption in the preface of the great merit of "the Robinson Crusoe characteristics of the tale." We should be sorry to have this taken as a typical specimen of French work of the kind, for the French greatly excel in the real Robinson story—the simple air of truthfulness, the detail so faithful and apparently so unstudied, which make its especial charm. It is a pity that the choice ones are so little known among us. Such vivid pictures of the tropics as 'Les Coureurs des Bois,' or the beautiful stories of Xavier Marmier, have few equals in any language.

REDHOUSE'S MESNEVI.

The Mesnevī (usually known as the Mesnevīyi Sherif, or Holy Mesnevī) of Mevlānā (our Lord) Jelālu-'d-Dīn, Muhammed, er-Rūmī. Book I. Together with some Account of the Life and Acts of the Author, of his Ancestors, and of his Descendants, etc. Translated, and the Poetry versified, by James W. Redhouse, M.R.A.S., etc. London: Trübner & Co. 1881. 1 vol. 8vo, pp. xv.–135, v.–290.

THIS may be regarded as a companion to the "Sacred Books of the East" in course of publication under the editorial charge of Professor Max Müller, and would have found a fitting place in that series. Mr. Redhouse is known to philologists as the author, among other works, of a 'Grammaire de la Langue Ottomane' generally regarded as the best ever published. He is known in diplomatic circles from his having been employed for many years in the "Bureau des Interprètes du Divan Impérial Ottoman," and from his having, on important occasions, served the English Government as a Persian, Arabic, and Turkish interpreter. Few Europeans have so wide and so deep an acquaintance as himself with these three languages, and with the literature, the history, and the modes of thought of the peoples by whom they are spoken.

The first third of the present volume is occupied by anecdotes of which the compilation was commenced by Eflākī in 1310, thirty-seven years after the death of Jelāl, and continued until 1353. Mr. Redhouse accurately describes them in his preface: "Every anecdote is the account of a miracle wrought by the living or the dead, or is the narrative of some strange or striking event." In reading them one is reminded sometimes of the narrative portions of the New Testament, sometimes of the 'Arabian Nights,' most frequently of the modern "Spiritualists." They are generally very brief, and are interesting not merely as stories but as examples of what may be implicitly believed by men who, in their own country, are accounted honorable, learned, and wise.

The latter two-thirds of the volume are occupied by the translation of the Mesnevī. This word is not the title of a particular book, but it is the characteristic designation of a class of poetical compositions. It may with sufficient accuracy be rendered "rhymed couplets," and is alike descriptive of the original and the translation. The term is applied *par excellence* to the work of Jelālu-'d-Dīn. Jelāl was a contemporary of the poet Sa'dī. He was born at Balkh (the ancient Bactra) in Asia Minor, about A.D. 1205, and died in 1273. His family claimed descent from Abu-Bekr, the father-in-law and immediate successor of Muhammed. His mother was a princess of the royal house of

Kh'ārezm-Shāh, known in history as the Kharezmians. His father, a nobleman of the highest rank, was noted for his learning and sanctity, and was the founder of a college at Oonya (Koniyeh or Konieh), where Jelāl himself passed the greater part of his life, and was professor in four colleges. Jelāl visited Bagdad, Aleppo, Damascus, Mecca, and other cities, and, in short, enjoyed all the culture attainable in Asia Minor by a young man belonging to a family of the highest rank and wealth. He was the founder of the order of Mevlevī Dervishes, called by Western nations "dancing" or "whirling" dervishes. This practice had been long in existence, and was not introduced by Jelāl. He seems, however, to have been the first of the Moslems who made a systematic use of music in religious ceremonies, thinking it would render the religion of Islam more attractive to unbelievers. Probably about A.D. 1258, or fifteen years before his death, Jelāl, at the suggestion, and with the assistance, as amanuensis, of his favorite pupil Husāmu-'d-Dīn, commenced the composition of the Mesnevī. After the completion of the first volume the work was interrupted for two years by the grief of Husām at the loss of his wife—a sad yet pleasing incident in a land of polygamy, and not so uncommon as is sometimes supposed. The work was resumed in 1263, and continued until the death of Jelāl. It will be seen presently that the work, from its nature, had no particular limit as to extent.

In the estimation of the Persians themselves the Mesnevī is inferior to the Koran alone. Nevertheless the work has never been printed. A couplet will be found here and there in a Persian grammar, but practically the whole text exists only in manuscript. A selection from Jelāl's other poems, of which he wrote a great number, was published by Rosenzweig in Vienna in 1838. The great extent of the Mesnevī has perhaps prevented its publication. According to Mr. Redhouse, it consists of six volumes or parts, containing 23,660 couplets, or 57,320 lines—about four times as many as the 'Iliad.' The present translation, embracing only the first volume, contains 4,106 couplets, a little more than a sixth of the whole. The work consists of a collection of tales. Many of them are fables current in the West as well as the East; others are founded on historical events; very few, if any, are pure inventions of the author. Some readers will recognize an old friend in the second tale, "The Oil-man and the Parrot." The third, "The Jewish King, Persecutor of the Christians," borrows largely from the story of Zopyrus in the third book of Herodotus. But the incidents of the stories occupy only a small portion of the text; the bulk of the work is made up of the moral and philosophical teachings of the author. Thus, the longest and one of the most pleasing tales is the ninth, "The Poor Scenite Arab and his Wife." It occupies forty-seven pages, though the story proper might be told in a column of the *Nation*. Nor is each tale intended, as in an ordinary book of fables, to inculcate some particular moral. Reflections and discussions of all sorts are introduced, often with hardly any apparent connection with the story. These are generally unexceptionable, even in a religious point of view, and one might often easily imagine that he was listening to the exhortations of a Christian minister. Perhaps nothing in the work is more striking than the spirit of toleration which pervades it. While the author is, of course, opposed to every religion except that of Islam, it is evident that, as between Jews and Christians, he greatly prefers the latter. Mr. Redhouse, in his foot-notes, has embraced the opportunity to correct many of the erroneous notions prevalent in Europe in regard to the religion of Islam. The great number of illustrative passages cited from the Koran shows an acquaintance with that work which few Christians could claim in regard to the Bible. It is evident that Mr. Redhouse regards the religion of Islam as a phase in the history of human development which should be treated with the greatest respect and seriousness, and there is sometimes a tone of severity, perhaps a tinge of contempt, in the manner in which he corrects widespread European errors.

With the exception of a short poem in octosyllabic lines, the translation is entirely in decasyllabic couplets, with occasional lines of twelve syllables, as is usual in English heroic verse. Mr. Redhouse makes no claim to being a poet himself, and has only lately begun to practise the art of metrical composition. He thinks, however, that even such versification as he is able to present will give a better idea of the original than a prose translation. It may seem out of place to criticise versification introduced in this deprecating manner; but its faults are so numerous and so obtrusive that we fear they will seriously interfere with the reader's enjoyment of the work. Mr. Redhouse generally puts the proper number of syllables in a line, but does not seem to be aware that anything else is necessary to correct or even tolerable versification. Pages 46–47 happen to lie open before us, and we quote the following couplet:

> "All our complaints of our felt needs are indices.
> If shame we feel, of our freewill a sign it is."

It is difficult to see how this differs from prose except in the order of the words in the second line. Besides the above we have the following "rhymes" on the same two pages: "more" and "abjure," "bonds" and "vagabonds," "futurity," and "fatuity," and several others almost as bad. Frequently the two lines of Mr. Redhouse's couplets end in the same word, or in words which differ only in orthography, not in sound; like "sea" and "sea" (p. 82). It is true, the use of the same words at the end of both lines of a couplet is very common in the Persian poets. The first couplet of the Mesnevī ends in this manner. But Mr. Redhouse has not mentioned this usage of Persian poetry, and in this particular instance gives us the very imperfect rhyme of the words "tells" and "ills." So far as we can judge, the reader will be correct in inferring, as he certainly will infer, that such cases in the translation arise simply from the inability of the translator to find a rhyme authorized by English usage. We have also all sorts of awkward inversions and elisions. The latter are excusable when sparingly used and the composition is of a conversational turn; but they become irritating when thrown at us by the handful and on all occasions. For example, the use of "'s" for "is" and "has," and of "'d" for "had" and "would" is the rule rather than the exception—more frequent, we think, than most educated persons would allow themselves in ordinary conversation.

With these minor drawbacks, the book is very interesting. The translator's notes are highly instructive, and we hope that the sale of this volume may be sufficient to induce both translator and publisher to continue the work. In that case the addition to a future volume of the original text of one or more of the tales would be welcome.

BIOGRAPHIES OF GREAT MUSICIANS.

Wagner. By F. Hueffer. New York: Scribner & Welford. 1881.

Weber. By Sir Julius Benedict. New York: Scribner & Welford. 1881.

Schubert. By H. F. Frost. New York: Scribner & Welford. 1881.

Rossini. By H. S. Edwards. New York: Scribner & Welford. 1881.

Four volumes have now appeared of the series of "Biographies of Great Musicians," edited by F. Hueffer. The name of this accomplished and impartial critic is a sufficient guarantee that the life of each composer included in the series will be written by some one especially qualified for the task; and his editorial supervision will make it difficult for the reviewer to discover any error of statement. Besides Wagner, Weber, Schubert, and Rossini, by the writers mentioned above, three other volumes are in preparation, Mendelssohn, by Joseph Bennett, Marcello, by Arrigo Boito, and Purcell, by W. H. Cummings; and further contributions are promised by Dr. Hiller and other foreign and English writers of distinction. The general plan pursued throughout the series is to give within a compass of a hundred or a hundred and fifty pages a brief account of the leading events in the life of each composer, besides a chronological list of his works and mention of the circumstances under which they were written, whenever these are of any interest. Mr. Hueffer did well in reserving for himself the composer who now more than any other occupies the attention of the public, as no one is better qualified to write on Wagner. We have often heard a desire expressed for a book which, besides a biographical sketch, should contain a clear statement of the reforms which Wagner introduced in the opera, free from all newspaper and partisan misrepresentation. Mr. Hueffer not only makes clear the difference between the old opera and the new music-drama, but he also briefly traces the general development of the opera, showing among other things Wagner's relations to his German predecessors in this branch of music: Gluck, Mozart, Weber and Beethoven. The greater part of the book is devoted to analyses of the plot and music of Wagner's ten operas, in historical order.

Mr. Hueffer has not allowed himself to be deterred by cheap German sarcasm from pointing out the relations between Wagner and Schopenhauer. In their views on the relations between poetry and music, the two differ indeed as widely as possible; but this could not prevent Wagner from adopting Schopenhauer's metaphysical theory of music as the immediate expression of the "will." We do not agree with Wagner's "dream"-theory of music; but it must be borne in mind that it was quite possible to base this theory on Schopenhauer's doctrine without in the least sharing his admiration of Rossini for disregarding the words of the *libretti* he set to music. In the analysis of "Die Walküre" some sensible remarks are made about the love between *Siegmund* and *Sieglinde*, which apparently has shocked so many of the German critics. In judging of this love affair it is only necessary to note that "we are not dealing with ordinary men and women, but with the children of a god; mythical beings, that is, who have hardly yet emerged from the stage of natural forces. Who has ever been shocked at the amours of the Greek divinities on account of their being within the forbidden degree of relationship, or at the intermarriage of the children of Adam and Eve which the Pentateuch implies?"

Sir Julius Benedict's 'Weber' acquires a peculiar interest from the fact that the author was a pupil and friend of Weber for a considerable period. When he first met Weber he found him in the third story of an old house in Dresden, engaged with the arrangement of his "Freischütz" for the pianoforte; and he enjoyed the privilege of hearing the composer sing and play parts of this opera to him before it was given to the world. Although "Der Freischütz" is now regarded by competent critics as inferior to "Euryanthe," and even to "Oberon," it still remains with the people the most popular of Weber's operas, which is partly due to the simple character

of its music and partly to the dramatic interest of the plot, which is lacking in his other operas. The critics, however, did not receive "Der Freischütz" with any favor at first, and the poet Tieck even spoke of it as the most unmusical uproar ever heard on the stage. Weber's kindness of character is well illustrated by the fact that he secured for Spohr a good position at Cassel, although he was aware that Spohr had expressed a very unfavorable opinion of "Der Freischütz." It sounds almost incredible when one reads that so simple a work as this opera was at its first performances in Vienna mutilated by the omission of important characters and passages. The same operation is in our time being repeated with the later works of Weber's successor, in various German cities, and will one day be an object of still greater wonder and indignation to posterity. If Sir Julius Benedict felt more sympathy with modern opera, he would doubtless have pointed out the bonds of affiliation between Weber and Wagner, an affiliation which showed itself especially in the choice of mythical subjects for a libretto and of an occasional pregnant *motif* to characterize a striking situation, as well as in the effective use of horns off and on the stage. Had Weber lived some years longer, and not been forced by unfavorable circumstances to turn his back on that ideal of an opera which must have been in his mind when he wrote "Euryanthe," he would have doubtless anticipated still further some of the reforms made later by Wagner. But his poverty obliged him, in writing "Oberon" for London, to make concessions to the prevailing taste, since failure would have been financial ruin. While in London, which he was destined not to leave again alive, Weber had occasion to realize the difference between Continental and English treatment of artists. "In the huge *réunions* of the aristocracy artists were not expected to mix with the company: shut up, till everybody had assembled, in a small room; bid by insolent lackeys to enter the gorgeous drawing-rooms by a back staircase, even separated in some cases by a cord from the rest of humanity to avoid any contagion; commanded like any menial to sing their songs, . . . etc." In one of his letters, speaking of one of the large soirées at which he played, Weber says:

". . . Nearly all the stars of the Italian Opera Company. . . . Every kind of music was sung, but nobody listened to it. The din and noise of the throng were horrible. When I performed there was an endeavor to obtain a little silence, and one hundred persons placed themselves sympathetically round me. God alone knows what they heard, for I myself didn't hear much of it. I bore in mind, however, my thirty guineas and was resigned."

We have one criticism to add. On p. 35 the words "symphonic poems" are applied to Beethoven's symphonies. But these words can no longer be used in this general figurative manner, for "symphonic poem" is now a technical expression for a distinct form of music just as much as symphony or sonata.

Although the life of Schubert does not offer many features of romantic interest, those who know his songs and instrumental compositions will yet find Mr. Frost's little work on him quite readable. He was not a musician of the polemic or aggressive sort, nor did he enjoy much of that rich experience which comes to most musicians on their travels and at various courts. "Life for him was commonplace, dreary, and even sordid; and yet, if we dwell but for an instant on the romantic and poetical in music, the name of Schubert is the first which rises to our lips." At the present day to hear one of Schubert's songs and love it are one and the same thing. But it was not always so. Almost to the close of his brief career he was very little known outside a circle of friends in Vienna, and his finest song, "The Erl-King," was in vain offered to several publishers, and had to be ultimately published by subscription. In fact, many of his vocal and most of his instrumental works were only secured for the press long after his demise, chiefly through the efforts of Schumann and later of George Grove. When we read, therefore, that Schubert wrote no less than six hundred songs, besides being one of the most prolific composers in other fields, it becomes evident that he wrote music simply for the love of the thing; and it is that feeling which makes his best pieces always sound so fresh and spontaneous. A few of his symphonies are almost equal to Beethoven's, and had he lived as long as the latter it might even be questionable at present which of the two would have ultimately ranked as the greatest symphonist: for Schubert's aim was to devote his future labors chiefly to this and kindred forms of music, as he must have felt that he had already provided the world with the finest songs he or any one else ever could give. Schubert's genius derived much nourishment from that of Beethoven, who was a near neighbor of his in Vienna, although the two hardly knew each other personally; but in return his own fame had to suffer by being obscured by that of Beethoven for a long time. Nor was he able to promote his interests by publishing his manuscripts at his own expense, for his income never exceeded five hundred dollars a year—a fact which strangely contrasts with Rubinstein's recent harvest of forty thousand dollars, secured in England in the course of two months.

A very different sort of musician from Schubert was Rossini. He was one of the most splendid comets that ever crossed the musical horizon. For a while his brilliancy was so great that everything else was obscured by it, but now he is represented on the stage by only two or three of the thirty-seven operas which he wrote in as many years of his life. While Schubert always aimed to reproduce by his music the exact sentiments expressed by the poem, Rossini carried to its logical extreme the Italian vice of using the words of a poem or libretto merely as a peg on which to hang his songs. Nothing is more conspicuous in the records of Rossini's life than the unblushing manner in which he cut out the best melodies from his unsuccessful operas and inserted them in some new work he had in hand. Other musicians, notably Händel, did the same thing. But far from excusing Rossini, this simply shows that Händel's artistic conscience also was too lax—although in the case of his sacred compositions, in which the sentiment is one of uniform reverence and adoration, such a proceeding was not evidence of so high a degree of misdemeanor as in the case of an opera where the music, to be good, should so closely express the spirit of the words as to make the two well-nigh inseparable in the mind of the hearer. Strange to say, even the accommodating and applause-coveting Rossini at first encountered opposition in his native country, because he introduced some novel features in the opera. These novel features, however, were probably mostly copied from Mozart, who first used them. For although at the time "Tancredi" was produced in Italy none of Mozart's works had been given in Rossini's hearing, he had probably, as Mr. Edwards suggests, studied the score of these operas. Food for thought is afforded by the fact that the very things for which Rossini was blamed by contemporary critics are now recognized as his chief merits! Much cheap admiration is accorded Rossini for the fact that he could write four operas in one year, and one opera even in the course of a few weeks. Had he devoted as many years to them as he did weeks or months they would have stood a better chance of surviving the present century.

The last chapters of Mr. Edwards's book are devoted to Donizetti, Bellini, and Verdi, and on this account as well as on account of the general interest which attaches to this period of musical history, it must be especially commended to frequenters of Italian opera. Chapter IX. is on the comic in music; but although the best-known instances of comic music are briefly described, the problem as to what the comic in music really consists in is not solved; and the author significantly remarks at the end: "It is easier, indeed, to speak of comic music than to define it accurately, or to cite specimens that will bear analysis."

SELLAR'S ROMAN POETS OF THE REPUBLIC.

The Roman Poets of the Republic. By W. Y. Sellar, M.A., LL.D., Professor of Humanity in the University of Edinburgh, and formerly Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford. New edition, revised and enlarged. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1881.

In a notice of Dr. Sellar's 'Virgil' a few years ago we mentioned the first edition of the book before us as giving a singularly correct and appreciative estimate of the earlier Latin poets. It is not surprising that that edition, published in 1863, should long since have been exhausted. In the interval many learned and valuable discussions of these poets have appeared, and it would have been absurd to republish the work without modification, in the new light thrown by Munro's 'Lucretius,' and Schwabe's and Ellis's 'Catullus,' to say nothing of others. The present edition gives abundant evidence that the author has studied diligently what his contemporaries had to offer. He makes graceful and generous acknowledgment of his debts; and he has the manliness to maintain an independent view of his subjects without yielding his judgment to the dictation of the last English or German specialist. Perhaps we may trace this excellent and rare trait to his Scottish nationality, just as we see that love for the honor of little Denmark has helped to save the dignified independence of the great Madvig.

Besides the alterations from his first edition, Dr. Sellar has enriched the second by chapters on the Latin Comic Dramatists. He could hardly have done otherwise if his book was to retain real completeness; and yet perhaps the original instinct, which excluded Plautus and Terence from the company of Ennius and Lucretius, was truer. The first two were poets only so far as all ancient comedians had to be poets. The idea of writing plays in prose seems to be essentially modern, and in the age of the Scipios would have been an impossibility. The change from the deepest tragedy to the coarsest comedy, which Shakspere marks by a change from verse to prose, as in Macbeth's *Porter*, would have given an ancient writer a chance to introduce some new metrical system.

We cordially accept Dr. Sellar's comparative estimate of Plautus and Terence. The literary finish of the latter has given him a place *in summis* which he does not deserve on any true principles of criticism. The covert severity of Julius Cæsar's epigram is hardly perceived by many who quote it. Terence, the petted slave, had indeed learned from Scipio and Lælius to speak Latin perfectly; but to acquire their Roman manhood, even on its comic side, was morally—one is tempted to conjecture physically—impossible to him. Plautus is far more of a comedian and a poet, chiefly because he was more of a man. Undoubtedly Terence gives a correct rep-

resentation of Menander and Philemon; but it is better to be a whole Plautus than a "halved Menander." The Umbrian gave to his versions and perversions an energetic reality and cheerfulness worthy of Cato and Ennius. We cannot understand, by the way, how Dr. Sellar can call the New Comedy "cheerful" (p. 350). *Gay* it undoubtedly was; but its gayety was of that terrible kind which does not dare to be thoughtful. Healthy cheerfulness—the cheerfulness of Aristophanes or Scott—was unknown to it; and we cannot help seeing in it abundant touches of "delicious misery" worthy of Maudle himself. If we are not mistaken, Dr. Sellar analyzes too curiously both the poetical and the dramatic art of Plautus. The brave old Umbrian is all on the surface, and his charm—a very real and very rich one—almost passes away when subjected to the subtlety which does so much for Sophocles or Lucretius.

Of Ennius and Lucilius Dr. Sellar has made as much as possible; but the utmost is little. We are perfectly ready to infer, from the assertions of Cicero and Horace, and the imitations of Virgil and Persius, that these were the Latin Chaucer and the Latin Skelton. But what would be our present idea of Chaucer if our entire knowledge of him were derived from fragments, only three of them more than twenty lines long, only ten more than seven lines long—the majority of a single word or less than a line—quoted by grammarians to show how queer they were, and the entire mass less than three-quarters of the little volume of Gray? Yet this is the case with Ennius, the father of Roman poetry—the Latin Homer and Herodotus in one. With Lucilius the case is still more tantalizing. Dr. Sellar has drained to the utmost the grapes

> "Musarum quibus antrum
> Silvestris raris sparsit labrusca racemis,"

of all the Roman energy, bold invention, and rich, if harsh, music they contain; but, after all, we have to take Ennius and Lucilius chiefly on faith. It is astonishing to find that neither Dr. Sellar nor any other editor has seen that to Ennius should be ascribed the beautiful Saturnian Epitaphs of the later Scipios. Their poetry is far beyond any other writer of the time, and Ennius was the devoted friend of the family.

Of Dr. Sellar's handling of Lucretius we can speak with almost unqualified praise. He has thoroughly absorbed him, and recognizes with generous and delicate appreciation his peculiar merits, without losing himself in unwise idolatry. His intensity of moral purpose; his keen appreciation of nature in her homelier as well as her sublimer aspects; his tenacious hold, through all the allurements of fancy, of a philosophic system which at times, unconsciously to Lucretius himself, passes into a vivid pantheism not unlike that of Shelley, conjured up by the poet's inspiration; the combination of sympathy and satire with which he tries to arouse his countrymen to a higher life; the peculiar force of his poetic diction and rhythm, copied from older writers in individual points, as its own individual points were copied by Virgil, yet, as a whole, original and inimitable; the wonderful depth of his Greek scholarship, which drew upon far nobler and purer models than did most of his fellow poets*—these traits are exhibited in an orderly system, but at the same time with a very genial warmth, by Dr. Sellar. It seems to us that he is disposed to make too much of the possible connection with the old Lucretii, and, on the other hand, that he does not do justice to the truly scientific spirit of some of Lucretius's physical observations. His is not the mere surface science of Cicero, still less is it the *à priori* absurdity of Plato; he is the legitimate heir of Thales, not of Parmenides.

We find no allusion to Prof. Conington's reviews of Munro. One can hardly imagine Dr. Sellar not to have read them; but their views on the limitation of Lucretius's poetic genius he does not seem to appreciate as they deserve. He rather avoids discussing whether the poetical development of the Republic was equal or superior to that of the Empire; yet it is a most important point in the history of poetic art. At present the old opinions are at a discount; but we are convinced that the criticism which sets Lucretius and Catullus above Virgil and Horace cannot be permanent.

Of Catullus Dr. Sellar is determined to say the very best, and no doubt there is a great deal to be said that is good. When an accomplished and passionate young man, in the midst of intensely exciting society, pours out his whole heart on the themes of the hour, and in verse of unsurpassed melody, the result can hardly be other than striking.* Yet exceptions to the excellence of Catullus must be made, and those which Dr. Sellar makes are correct. He feels—he cannot help feeling—that there is something to apologize for in Catullus, but he does not get beyond particulars and tell us what the inherent radical defect is. And yet it is not far to seek: Catullus was ignoble. Whatever his blood, he had little of the spirit of the Valerii. He would have made no fit colleague for Brutus or Cato; hardly a fit victim for Pyrrhus and his elephants. He was brilliant, affectionate, and accomplished, but shallow, dissipated, and malignant. He could write lovely wedding-songs, but he never could have deserved to have one written on himself. If Lucretius as a writer rises above Cicero, Catullus as a character was a fit associate for Milo; and with both, poetry and character are inseparably intertwined.

We commend Dr. Sellar's beautiful book with entire cordiality to all lovers of poetry and criticism.

* Neither Munro nor Sellar quotes the curious imitation of Lucr. iii. 870, from Plat. Phædo, 68 B. § xiii.

* To the comparison with Burns we strongly object; Byron seems to us a much more fitting parallel.

MOTHER SHIPTON.

Mother Shipton Investigated. By William H. Harrison. London: 1881.

THAT this popular bugbear, so disquieting to many weak minds, has been gravely exploded, even a cynical philosopher, withdrawing his tongue from his cheek, may feel constrained to acknowledge to be well. As prophetess, and well-nigh as personality, Mother Shipton is now pretty thoroughly no more. If not herself quite as mythical as Remus or Arthur, at all events her predictions are seen, when examined, to dissolve into the thinnest of thin air. Those who, because she is supposed to have forecast it, look for the winding up of Tellurian affairs in the current year of grace, may therefore again draw their breath with their wonted composure.

The various traditions about Mother Shipton all agree in representing her as having been a native of Yorkshire. One authority dates her birth in 1486; another in 1488, adding, we are informed, that she died in "1651, when upwards of *seventy* years of age"! The arithmetic here followed must be that of the witches. And equally is there a lack of unanimity as to who the Mother was. According to the commonplace record of her, she began life as Ursula Sonthiel, became the wife of Toby Shipton, a builder, and was a good-enough sort of woman, for all that she could see into the future. Agreeably, however, to the heroistic account of her, not only was she not called Ursula, but she bore no baptismal designation whatever; and, seeing that she was sired by Satan and had a naughty wench, one Agatha Shipton, for mother, it may admit of a casuistical doubt whether she was entitled to any. An unscrupulous playwright of the seventeenth century, whose veracity was perhaps corrupted by her astute father for his own base ends, tries to palm off Mother Shipton as the prosaic "daughter of Solomon Shipton, ditch-digger, lately deceased." And Agatha, he further has it, was her own name, and not that of Madam Diabola. Not to us, but to the successors of Niebuhr and Mommsen belongs the task of dealing scientifically with these perplexing data and sifting out the precious truth therefrom.

Neither Dr. Dee nor, to use Sir Thomas More's phrase, any other "old sage father fool" of the Elizabethan era has commemorated Mother Shipton, of whom, indeed, it is dubious whether the world had then yet heard. At what appears to be the time when she is earliest mentioned nearly all the prophecies which have been attributed to her had been accomplished. This was in 1641. In 1645 a revised collection of these prophecies was published by William Lilly, the astrologer, "after the most exact copy," whatever that may have been. The sibyl's soothsaying "was never yet questioned, either for the verity or antiquity," we are assured by Lilly, with a sturdy confidence which only an improper intimacy with the stars can easily account for.

As lately as two years ago no slight commotion was occasioned in Mid-Somerset by a reported Shiptonian vaticination. A rumor, originating no one knows how or where, got abroad there, and was widely believed by the common people, that the Mother had fixed Good Friday, 1879, as to be distinguished by local calamity. Ham Hill, near Yeovil, was to be engulfed at noon by an earthquake, and Yeovil itself was to be inundated by an extraordinary flood. To be out of harm's way, sundry inhabitants of that vicinity betook themselves to better-omened regions as the critical day drew near, while others made preparations for retreat when duly warned. In expectation of seeing Ham Hill disappear into a chasm, crowds collected within safe distance of it. To their disappointment, the spectacle went unrealized, or, as they preferred to put it, had somehow been misdated. In Mid-Somerset, as elsewhere, the ages of faith are still running their persistent course.

With regard to the rough couplet, at which so many have shaken in their shoes,

> "The world to an end shall come
> In eighteen hundred and eighty-one,"

it has been known to readers of *Notes and Queries* since 1873 that it first saw the light in 1862, and that its author, by his own avowal, was Mr. Charles Hindley, of Brighton.

Mr. Harrison, besides exhausting—if not actually, as far as his researches have enabled him—the Shiptonian bibliography, has reproduced in full the oldest discovered work of which Mother Shipton is the subject. As interestingly illustrative of the repute which gradually came to be attached to what may have been but a mere name, he can refer to so respectable a voucher as Mr. Timbs in proof that a wax figure of Mother Shipton adorned Westminster Abbey till a somewhat recent period; sharing with its uncouth companions, effigies of realities as substantial as Queen Elizabeth and Oliver Crom well, the veneration of unhistorical hero-worshippers.

In the issue for last April of the *Palatine Note-Book*, "W. G.," writing from Harrogate, contributes a detail of numerous fulfilled prophecies of recent date, ascribed to Mother Shipton, collected in the neighborhood of her traditional birthplace, Knaresborough. One of these

prophecies relates to an occurrence which happened only last year. Mr. Harrison would advantageously supplement his little book, in a second edition, by availing himself of the article referred to.

The History of a Mountain. By Élisée Reclus. New York: Harper & Brothers. Illustrated. 8vo. 1881.

THE story of the mountain is written as if related by one who, possessed with an intense disgust for all mankind, turned his back upon their haunts and, with a single companion, a shepherd, strove to regain his vigor and peace of mind in the mountain solitudes. In dealing with nature his tone at once becomes healthy and joyous. M. Reclus is a very agreeable writer. His book is very accurate, and much more complete than would be expected from its size. To hardly any other could one turn for more impressive and at the same time truthful descriptions and definitions than many of those it gives, as in the case of landslips, avalanches, glaciers, and their attendant phenomena, moraines, etc. Exceptions may be taken to such statements as that the mountain was once twice its present height. This is possible, but improbable. Before the summit had reached the surface of the sea the forces of erosion were at work, in the winds, waves, and currents. Once above the sea level, the heat, the cold, and the rain re-enforced the activity and destructiveness of erosion to such an extent that it is not at all likely, with their slow rate of upheaval, that our highest mountains were ever very much higher than at present. The chapter on the "Destruction of the Peaks" might have been entitled the Destruction of the Mountain, since it is commonly by this means that the peaks are formed. "It is by licking the mountains," says an ancient prayer of the Hindus, "that the celestial cow [*i. e.*, the rain from heaven] formed the fields." Multitudes of peaks have been formed by the same process. The author predicts that man will soon be able to reach the highest summits of the Andes and Himalayas. "Balloons have already carried him two or three hundred thousand yards high" (p. 189). Two hundred thousand yards are more than a hundred and thirteen miles. It is considered doubtful whether any one has reached a height greater than five miles. At this height aeronauts are so distressed as to be almost crazed and incapable of determining altitudes or taking observations. Some chapters refer to places, creatures, and things belonging particularly to the Old World, but they are such as have been so woven into our literature that we of the New Continent are quite as familiar with them. "The Animals of the Mountain," "The Free Mountaineers," "The Cretins," "Olympus and the Gods," and "The Genii" are none the less interesting because they are of the Old. With these and a few similar exceptions, the history is that of our own mountains: the facts and generalizations apply everywhere. The plan of the work is very comprehensive. Aside from the direct story of the rocks, there is introduced a great deal of incident, adventure, mythology, and religion, which tends to fix the physical basis in the mind and heighten the interest in it. The whole is well finished by a chapter on man and his relations to the mountain. Among those competent to tell the history of the mountain there are few who are able to put so much life and poetry into descriptions of objects that have become commonplace. Looking at them as seen by the author, the mountaineer will recognize his old friends as if greatly improved. One who meets the mountains for the first time after reading this history will have had an excellent introduction; and the traveller who fails to see, think, and profit more in his contact with them after its perusal will probably be only a tourist.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Sully, J. Illusions. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $1 50.
Townsend, Prof. L. T. The Art of Speech. Vol. 2. New York: D. Appleton & Co.
Droz, G. Monsieur, Madame, and the Baby. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1.
Montelth, J. Popular Science Reader. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.
Seiten, F. Ecos del Rin. New York: N. Ponce de Leon.
Craik, Georgiana M. Sydney: a Tale. New York: Harper & Bros. 75 cents.
Oncken, W. Allgemeine Geschichte. Parts 29-32. New York: B. Westermann & Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 25, 1881.

The Week.

It is very difficult to say anything about the President's condition which has not been already said a score of times, or anything which is certainly worth saying. But the effect of all the recent saying on the public mind has been undoubtedly depressing in the extreme. The doctors are no longer able to make head against the rising tide of despondency either through their bulletins or the interviews with the reporters. Their present position may be summed up by saying that they maintain that the President's chief trouble is the feebleness of his digestion, and that if they can overcome this, all will go well. But then it cannot be disguised that this is like saying that if they can cure him, he will get well. The weakness of the stomach is of course part of the general weakness. The doctors are suffering, too, and doubtless unjustly, in the popular mind from their confidence three or four weeks ago. The public is disposed to believe that because things have not gone as the medical men were so confident they would go, they must have been mistaken both in their diagnosis and prognosis; but this by no means follows. If we try to figure to ourselves in what condition a healthy man would now be who was put to bed in the White House on the 3d of July and kept there ever since, we shall all feel more leniently towards the doctors. They are probably not to blame for not having carried him to the Soldiers' Home on the first day, for they doubtless believed, with good excuse, that he would die on the road; but all who have ever observed in war time the influence of local air in bringing up or keeping down wounded men, must now feel sadly that if he had been taken away from Washington at the outset, he might be in a very different state. A badly wounded man in a place where he has to be protected from malaria by doses of quinine, can hardly be expected to keep his digestion very long, much less get rapidly well of his wounds.

The public has, as is usual, divided into two camps about the prospects of recovery, under the influence of temperament; the hopeful being fed every day by Dr. Bliss, whose conversations seem to indicate clearly that he would not have made a bad "journalist." The despondent are fed by most of the other doctors, who, however, have not seen the patient, and therefore have to speak more cautiously. Curiously enough, too, the occasion has produced a new use for the word "conservative." A "conservative" bulletin or despatch about the President means a careful and slightly despondent account of him, and seems to be opposed, in newspaper parlance, to a sensational or demagogic account of him.

The address and resolutions of the Anti-Monopoly Conference at Utica were, upon the whole, moderate and practical. In all popular protests against public abuses there is a tendency towards extravagance; and the greater the abuses the greater is the exaggeration. The weakness of such movements is often a lavish outpouring of indignant but vague and general denunciation, amid which details of wrongs and specific measures of redress are forgotten. The proceedings at Utica incur little criticism on this score. The address indeed says that the freight charges of the railroads are impositions "compared with which the tolls exacted by the robber barons of the feudal ages were petty." It would be just as well to dispense with such rhetoric as this, not for the sake of the carrying companies, but in view of its effect upon the public mind. The people know very well that, whatever their wrong-doing may be, there is no parallel between the corporations and the robber barons. The railroads do perform a valuable service, even when they charge too much for it—an indispensable service, which must be had even at twice the price. The management of the carrying business is conducted according to the forms of law, under the sanction of statutes made by the representatives of the people. Nothing like this could be said in behalf of the robber barons. They were carriers also, but carriers only of stolen goods from the possession of the rightful owners to the robbers' haunts. People are naturally suspicious of a case which is bolstered up in this forced fashion. When they find its advocates making statements which are obviously unwarranted, they are inclined to regard with caution all facts and figures of which they have no personal knowledge, but which they are obliged to take upon trust.

The "Ponca question," which at one time caused so much heated discussion, has now been finally settled strictly in accordance with the law passed by Congress in February last, the provisions of which were based upon recommendations made by President Hayes and the Interior Department. The Sioux have given their assent to the settlement of that part of the Ponca tribe which left the Indian Territory two or three years ago, upon lands held by the Sioux under the treaty of 1868. By far the larger part of the Ponca tribe, more than three-fourths of them, declared last winter their desire to remain in the Indian Territory, and they are being provided for there, Congress having, in virtual pursuance of recommendations submitted by the Interior Department three years ago, at last made ample appropriations for their indemnification and settlement.

The defalcation of Captain Howgate, the disbursing officer of the Signal Service Bureau, is now thought to amount to $400,000. As the amount of last year's appropriation is about $450,000, and he has been at work only five years, he must have made away with about one quarter of the money which passed through his hands. What he did with it does not yet appear; nor does it appear how he expected to get out of his scrape after the first $100,000 had gone, or why he did not run away before he was found out, as it is plain that he was not watched or pursued very closely. Nor does it appear how he was able to deceive the Congressional Committee each year as to the amount of his expenditures, for he continued to receive during the four last years, for the mere conduct of the Bureau, the amount which was drawn in the first year both for equipping and conducting it. His bail has been raised to $90,000, which ought to be hard to find.

O'Donovan Rossa held a convention or "Dynamite Council" on Sunday in Third avenue, and subsequently issued a proclamation announcing his intentions with regard to the English merchant marine. The convention has decided that inasmuch as "belligerents do not usually begin their campaign by attacking the strongest and best fortified places of the enemy," it would be a mistake for "the Irish people" to begin by blowing up the war ships of England; nor is it "at all incumbent upon them" to do so, for it is just as well to begin with the work most easy to accomplish, and it will probably only require the destruction of "a few hundred English merchant vessels" to give the world the opportunity of enjoying "the beneficent sight of all the shipping merchants and insurance companies of England presenting a petition to Gladstone to reconsider the Irish question." The convention therefore kindly warns the public that "after September 1st it will be well for all peaceable people to avoid patronizing ships that sail under the protection of the English flag." The disposition of a part of the press to treat these fulminations of Rossa's as mere jokes or "scares" is very unfortunate, because it encourages him and his friends to continue them. The joke, too, is of a kind which it is very difficult for those who are immediately affected by it to understand or appreciate. Besides this it is a well-ascertained fact that a very large proportion of the "skirmishing fund," which is to be used in some way in aid of the "Irish cause," has been raised in this country, and also that infernal machines have already been sent from this country to England. Under these circumstances it would require a much keener sense of humor than most people outside of dynamite "circles" can be expected to possess, to look upon a general threat to blow up passenger vessels as merely good Anglo-Irish sport.

The loan market became stringent during the week, partly because of the continued heavy drain of money into the Treasury for customs and internal revenue taxes, partly on account of the excess of shipments of currency to the West over the receipts from neighboring points, and partly because of a manipulation of the market by stock speculators interested in lower prices for shares. The result of all this was that the surplus reserve of the New York banks was extinguished, and the banks

were left $717,700 short of a 25 per cent. reserve. The rates on loans made by the banks, trust companies, and other corporate lenders were marked up to 5 and in some cases to 6 per cent., and at the Stock Exchange such fancy rates as 1-32@1-4 of 1 per cent. per day were added to the annual rate of 6 per cent. This sudden change in the loan market weakened the rates for foreign exchange so that not far from $5,000,000 of foreign gold were started from London and Paris for New York, and a good part of that which comes from London was sent after the Bank of England had advanced its posted discount rate to 3 per cent. from 2½ per cent. Another effect of the spasm in the loan market was to induce the Treasury to order the prepayment, without rebate of interest, of the registered 5 per cent. bonds which mature October 1. The amount of these bonds is not far from $30,000,000, and the Treasury, while still accumulating a surplus, has now the money on hand to pay every dollar of them.

The only pressure on the loan market of a speculative character comes from the cliques, having their headquarters at Chicago, which are engaged in "bulling" food products. Their demand for money has been large, to support the towering speculation in which they are engaged and in which they have hitherto been successful—at least so far as marking up prices is an element of success. The speculation at the Stock Exchange has been in the opposite direction, and prices there have had a heavy fall—from 1 to 17 points. This bear speculation has forced a general liquidation of "bull accounts" in stocks, with the result of largely diminishing the Stock Exchange demand for money. No progress has been made, so far as is known, towards a settlement of the trunk-line railroad war, but it is intimated that the matter is within such easy control that one or two men can name the time when the war shall end and rates be restored, and that they are waiting for the uncertainties respecting President Garfield's life to cease before deciding. Unfortunately for the country, the condition of the President has not been such during the week as to encourage strong hopes of his recovery; and truth requires it to be said that Wall street speculators are now waiting for his death to make another move in the great game which they are playing at the Stock Exchange.

The American Bar Association has taken up the subject of legal education, and recommends a three years' course of study in all law schools, and also that diplomas granted by the schools shall entitle the holders to admission to the bar. The first recommendation will meet with general approval; with regard to the second, there would be no objection to giving a diploma this weight if the course of study were always such that the diploma really meant something. But there are many law schools which give diplomas after a very brief period of study, and without any adequate examination of the student's fitness to receive it. To permit the diplomas of such institutions to entitle the holders to admission to the bar, not only lowers the professional standard, but is unfair to other schools of established reputation. Most young men preparing for the bar are chiefly desirous of getting admitted as speedily as possible, and will be likely to select schools where diplomas are most easily and quickly obtained. The experiment has been tried in this and in other States, and it has never worked well.

Mr. David Dudley Field has been advocating the insertion in all treaties of a clause providing for international arbitration, which Mr. Lane, the Japanese representative, opposed, or rather criticised, on the ground that such a provision would be inoperative in the case of such wars as our late one, or that between France and Germany. But then it is not a good objection to any political or social arrangement that it will not completely accomplish its object. This we have occasion frequently to point out to those who oppose competitive examinations on the ground that incompetent men will often succeed in passing them, and that many a man who has passed, or could pass, a good examination, has afterwards got into the penitentiary. The objection would, in fact, if valid against anything, lie against the utility of courts and policemen, for, in spite of both, criminals abound. No agreement to arbitrate will ever prevent all wars, but any honest agreement would prevent some wars. This is exactly the way legal penalties for crime work. They prevent a great many crimes, and a great many they do not prevent; but there is nevertheless no doubt of their value. Arbitration would probably prevent nearly all wars arising out of disputes between two independent Powers of equal strength, where nothing is involved but a sum of money or a point of honor. It probably would not, as yet, prevent wars of annexation or wars of independence, but these are almost certain to be very rare in the future. It will not be long before every Power will have seized every inch of land to which it lays any kind of claim, and before every people with any craving for independence will have all the independence it cares for.

The results of the French elections are all but completely known, and they are very important. The Monarchists of both varieties have lost heavily, in fact so heavily that they may be said to have disappeared as a political party. Out of 483 members elected, they number only 80. The Republicans have gained altogether 58 seats. This is not all, however. Not only have the Legitimists and Bonapartists suffered a crushing defeat, but the extreme Radicals have hardly fared any better. Of the 403 Republicans thus far elected, 344 belong to the moderate wing, made up of what is called the "Republican Union" and the Left. The "Left Centre" numbers only 34, and the "Extreme Left," led by Clémenceau, only 25, or in other words is reduced to nothingness. This would be crushing for Clémenceau and his followers if it were not that they are able to chuckle over Gambetta's failure also. There is no doubt that he has suffered personally a severe reverse. In other words, the elections have revealed the fact, not that he has no influence or following, but that he has not one quarter of the influence or following he was thought to have. In the Belleville district in Paris, in which he polled 13,300 votes in 1877, he has this year secured only 9,400, and a majority over all of only about 20. This would not be so surprising if it had been brought about by a gain of strength on the part of the Extreme Left, which has always been his bitterest enemy; but in Paris only 9 Irreconcilables have been returned out of 22 candidates, 13 being Republicans of various shades of moderation. The same result appears all over the country. Both the Monarchists and the extreme Radicals have been beaten, horse, foot, and dragoons. This shows clearly that Gambetta has not suffered on account of his "opportunism," or, in fact, on account of anything for which the Radicals have found fault with him. It is almost certainly a rebuke called forth by his starring trip to Cahors, by his domination of the Ministry on more than one occasion, and, more than all, by his attack on the Senate when it threw out his *scrutin de liste*, and his purpose to punish it by "revising" it, almost within a week after he had held up Americans to admiration for their slowness about amending their Constitution. The rebuke is made the more pointed by the fact that the Cabinet has met with no rebuff, and will go into the new Chamber considerably strengthened.

The most striking consequence of the elections, however, is neither the defeat of the Irreconcilables, nor the check to Gambetta, nor the resuscitation of the Ministry. It lies in the fact that now for the first time in French history the Chamber contains an overwhelming majority—a majority so great as to make the minority of no account—of members who are loyal to the republican form of government, while differing about policy. In other words, the French republic has now for the first time a loyal, as distinguished from a revolutionary, Opposition—an Opposition which seeks not to overturn the established government, but simply, as in England or in this country, to administer it in a different way. This is a very great gain—in fact probably the greatest step in advance yet made in French politics, and made, too, through an election of which no one seems to dispute the freedom and fairness. The effect of it is somewhat marred by the smallness of the total vote, but "staying away from the polls" is a disease of the Latin countries which only time will cure. The abstainers are, however, usually that perfectly harmless portion of the population to whom government is still something like the weather, which man must submit to but cannot control.

Nothing in the way of imposition has been more successful of late years than the English agitation for a "fair trade," as it is called, or in other words, for a return to protection. The effect produced by it on the minds of many people in this country as to the failure of "British free trade" has been and is almost ludicrous in its completeness. The movement consists simply of a great noise made by a number of people who do not know what they

are talking about, and therefore resolutely avoid facts and figures. All they say is that the British foreign trade is going to ruin; that the poor British workingman has to emigrate to avoid starvation. There is not a word of truth in this, and yet it is apparently impossible to get them to stop and argue. The London *Economist*, which has hitherto treated the agitation somewhat too disdainfully, has just given it a blow which would be crushing if the agitators were a different kind of people. It shows that during the six years ending in 1880, the cotton, woollen, pig-iron, and coal production of Great Britain, increased from five per cent. to fifteen per cent. as compared even with the production during the exceptionally prosperous six years ending in 1874; that the British consumption per head of cocoa, coffee, sugar, tea, tobacco, and spirits, has (comparing the same years) increased in a greater or less ratio; that the number of paupers, which in 1869 was 1,167,888, and in 1874 935,176, was in 1880 only 901,737; that the deposits in the savings banks, which in 1869 were only £51,078,000, were in 1880 £77,721,000. Nor is the British workingman emigrating to avoid destitution. The emigration from the United Kingdom decreased thirty per cent. in the six years ending in 1880, as compared with the previous six years. It is in Germany, which has just returned to a high tariff, that the emigration is reaching enormously increased proportions. Moreover, in 1869, the gross value of property in Great Britain assessed for the income tax was £434,804,000; in 1874, £543,026,000; while in 1879 it was £578,046,000. If any one supposes, however, that the organs in this country which have been trying to make much of this ridiculous business, and predicting great results from it—the Boston *Advertiser*, for example—will quote these figures, he is probably greatly mistaken.

Somebody who is solicitous about the fair fame of the Cornell University ought to do something to prevent the crew which recently went to England from exposing each other, and bringing further disgrace on the college and on the country. The latest "revelation" about the Vienna race is that Shinkel, the fainting oarsman, entered into a regular agreement, before he left the country, with a retail liquor dealer, his "prospective brother-in-law," and a wholesale liquor-dealer, to "throw" all races after the first, and thus enable them to make a little money; and it is urged in proof against him, that, though a penniless man, he went abroad with $800 in cash and a suit of clothes which he had obtained on credit. It is further added, that "incriminating proof" of his mingled treachery and corruption was found in his baggage by "his infuriated associates." Our advice to his "infuriated associates" and all others concerned now is to drop the whole matter and bury it in eternal silence, and let the guilty Shinkel go free. Better ten Shinkels should escape than that the impression should be well established abroad that an American university crew may be a gang of sharpers, who arm themselves with oars simply to throw their victims off their guard.

The English press has begun to heap a good deal of abuse on Parnell and his followers of the Land League, in reprobation of their evident design of keeping up the anti-English agitation. They declare that the passage of the Land Bill must be received as full and complete satisfaction of all Irish demands, or the English people will begin to regret that they passed it, and then English hostility to Ireland will produce that undescribed and perhaps indescribable Irish woe which the *Spectator* frequently threatens as a consequence of rousing the "Berserker wrath" of the Anglo-Saxon towards the Celt. We certainly have little sympathy with Mr. Parnell or his methods, and think as highly as any one of the Land Bill. It is a great act of justice, which may fairly be regarded as the crowning glory of Mr. Gladstone's career as a legislator. But it must be admitted both by those who admire Mr. Gladstone most, and those who like the Land League least, that it comes too late to prove a complete measure of conciliation. It has the very serious political defect against which Burke so solemnly warned the English Government a century ago, of looking like a concession made by timidity to popular violence. It was not framed or even thought of until Ireland was, to use Mr. Gladstone's phrase, "within a measurable distance of civil war." It was preceded, too, by a "Coercion Bill," which, however justifiable it may have seemed in the eyes of Englishmen and of Irish Tory landlords, was condemned as impolitic by Irishmen of every other class. It helped to revive in the Irish mind, for the benefit of Irish agitators, the most odious memories of English rule. The fact that Mr. Forster and Mr. Gladstone were good men compared to those who formerly used this weapon, made no impression on the Irish mind. It is a fixed maxim of Irish politics that no Englishman means well to Ireland who appears on the scene with this in his hand.

Nothing that we hear from Ireland, therefore, justifies the expectation that the Land Bill will act as a political sedative. It will undoubtedly improve the condition of the peasantry, and this is of itself an immense gain, but there is much reason to fear that we are about to witness in Ireland a fresh illustration of the truth of the old saying, that political discontent is never so formidable as when the condition of the discontented has begun to improve. The Parnellites doubtless have this in their mind and are going to profit by it. The kind of voter which the Land Bill will create in Ireland is almost certain to be far more hostile to the connection with England in its present shape than the present constituencies are, and there is no likelihood of the anti-English agitators' trade perishing in Ireland until the Irish are allowed to manage their own affairs; until, in short, as Fox recommended nearly one hundred years ago, Ireland is governed in accordance with Irish opinions and even Irish prejudices.

The French protectionists have not been very consistent in their arguments in the debates on the new general tariff, and the weakness of their position was clearly shown by the Liberals, but without changing the result. When the tariff came before the Senate it was urged that a market for French agricultural produce could only be maintained by placing some restrictions on the importation of foreign produce; that the "discovery of agricultural America," as M. Paris expressed it, had altered the position of the French farmer, and that unless something was done to check this foreign competition the French farmer would soon be driven to the wall, as wheat and other cereals could be imported and sold for a lower price than would remunerate the home grower; that the condition of the farmer was bad and was becoming worse. On the other hand, the friends of a liberal commerce alleged that the situation of the French farmer was due to causes beyond the control of legislation. No country could bear a succession of bad harvests; the phylloxera had caused the misfortunes of the wine producers; and some misery was entailed by the chemical preparation of madder, a discovery which put an end to the culture of the madder plant. It was, moreover, shown that the grain acreage had increased, the average yield per acre was larger, and that a heavier and better grain was produced; that so far from being crowded out by foreign competition, the crop of 1880 was above the average, and, while it was asserted that American wheat could be sold in France for fourteen francs per hectolitre, the price of wheat at the seaboard remained at twenty-three francs the hectolitre.

Notwithstanding these statements, the protectionist plea was favored by the farmers, and an alliance was formed between the manufacturers and the farmers to pass a protective tariff, with the expectation, of course, that the protection would be equal for both. But the result has shown that the manufacturers have obtained the lion's share. The greater part of agricultural products is still admitted free or on payment of very moderate duties. On the other hand, the duties on all manufactured articles, with the exception of certain silks, have been increased by one-fourth when compared with duties under the commercial treaties, and unless the commercial treaties are renewed the increase will be still greater. Nor was this result due in any way to the soundness of the manufacturers' arguments. Before the Senate, the iron manufacturers claimed that they were placed at such a disadvantage that the proposed duty of six francs per ton would not enable them to compete successfully with foreign manufacturers. They even went so far as to give figures, which were supposed to express accurately the extent of this disadvantage. It cost in France, they said, to produce one ton of iron, sixty-one francs more than in England, sixty-three francs more than in Belgium, and seventy-two francs more than in Germany. Yet facts were against them, for in the period between 1860 and 1880, while the commercial treaty was in operation, importations of iron remained almost stationary, though the home production enormously increased.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

THE week at Washington has been an even more anxious one than the last; it has at all events been marked by a dead level of despondency, owing both to the President's continued weakness and to the occurrence of new complications. On the 16th instant his stomach began to recover its tone in some slight degree, and since then has been able to receive liquid nourishment in quantities varying from day to day. The administration of nutritive injections has, however, been constantly kept up, and there is no present intimation that the stomach can be exclusively relied upon soon. The pulse went down and the temperature rose to normal during the latter part of the week, though the febrile rise continues diurnal. On Friday the bulletins announced a swelling of the parotid gland, which has since then increased steadily, notwithstanding all attempts to reduce it, and is now expected to suppurate. Whether the septic taint in the blood which this argues will prove serious cannot be discovered till then. Meantime the swelling causes the President great annoyance, though it has ceased to create pain. It prevents the opening of the mouth more than a fraction of an inch, and on Sunday occasioned an attack of vomiting, owing to the accumulation of phlegm in the throat consequent upon it. Secretary Blaine's messages to Mr. Lowell, and one in reply to a telegram from the Pope, have been noticeably less hopeful than heretofore. According to one of the former, sent on Monday, the President has, since July 2, fallen away in weight from 205 or 210 to 125 or 130 pounds, and "his failure to gain strength is the one feature which gives special uneasiness and apprehension." On the other hand, Dr. Hamilton, who was at the outset very reticent, expresses the belief that his patient will recover.

Guiteau manifested some uneasiness on the morning of the 17th instant, enough to excite the vague suspicions of his watcher, who accordingly entered his cell to make an investigation. The prisoner immediately grappled with him and endeavored to stab him with a knife-like piece of sharpened steel which he had got possession of in some way unknown to the prison authorities. In the course of the scuffle the keeper's pistol was accidentally discharged, and the report brought assistance, and Guiteau was reduced to subjection. He has since exhibited great contrition for his conduct, which is ascribed at the jail to a desire to persuade people of his insanity.

The Anti-Monopoly Conference called by different trade organizations of this State met on Thursday last at Utica, some fifty delegates being present. The temporary Chairman, Mr. L. E. Chittenden, of this city, made an address in which he spoke of the combination of corporations as a national danger, and declared the object of the gathering to be an "effort to secure in all the districts of our State the nomination and election to the next Legislature of men—true, unpurchasable men—pledged to vote and act in the interests of the people," as opposed to the newly-arisen power of monopoly. The way to accomplish this end lay in organization; he did not care "by what name or under what flag" such organization was had. General A. S. Diven was elected permanent President, with a long list of Vice-Presidents, and at the afternoon session, besides an address from the Chairman, a series of resolutions were adopted as the platform of the Conference. This was in the form of an address to the people of the State, reciting the grievances of the people against the railroads, showing how a monopoly is created "by a system of taxation, under the guise of tolls or charges for transportation, compared with which the tolls exacted by the robber barons of the middle ages were petty"; declaring that each year $3,760,000 are "extorted from the public" to meet the dividends upon $47,000,000 "fictitious stock" of the New York Central Railroad; exposing the practice of "discrimination"; and reciting the legislative action on the Hepburn Committee's report. The address pronounced against Senators McCarthy, Stevens, Halbert, Madden, Braman, Rockwell, Sessions, Wagner, Woodin, Robertson, Seebacher, Eidman, Jacobs, Birdsall, Fowler, Baker, Loomis, Wendover, and Mills, who "were usually found voting with the corporations and against the public interests." Various "specific results" to be secured were mentioned as well as a few "general principles," and among the resolutions with which the document concluded was one disclaiming any intention of making warfare upon "corporations as such."

The American Bar Association began its annual convention at Saratoga on the 17th instant with the reading by President Phelps of the annual report recounting the principal changes in statutory law on points of general interest made by the different States and by Congress during the year. On Thursday Mr. Clarkson N. Potter, subsequently chosen President of the Association for 1881-2, delivered an address on Chief Justice Taney. After Friday's session the Association adjourned. Among the most important business transacted was the appointment of a committee of nine to consider and report upon the general question of relief of the appellate courts from the onerous pressure of their business.

The exhibition of the New England Manufacturers' and Mechanics' Institute in Boston was opened on Thursday. Governors Long of Massachusetts, Plaisted of Maine, Littlefield of Rhode Island, and Farnham of Vermont, and the Mayors of most of the prominent New England cities were present. Commissioner of Agriculture Loring delivered an address, in the course of which he expressed his conviction that the protective policy of the American Government was so firmly fixed by the popular voice and legislative enactment that "controversy over the general principle has virtually ceased."

The thirtieth annual meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science began on the 17th instant at Cincinnati, and has lasted through the week. About two hundred members were present, and it was expected at the outset that not fewer than one hundred and fifty essays would be read or submitted.

The Odd Fellows of this State and the Photographers' Association of America held their annual meetings in this city last week.

The first meeting of the County Committee of the New York County Democracy, as reorganized by the Committee of One Hundred, was held at Chickering Hall on Friday evening. Mr. E. Ellery Anderson opened the session with an address in which he gave the history of the organization of the committee, and urged that no bargain or combination be made with any faction whatever for the sake of mere temporary advantage. Corporation Counsel Whitney was chosen temporary chairman, and in returning thanks for the honor expressed similar sentiments and read a letter from Mr. Abram S. Hewitt, who characterized the meeting as "the culmination of the long and patient labors of the Committee of One Hundred, representing the Democratic masses of the city of New York, to secure an organization of the party in which there will neither be 'bosses' nor serfs." A series of resolutions in this sense was passed and permanent officers elected; of these Mr. John McKeon was chosen Chairman and Mr. C. C. Baldwin Treasurer, and among the Vice-Presidents were Messrs. Hewitt, Cooper, Allan Campbell, Voorhis, and R. B. Roosevelt. On the same evening the Irving Hall faction of the party met and adopted an address referring to both Tammany and the Committee of One Hundred in highly uncomplimentary terms, and arranged for primaries of its own.

The *soi-disant* Hartmann returned on the 17th instant from Hamilton, Ontario, and immediately announced the fact in a long letter to the *Herald*, in which he discussed his right of asylum in the United States with much *aplomb*, and declared that "to finally set the question at rest" he had "determined to come forward as I now do, ready to test the matter." His letter is supplemented by an interview of equal length, in which he says that he intends a lecture tour of the States, a statement that is naturally taken to explain much. Meantime Mr. Wendell Phillips has also written to the *Herald* controverting Mr. Blaine's seemingly unassailable deliverance in the same matter. He says the State Department can no longer remain silent since it has already been compromised by the uncontradicted "babble of its underlings." "Of course no one believes," he adds, that Mr. Blaine is about to "join in a slave hunt more disgraceful than those which followed the Fugitive Slave bill of 1850." Why then, he asks, "allow Europe and two or three hundred muddled editors to believe in its possibility for the next six months?"

On the 13th instant a package was sent to Fuller's Detective Agency, in this city, which, being opened, was found to contain a rudely-colored landscape, with an unpainted spot in the centre in the shape of a grave, on which were written the words, "Stewart is buried here." Photographs of the picture were taken and sent to different cemeteries, and a part of Cypress Hills Cemetery was identified as the original. Detective Fuller and a party visited it, and discovered that the ground had been recently disturbed. The owner of the plot is the controller of the cemetery, who says he lately told his foreman that he should never sell it, which statement he regards as "a sort of guarantee that the ground would not be disturbed for some time." He noticed some time ago that some pickets were missing from the fence near by. On Saturday morning, Detective Fuller having notified Judge Hilton (who manifests but a slender interest in the discovery) that he should share with no one his possible reward, digging was begun and has been carried on since on a large scale to the delectation of considerable crowds, but with barren results. Detective Fuller's hopes are largely based on his confidence in the number 13. Whenever that number has appeared in a case he has "secured complete success." He was born on the 13th of the month, his agency was founded on February 13, the number of his office is 841, which figures added together make the mystic number, and he has had many similarly striking experiences of its mysterious potency. On the other hand, Mr. Stewart is said to have cherished a particular animosity against it, and to have regarded it as a "fatal" rather than a "lucky" number. Now the details of the present discovery swarm with 13s.

Mr. Coats, of Paisley, Scotland, sent his small yacht *Madge* to this port as part of the freight of the Anchor steamship *Devonia*. His intention was to match her with the New York yachts of her size in a few races, and then take her back in the same way. The yacht was, however, at once seized by the Custom-house authorities, and, being entered on the *Devonia's* manifest, held subject to duty (in this case prohibitory, of course) as "wooden ware." On appeal to the Department at Washington the vessel was last week ordered admitted as an article of merchandise for exhibition, but for which happy thought Mr. Coats would have immediately ordered her return. The Secretary of the Treasury, by the way, has cancelled the contract for furnishing the labor in handling goods in the Appraiser's office, and this will hereafter be performed under the Collector's direct supervision, which is very gratifying to the men at the public stores.

The new Cunarder, the *Catalonia*, broke down when six days out from Liverpool on her first voyage, her main shaft parting about three hundred and seventy-five miles east southeast of Cape Spear, N. F. A schooner was near her at the time of the accident, and took off two of her passengers, of whom there were one hundred and twenty in the cabin and two hundred in the steerage, and arrived with

them at St. Johns, N. F., on the 18th instant. When they left her the *Catalonia* expected to meet with head winds and to be compelled to return to Liverpool; but she arrived at this port Sunday evening after a voyage of but little over a fortnight.

The bursting of a steam pipe on the *Plymouth Rock* on the 17th inst. frightened some hundreds of passengers on their way to Long Branch, but seriously hurt no one, and the steamer was towed to town by a tug and another steamer that luckily happened to be in the neighborhood. A special examination of the vessel has been ordered by Secretary Windom.

The agreement between the Sioux and those of the Poncas who wish to return from the Indian Territory to their old lands in Dakota, was formally signed on Saturday at the Indian Office in Washington. The document provides for the cession by the Sioux of as much of their present reservation as may be necessary for the settlement of the portion of the Ponca tribe under Standing Bear, to the extent of as many tracts of 640 acres each as there are heads of families and male members of age and unmarried. The title is in fee simple, not subject to alienation, lease, or incumbrance, and the land exempt from taxation for twenty years. The agreement has yet to be ratified by the Sioux tribe, but there is no doubt that it will be, as twelve chiefs, representing the Ogalla, Brulé, and Standing-Rock Sioux, have already affixed their names. Secretary Kirkwood reminded Red Cloud that he must be responsible for any scarcity of food at the agency owing to the presence of more Indians; to which the chief replied that he would "kill a horse or a dog," or contrive in some way to provide for the new comers.

New Mexico despatches last week reported a sharp conflict between United States troops, under Lieutenants Burnett and Valois, and a band of Indians who attacked on the 16th inst. Mexican ranches near Canada, Alamosa. The troops were driven back, but the Indians altered their evident design of attacking Canada and moved away. According to a despatch via San Marcial of the same date, General Hatch was to have left Fort Craig on the 17th to take command at Canada in person. At least 150 Indians are said to be on the war path in New Mexico. Captain Parker, with nineteen men, had a fight of an hour and a half with the Apaches under Nana on the 12th inst. without notable results.

Captain H. W. Howgate, late disbursing officer of the United States Signal Service, was arrested last week, charged by General Hazen with having embezzled, during his official term, $40,308.12. The accused was arraigned before Commissioner Bundy at Washington on Thursday and held in $40,000 bail, the prosecution declaring that the amount of the defalcation would probably be found to reach $80,000 on investigation.

Three of the Cornell crew accuse Shinkel, the fourth member, of having sold the recent race with the Viennese. According to the cable reports, their grounds are chiefly a sudden "flushness" of the accused after the race. Since then it has been reported that there were vague suspicions of Shinkel in Ithaca before the race. Every one who knows him, on the other hand, is said to speak of him in high terms, and the charge is denounced by his friends as scandalous and utterly unsubstantial.

General Leslie Combs, of Lexington, Kentucky, best known, perhaps, as an ardent Whig politician and supporter of Henry Clay, but possessed of a very creditable military record, died on Monday, at the advanced age of eighty-eight years. The death of Frederick W. Gunn, at Washington, Conn., last week, should also be chronicled. Mr. Gunn had made a recognized reputation as a teacher and as an anti-slavery advocate. Among other deaths during the week were those of ex-Chief Judge Seymour, of Connecticut, and ex-Judge Seth Ames, of the Massachusetts Supreme bench.

FOREIGN.

At a large meeting at Belleville on the 16th instant M. Gambetta was prevented by the hooting and generally unruly conduct of his audience from delivering his third and last oration of the campaign just closed. Great preparations had been made by the Republican committee to ensure the success of the occasion, and a gathering of several thousands assembled in response to invitation by ticket. The Intransigeants, however, had packed enough of their followers into the hall to make speaking impossible, and as soon as M. Gambetta entered he was greeted with a storm of groans and hisses, as well as cheers. He made repeated efforts to make himself heard, but failed for the first time in his career. After a time he is said to have lost his temper and to have exclaimed, "You are cowards paid to act in this manner. You want to stifle discussion because you are unable to reply to our arguments. I shall meet you on Sunday. Justice will have its day." The next day the Radical Republican Committee denounced the interruptions at the meeting, and the *Temps* remarked: "M. Gambetta could not have a better electoral platform, as he is now the representative of liberty of speech and resistance to revolutionary violence."

On Sunday he did meet his opponents, and was very nearly worsted by them. He was a candidate in the two districts of Belleville, in one of which he was elected by a slender majority; the other is at this writing doubtful, Gambetta having a majority over his opponent, but not a majority of the poll if blanks are to be counted as ballots. In 1877 he polled about 13,300 votes against 9,400 this year. Clémenceau, Gambetta's former intimate, and present rival in popular influence, declares in *La Justice* that the result has put an end to "the policy of expedients, delay, and occult influences, and has mortally wounded M. Gambetta." The *République Française*, according to Paris despatches, admits the loss of its chief's prestige. *Le Soleil* says: "M. Gambetta's fall is not terrible, but only humiliating. It will lessen his authority, and put an end to the capricious making and unmaking of cabinets."

The elections generally resulted in an overwhelming Republican triumph. Out of 547, 483 members are elected, there being a necessity for a second ballot in 64 instances. Of these 483 the Republicans have 403, leaving but 80 for the Bonapartists, Legitimists, and Orleanists to divide between them. The total Republican gain is 58. The 403 are divided as follows: Republican Union, 187; Left, 157; Left Centre, 37; Extreme Left, 25. The defeat of the Bonapartists is called "the great feature of the election." In Paris one moderate, thirteen advanced Republicans, and nine Irreconcilables are elected, four second ballots being necessary. Of the old Chamber 303 of the Left and 61 of the Right have been returned. Among them are Ministers Ferry and Cochery, Mgr. Freppel, M. de Choiseul and M. de Marcère. M. Keller, the celebrated Clerical, was defeated in the Haut-Rhin Department. M. Clémenceau was successful in Arles as well as in Montmartre. De Cassagnac is among the Bonapartists returned. There was but one disturbance reported, three persons being arrested in Turcoing for breaking windows.

In Spain, where the elections were also held on Sunday, the Government candidates were almost universally successful. The next Cortes will probably stand as follows: Liberals, 280; Moderate Republicans, 14; Independent Democrats, 9; Radicals, 12; Conservatives, 35—the parties represented by Sagasta, Castelar, Moret, Zorilla, and Canovas del Castillo, respectively. The followers of Castelar and Moret will support the Liberal Government against the Radicals and Conservatives, which gives the Sagasta Cabinet a clear majority of 256. Señors Canovas del Castillo and Romero y Robledo obtained two minority seats by a vote of 1,450 against 3,000 polled by the Ministerialists. According to report, the Conservatives had arranged for a different result, at least in Madrid, two hundred and fifty persons having been bribed to vote successively under false names in every district of the capital for the Conservative candidates. The Governor of the city made a sudden seizure of the conspirators' false certificates and voting papers, and warrants were issued for persons of rank as well as others, and two hundred arrests made forthwith. The despatch which reports this plot declares that "the fraud was so ably prepared that all the participants were brought from the country and secreted under the care of the Conservative agents." In these circumstances of course "the press protests absolute ignorance of such attempts at fraud." Indeed, "the opposition papers of all shades of opinion" just before the election were complaining of "Government pressure and undue influence," and Señor Canovas del Castillo only predicted the election of fifty Conservatives.

The British House of Lords accepted the amended Land bill on the 16th inst., and it received the royal assent on the 22d.

At the meeting of the Land League last week subscriptions of £783 were acknowledged, of which £500 came from Australia. On Friday Mr. Forster made an analysis of the League's funds as follows: Receipts this year, £10,707, of which £4,800 are from the *Irish World*; other American subscriptions, £4,543; Great Britain, £81; Ireland, £162. These figures are impugned by the *Irish World*, which says it sent £20,000 itself. Mr. Parnell attacked Mr. Forster in the House on the 17th, alleging that the Coercion Act had not been administered in accordance with Ministerial pledges. The debate became general, but was brief. On Thursday Mr. Forster replied at length, and was followed by Mr. Gladstone, the House refusing to agree with Mr. Parnell by a vote of 83 to 30. The *Times* regrets the Government announcement during the debate that the time for releasing the "suspects" has not yet arrived. On Saturday Mr. Parnell moved the release of Davitt, and Sir William Harcourt made what is described as one of his unwise speeches. Only nineteen members voted for the motion, but the *Pall Mall Gazette* says, "The Government could hardly have come worse out of a debate." It is also reported that, though there will be no general release, Father Sheehy, Mr. Kettle, and some six other prisoners will be liberated before Parliament rises.

Lord Dufferin has made "serious representations" to the Porte in favor of reforms in Armenia, according to an announcement by Sir Charles Dilke in the House of Commons.

A conference of the Association for the Reform and Codification of the Law of Nations convened at Cologne on the 16th instant, and held daily sessions until Saturday last, when it adjourned. The subjects discussed were: "Public International Law," "International Commercial Law," "International Maritime Law," "Arbitration," "Disarmament," and so on. "Assassination" was excluded by resolution from the political category.

The Grand Council of Zurich having prohibited the Socialist Congress announced to be held there in September, the Socialists have issued an address saying they have lots of dynamite, and will begin with Switzerland. The ensuing conflagration will "burn up the world."

Petroleum springs have been discovered near Hanover, which has created a sensation and a hope that Germany will no longer need to import this oil. Last year she imported 2,703,109 gallons of raw and 64,979,932 gallons of refined petroleum from this country.

An anti-Semitic riot occurred in Stettin last week, and forty persons were arrested. The damages at the recent outbreak in Schievelbein, Pomerania, will reach 150,000 marks.

GROUNDLESS FEARS.

The precarious condition of President Garfield during the past few days has again caused people to ask themselves what is likely to happen to the common weal in the event of his death. While no one can point out any particular harm to material interests as either a necessary or a probable consequence of the fatal termination of his illness, there is so general an apprehension of something baneful to the body politic that business shrinks as before a coming blast, and men go to their daily vocations with a vague sense of approaching calamity—something over and above the sorrow which touches the heart—some unexplained fear which beclouds the mind and gives a deeper hue to our sympathy for the suffering chief magistrate.

Yet Presidents have died in office before. Once this calamity overtook us in the midst of the greatest commotion of the century, with a million of men under arms, with a public debt nearly double its present proportions, and with problems of unknown magnitude, both political and financial, to be solved in the crucible of universal suffrage. The person who then succeeded to the powers and duties of the President was a man of imperfect education and stubborn temper, reared in the midst of slavery, and though born a freeman, yet born to most of the social disabilities which appertain to the condition of slavery. He was not destitute of patriotism, but this phrase, as he understood it, meant anything rather than government according to the wishes of the majority constitutionally expressed. He soon found himself without a party either in Congress or out of it, and his want of training, and the badness of his early surroundings, prevented him from gaining or creating one. Instead of accepting the situation he defied it. Instead of accommodating himself to facts he threw himself against them, and was in a political sense dashed in pieces. He not only ruined himself but all those, few in number, who adhered to him. Even Mr. Seward, who entered office at the beginning of the war with a larger political capital than any other man of his time, came out with scarcely any personal following. Apparently every evil thing that could happen as a consequence of the President's death did happen. The "ship of state" was sailing three years or more in one direction, while the "man at the helm" was steering in another direction. In short, the worst fears of everybody were more than realized. Nevertheless the country prospered during the whole of Andrew Johnson's administration—even while he was under impeachment. That impeachment trial, by the way, was perhaps as severe a test of our institutions as they had ever undergone in time of peace. The country prospered through it all, and the public debt was reduced by honest payment, although the President recommended in a solemn message to Congress that the whole of t be repudiated at the end of sixteen and one-half years.

Looking at the past we have no occasion for despondency, even though our worst fears as regards President Garfield are realized. There is nothing in the present condition of the country that can be called critical, as compared with the situation in 1865. Nor have we any reason to suppose that Mr. Arthur would fail to appreciate the responsibilities of his office, and the duties he would owe to a people so lamentably bereft of the President of their choice. There is more reason to apprehend that the confidence necessary to a successful administration would be withheld from him without much reference to his own merits and capabilities; in other words, that he would not have a fair chance. He would enter upon his office amidst almost universal regret that he was there at all. His immediate friends would be looked upon by many as a faction, seeking to make profit out of a stupendous public calamity. His enemies would take courage from the general grief. The utmost conservatism on his part would be necessary to ward off the most unjust aspersions. Circumstances have conspired to put him in a hostile attitude towards President Garfield—or rather, having put himself in such an attitude, circumstances have conspired to put this fact in a conspicuous light and to make it more irksome for him than for any former Vice-President to undertake the duties of the higher office. His pathway would be a thorny one at best, and could only be made tolerable by keeping himself as nearly within the lines marked out by President Garfield as circumstances might permit.

We believe that these facts will have due weight with him. He is as different from Andrew Johnson in temperament and training as the circumstances of the country are different from those of Andrew Johnson's time. He is a man of education as well as of affairs, of an amiable and yielding disposition, and hence more likely to be impressed with the responsibilities of his new station, and the fatality through which it fell to his lot, than a person of narrow mind and headstrong temper would be. The duty of the people to him in the event of President Garfield's death will be no less imperative and binding than his duty to them. He will be entitled to the forbearance and confidence due to one who has neither sought nor expected the Presidential office, but who assumes it in obedience to law and under very trying circumstances. Mourn as all may and must for our elected chief if he be lost, the country has still higher claims upon us. To see that the republic receives no detriment is the first command laid upon every citizen. The sobriety and reasonableness which carried us through the crisis of a disputed Presidency will not fail us in the emergency now so painfully apprehended. Indeed, there would be no occasion for these words but for the long, lingering strain upon public feeling which has produced a morbid and unwarranted apprehension of evils which nobody can define, but which manifest themselves in the haunts of traffic as well as in the walks of social life, and are felt the more keenly, perhaps, because they are undefinable.

ASSASSINATION AND THE RIGHT OF ASYLUM.

Mr. David Dudley Field moved a resolution at the Conference held last week at Cologne, providing for the exclusion of assassination from the category of political crimes in all extradition treaties, and for the denial to assassins of the privilege of asylum. The fact that the resolution was carried with but little, if any, discussion, by acclamation, shows what a deep impression the recent attempts on the lives of high political personages have made even on the minds of the very reflective class who frequent conferences on international law. Mr. Field is further reported by the telegraph as having endeavored to stimulate them into decided measures by mentioning that there was a strong feeling in America that "assassination should be stamped out." In this he is probably correct, but the existence of this feeling is quite compatible with the existence also of strong disinclination to disregard any of the old precautions against giving the aid of American law to any sort of tyranny or oppression. We must not lose sight either of the past or the future of free government because political assassins happen to be just now unusually active, and if Mr. Field's resolution is reported correctly the members of the Conference seem to have done so.

This will, we think, appear plainly enough if we ask ourselves and try to answer the question why we refuse to surrender political criminals. What is the sentiment which has made England and America for ages so reluctant to give up to his own government a man who has tried to overturn it? We refuse to do so even when we think the attempt unjustifiable and the government a very good one, and the reasons are two in number: the first is that we assume that any attempt to overturn a government grows out of some sort of discontent of the justifiability of which no foreigner is competent to judge. Inasmuch as if the attempt had succeeded we should have acknowledged the rebels to be respectable men, and have treated them as the lawful rulers of their nation, when the attempt fails we infer nothing from the failure except that those who made it had not sufficient physical force at their command. We do not infer that they were in any way morally culpable. The morality of their acts, we say, is not our affair for the purposes of any official action; this must be settled, for all practical purposes, by their own countrymen, who have the materials for a moral judgment under their hand. We refuse, therefore, to treat rebellion as a crime, no matter how much atrocity in the way of killing and burning may have marked it. We have Mègy here among us, who was the prime mover in the murder of the Archbishop of Paris and others in the Rue de Haxo during the Commune in 1871. To most Americans in their capacity as private citizens, he is a villain who ought to have been shot; to American voters, he is a runaway politician of whose merits or demerits either in war or peace they have no adequate means of forming an opinion.

The second reason why we refuse to surrender political criminals is that, guilty or innocent, we fear they will not in their own country receive a fair trial. They are, by the very fact of being political criminals, enemies of the government which puts in motion the legal machinery by which they are tried. The judges and the bar, if there is a bar, are likely to be prejudiced against them. The trial is

likely to be hasty, and to be conducted under the influence of a foregone conclusion. If found guilty they are likely to be punished with extraordinary severity, because they have not only disturbed the public peace but angered men in power and hurt their dignity.

Now it may be said that assassination is wrong under all circumstances, and that the assassin is, therefore, an enemy of the human race like the pirate, and that nothing can ever justify the murder of the chief officer of a government. This is doubtless a safe principle for all communities with which international law has any concern. The rise of a gloomy despot like Tiberius or Caligula, or like the Sultan or the Dey of Algiers at the beginning of this century, without a conscience and with unlimited military force, is not likely, perhaps is hardly possible, in the modern civilized world. The Emperor Nicholas made the nearest approach to it which our age is ever likely to see. So that the question whether a man whom such a ruler was sending to the block or forcing to walk barefooted to Siberia because he did not like him, would be justified in saving himself and delivering his country by murdering the tyrant, is not a practical question. We are not likely to be ever called on to answer it. We can safely say with Mr. Field and the International Conference, that political as well as other assassination is wrong, and ought to be "stamped out." But it does not follow from this that we ought to exclude assassination from the category of political crimes, or surrender to his pursuers every person accused of assassinating or attempting to assassinate a ruler. No amount of Nihilist or Communist savagery should lead us to forget the fundamental principles of our own jurisprudence. A political fugitive is not in our eyes a person who has committed a political or other crime. He is a person *accused* of having committed it by political enemies. When we agree by treaty to surrender non-political criminals, we agree to surrender, not guilty persons, but persons against whom a good *prima-facie* case is made out, and what we surrender them for is not punishment but trial, and we surrender only those who we think, from the nature of the accusation against them, and what we know of the government of the country claiming them, are likely to have a fair trial. Now, the reasons drawn from the improbability of a fair trial are even stronger for not surrendering persons accused of political assassination than for not surrendering persons accused of other political crimes. A person accused of assassination is likely to be pursued with tenfold greater virulence and unscrupulousness than a person accused of rebellion or sedition. He is not sure by any means of a fair trial. He is not sure even of any trial at all. During the past two years thousands of persons have been subjected in Russia to horrible punishments not only without trial or investigation, but often without being made acquainted with the charge against them. If we surrendered an alleged political assassin to the Russian Government at this moment we should have no guarantee whatever that he would have his offence fairly proved against him, or that if it were not proved he would be liberated, or indeed that he would ever be heard of after he had landed.

No horror of assassination, and no brutal confession of fellows like Hartmann, can ever make it safe or sound for us to aid in upholding, directly or indirectly, such a system as this. We can never enter into any treaty for the indiscriminate surrender of criminals to a Power which, like Imperial Rome, acknowledges no law but the will of the Prince, or gives the force of law to whatever the Prince wills. We do not allow our citizens, no matter how black their offences, to be tried by the Turks, Chinese, or Japanese, or any other nation which we recognize as in any degree barbarous; because we think they will not receive fair play, or may, if convicted, be subjected to cruel and unusual punishments. We trust civilized Christian nations, though they may not possess our jurisprudence, so far as to surrender to them persons accused of certain offences, which we recognize as *mala in se*, and which we think will be duly investigated by the pursuing country without passion or prejudice. But we trust no nation to investigate political crimes without passion or prejudice, no matter how pure its administration of justice may be, especially no nation with a despotic government. If we are to make an exception to this rule in the case of assassination it ought not to be made in favor of any country the government of which is above the law, and which, like Russia or Turkey, is ruled by the Prince's will. Neither our laws nor our morality allow us to treat any man as guilty until he has been proved to be so under rational rules of evidence. We surrender criminals, therefore, assassins as well as others, for trial, not for punishment simply; and we surrender them to judges, not to enemies. We do not give the thief up to the man whom he has robbed, but to the officers of justice. We cannot give even an assassin up to the man whose life he has attempted, even if he be a sovereign, let attempts on the lives of rulers be never so terrible or so frequent. We cannot, in short, surrender any criminal to any states that are not law-governed, or in which the meanest man can be deprived of his life or liberty by an executive order.

NEWSPAPER HOAXES.

PRACTICAL jokes have seemed for a long time to most people to represent an obsolescent if not almost extinct form of humor. The art of playing practical jokes upon or hoaxing your friends was for a considerable time in English society recognized as an elegant accomplishment, which greatly added to any one's social attractions, like the knack of writing verses in albums, or singing "second," or sketching. It is hard for most people to understand nowadays how it was that this form of humor was once so much relished, or how the wags who made a habit of resorting to it got through life without more serious punishment at the hands of their victims than they seem to have received. Here and there a positive genius for hoaxing and practical joking seems to have been developed, and we cannot suppose that this could have been the case except in a thoroughly sympathetic atmosphere. The career of Theodore Hook, for instance, would not have been possible except in a society in which a great many people were always trying to do what Hook himself was so successful at. The great popularity which the heroes of Lever's and Marryat's novels once enjoyed can only be explained in the same way. They seem now rather noisy and underbred persons, whose idea of wit and humor generally involves an ingredient of brutality and insult.

Most people regard the change which has come over the world in this respect with satisfaction, and it is often pointed to as an evidence of our superior refinement of manners. How much more refined our manners are on the whole than our grandfathers' and grandmothers' may be open to question; but the low estimation in which practical jokes and hoaxes are nowadays held must, in part at least, be attributed to the decline of mere animal spirits, which is so marked when we contrast the society of to-day with that which, roughly speaking, held possession of the world before the period of railroads began.

Curiously enough, however, this practice, though tabooed by society, and nowhere more tabooed by society than in the United States, has made its appearance again in an unexpected quarter, where it is having new and remarkable development. Journalism affords the opportunity of playing jokes upon and hoaxing not mere private victims, but the public itself; but it is only recently, and chiefly in this country, that any disposition has been shown to take advantage of it. In England and on the Continent the view taken of journalism makes the systematic hoaxing of the public impossible. According to the conservative notions prevailing there on the subject, the business of a newspaper is to concern itself only with facts and events, and to comment upon them. According to our more advanced ideas, a newspaper need not confine itself to actual facts and events, but is required to publish anything, from a rumor to an absolute falsehood, which, as the matter is generally put, is at the time "exciting popular interest." But as one of the chief means of getting up a sudden "excitement of popular interest" is to be found in the machinery of the newspaper itself, it is obvious that a wide field is opened both for invention and humor as well. In many respects the public form a better sort of victim for this form of humor than private persons could ever have done. Men taken in the mass are more credulous than the same men taken separately, and, moreover, the tradition that journalism is a serious business, of which imposition upon the public cannot be treated as a recognized branch, greatly adds to the zest of the occupation, as it assures the perpetrator of the hoax of a receptive condition of mind on the part of his victims.

In the earliest stage, the newspaper hoax was little more than what sailors would call a "yarn," and was chiefly perpetrated in the Western press, in a spirit of pleasant and harmless rural exaggeration. The habits of such domestic animals as the dog or cat, or such wild ones as the rattlesnake, were the common material, and in process of time they have come to be generally recognized as such, so that no anecdote relating to them, however interesting or curious, is believed by the really experienced reader. In this early period to which we refer it was only at rare intervals and at considerable risk to himself that the journalist perpetrated hoaxes relating to serious subjects. The hoax purporting to give an account of an Englishman's adventures on a railroad journey through the South, in the course of which he was the victim of some and witness of numberless other atrocities supposed to illustrate the social con-

dition of the South—the conductor, among other things, stopping the train for half an hour, with the complete approval of the passengers, in order that two of them might have an opportunity to fight a duel—led to a serious outburst of indignation in England, and to the necessity of elaborate explanation in the United States, to say nothing of a most profound resulting conviction in both countries that neither had any real sense of humor.

Serious matters do, however, present to the journalistic humorist a much more interesting field than that of ordinary anecdote or narrative about indifferent matters can ever afford, and accordingly within the past few years there has been a growing disposition to extend it to them. Not only in domestic but in international concerns the newspaper hoax now begins to play quite an important part, and internationally it is at its best, because, as we have said, English and European newspapers assume that public questions will be treated in newspapers seriously, and there is nothing so exquisitely ludicrous as to see the victim of an elaborate hoax seriously weighing and considering it, while those who are in the secret are in roars of laughter. Just at present nihilism and dynamite seem to furnish the best materials for jokes of this kind. Sometimes of course these are too transparent to be successful, but generally they contain some facts which are really true, and this makes the deception or at least confusion of the public victim almost certain. The account published by a Western newspaper of a visit to a local dynamite brick factory, the products of which were to be used for the destruction of London, is a recent illustration of bungling hoaxes of the first class. The bricks were to be shipped to England, and simultaneously all the Fenians were to cross the ocean and set up brick-yards. They were then to take Government contracts at the lowest rates, and were to go to work with their bricks upon all the public buildings in London. As an instance of the second kind, who can tell what the basis of fact is in the Hartmann case? or the story of the torpedo ram? or the plot to blow up English passenger vessels? or to kill "objectionable members of the royal family"? or, to return to domestic subjects, the search for Stewart's bones? Of course the public in the long run finds out that it is victimized; but as long as journalism continues to exist, it will continue to offer itself as a ready victim. Individuals here and there attempt a feeble sort of retaliation by denouncing newspapers as mere engines for the distribution of fiction, and by affecting not to believe what they find in them; but their incredulity is just as apt to be wrong as their credulity, and as they are dependent upon the press for information they are really helpless. Pity for their defenceless condition is the only feeling to which they can appeal, and pity for the victim of a hoax is a feeling rarely shown by its perpetrator.

THE LATE DEAN STANLEY.

LONDON, August 6, 1881.

THE last seven months have witnessed the disappearance from England of a greater number of famous names than the seven years that had preceded. George Eliot, Thomas Carlyle, Lord Beaconsfield are now followed by Dean Stanley, who, if less great in literature than the two former and less known to the whole world than the last, was in English life and English society quite as characteristic and interesting a figure, and scarcely less known and probably as much admired on your side the ocean. England is the only country in Europe where such a career as his is possible—where a man may hold a great ecclesiastical position and yet be regarded by the nation not specially as an ecclesiastic, but rather as a distinguished writer, an active and influential man of affairs, an ornament of social life. Bishop Wilberforce was all these things, but then he was also conspicuously an ecclesiastic, with so many clerical traits about him that he was distrusted by a large part of those who watched him and admired his gifts, whereas no one ever accused Dr. Stanley of being warped by his profession. His personal character was even more peculiar and unique than his position. No one could have found any one else like him, or can now imagine any one likely to arise who will recall him, or fill the place which he has left. It was rather in the intensity of his nature and the nobility of his sentiments than in either the compass or the strength of his intellectual faculties that the charm and the force he exercised lay. In some directions he was curiously deficient. He had no turn for abstract reasoning, no liking for metaphysics or any other form of speculation. He was equally unfitted for scientific enquiry, and could scarcely work a sum in arithmetic. He had absolutely no ear for music, and very little perception either of color or of scent. He learned foreign languages with difficulty and never spoke them well. He was so short-sighted as to be unable to recognize a face across the street. He was apt to be heedless and inaccurate in details. Yet with these shortcomings he was a born traveller — went everywhere, saw everything and everybody worth seeing—always seized on the most characteristic features of a landscape, or building, or a person, and described them with a freshness and penetration which made one feel as if they had never been described before. Of the hundreds who have published books on the Desert of Sinai and the Holy Land, many of them skilful writers or men of profound knowledge, he is the only one who is still read and likely to continue to be read, so vivid in color, so exquisite in feeling, are the pictures he has given.

The largest and best part of his literary work was done in the field of ecclesiastical history, a subject naturally congenial to him, and to which he was further drawn by the professorship which he held for eight or nine years at Oxford. It was work which critics of a school like Mr. Freeman's could easily dissect, for, as has been remarked already, there were many small errors scattered through it; and the picturesque method of treatment he employed sometimes passed into scrappiness. But it had some great and rare merits which have not received from professional English critics the whole credit they deserved. In all that Dean Stanley wrote there appears a certain largeness of view, a sense of the unity of history, of the constant relation of past and present, of the similarity of human nature in one age and country to human nature in another, of the permanently valuable truths which history has to teach. Nothing was too small to attract him, because he discovered a meaning in everything, and he was therefore never dull—always lighting up his narrative or his reflections by some happy anecdote. With this he possessed a very keen eye, a poetical eye, for human character, and a power of sympathy that extended itself even to those whose principles and policy he most condemned. Herein he was not singular, for the sympathetic style of writing history has become fashionable among us. What was remarkable in him was that his sympathy did not betray him into the error of extenuating moral distinctions. His charity, wide as it was, never blunted the edge of his justice, nor prevented him from reprobating the faults of the very personages who had touched his heart. There was one sin only he had little historical tolerance for: it was the sin of intolerance; and one only which ever led him to speak severely of any of his contemporaries: that of untruthfulness.

His fondness for studying human character happily coincided with an abundance of dramatic feeling to make his pictures of historical scenes brilliant and effective. It may indeed be maintained that nothing was wanting to make him a great historian but more leisure and specialization. He was throughout life keenly interested in every current ecclesiastical question, usually ready to bear a part in discussing it, either in the press—for he sometimes wrote in the Edinburgh *Review*, and often sent letters to the *Times* under the signature of "Anglicanus"—or in Convocation, where he had a seat during the latter part of his career. These constant interruptions not only delayed the progress of his studies, but gave to his compositions an air of haste, a certain want of system and of finish. The habit of rapid writing for magazines or other ephemeral purposes is telling injuriously upon all our literary men: it told the more upon him because he had also a great deal of rapid work to do in the production of sermons; and sermon writing breeds a tendency to the making of rhetorical points, and the subordinating of sober enquiry to the enforcement of some impressive moral lesson, which affects even the wisest and most earnest writers. Yet when one considers how much a historian gains, not only from an intimate knowledge of his own time, but also, and even more largely, from playing an active part in the events of his own time, from swaying opinion by his writings and his speeches, from sitting in assemblies and organizing schemes of attack and defence, one hesitates to wish that Dr. Stanley's time had been more exclusively given to quiet historical investigation. The vividness of his historical presentations is in great measure due to the sense he constantly carried about with him of moving in history and being a part of it. He never mounted his pulpit in the Abbey or walked into the Jerusalem Chamber when Convocation was sitting without feeling that he was doing something which might be recorded in the annals of the country. Nor was this personal vanity or self-importance; he felt just the same about other people, and would describe to his friends some doing or saying of a contemporary statesman or ecclesiastic with the same eagerness, the same sense of its being a fact to be noted and remembered, as the rest of us feel about a personal anecdote relating to Cromwell or Washington.

His sermons, like nearly all good sermons, will be inadequately appreciated by those who read them, not only because they were not meant to be read, but also because the best of them gained so much by his delivery. The present writer asked him, not long after he had been promoted to the Deanery of Westminster, whether he found it easy to make himself heard in the enormous nave of the Abbey. His frame, it ought to be stated, was spare as well as small, and his voice thin. He answered: "That depends on whether I am interested in what I am preaching. If the sermon is on something I care greatly about I can fill the nave; otherwise not." When he had got a worthy theme, or one which stimulated his own emotions, the power of his voice and manner was wonderful. His tiny body seemed to swell, his chest vibrated as he launched forth glowing words.

In civil politics he was all his life a Liberal, belonging by birth to the Whig aristocracy, and disposed on most matters to take rather the Whiggish than the Radical view, yet drawn by his popular sympathies towards the working classes and warmly valued by them. One of his

greatest pleasures was to lead parties of them round the Abbey on public holidays. However, he never took any active part in general politics, reserving his strength for those ecclesiastical questions which seemed to lie more directly within his province. Here he had two leading ideas: one, that the Church of England must at all hazards continue to be an Established Church, in alliance with the State and recognizing the Crown as her head; the other, that she must be a comprehensive church, finding room in her bosom for every sort or description of Christian, however much or however little he believed of the commonly accepted dogmas. This latter view exposed him to the fire not only of those who, like the High Churchmen and the Evangelicals, attach the utmost importance to these dogmas, but also to that of the opposite party, who hold that a man ought not under any circumstances to sign formulas or use words which do not express his own convictions. Of course Dr. Stanley would have greatly preferred that the laws of the Church of England should be so relaxed as to require little or no assent to any doctrinal propositions from her ministers, and he continued to hope that this might be ultimately won. But he conceived that in the meantime it was a less evil that men should be technically bound by subscriptions they objected to than that the National Church should be narrowed by the exclusion of those whose belief fell short of her dogmatic standards. It was remarkable that not only did he maintain this unpopular view of his with unshaken courage on every occasion, pleading the cause of every supposed heretic against hostile majorities with a complete forgetfulness of his own peace and ease, but that no one ever thought of accusing him of any selfish or sinister motive in the course he took. It was known that his own opinions were what nine-tenths of the Church of England would call unorthodox. But the honesty and uprightness of his character were so patent that nobody supposed that this fact made any difference, or that it was for the sake of keeping his own place that he fought the cause of others.

As ecclesiastical preferment had not corrupted him, so neither did the even more dangerous influences of royal favor. It says little for human nature that so few people should be proof against what a philosopher must consider the contemptible fascinations of a court. His simplicity, his elevation of mind, were proof. Not only did he never refer to his own relations with the reigning family by way of boasting, he never seemed to be in any way altered thereby; to care a whit more for the pomps and vanities of power or wealth, a whit less for the friends and the causes he had learned to care for in his youth.

In private life the two main intellectual impressions one received from him were of an imagination wonderfully active, yet rather active than powerful, and of an extraordinary eagerness for knowledge. His delight in visiting a new country was like that of an American youth landing for the first time in Europe. A friend met him just a year ago at a hotel in the north of England, and found he was going to see the Isle of Man. He had mastered its geography and history, and talked about it and what he was to explore there as one might talk of Rome or Athens. When anybody told him an anecdote his susceptible imagination seized upon points which the narrator had never noticed, and discovered a whole group of curious analogies from other times or countries. Whatever you planted in this fertile soil struck root and sprouted at once. Morally, he impressed those who knew him not only by his inexhaustible kindness, but by a remarkable purity and nobleness of aim. Nothing mean or small or selfish seemed to harbor in his mind. You might think him right or wrong, but you never doubted that he was striving after the truth. He was not merely a just man; he loved justice with passion. It was because justice, goodness, honor, charity seemed to him of such paramount importance in life that he made little of doctrinal differences, having perceived that these virtues may exist, and may also be found wanting, in every form of creed or philosophy. For friendship he had a genius. When the Convocation of the Anglican Church met at Westminster, it was during many years his habit to invite a great number of its leading members to the deanery—the very men who had been attacking him most hotly in debate, and who would go on denouncing his latitudinarianism till Convocation met again. He delighted to move about among them, introducing opponents to one another, just as in all his parties he loved to bring the most diverse people together; so that some one said the only people you met at the deanery besides statesmen and duchesses were poor curates and briefless barristers. His own cheerfulness and animation, although to some extent revived by his visit to America and the reception he met with there, were never the same after his wife's death in 1876. But the sweetness of his disposition and his affection for his friends knew no diminution. He remembered everything that concerned them; was always ready with sympathy in sorrow or joy; and gave to all alike, high or low, famous or unknown, the same impression, that his friendship was for themselves, and not for any gifts or position or worldly advantages they might enjoy. The art of friendship is the greatest art in life: to enjoy his was to be educated in that art. Y.

THE LATE FRENCH CHAMBER.

PARIS, August 5, 1881.

THE Chamber of Deputies, which has just ended its session, was elected after the dissolution of the 16th of May, 1877, a date which will not be forgotten in France for a long time. It is the first time since 1848 that France has had a Chamber elected by universal suffrage and with a Republican majority; and it must be remarked that the Chamber of 1848 was constituant, as it was assembled after the Revolution of 1848. The Chamber elected after the 16th of May was not constituent; it as well as the Senate had only legislative functions.

If we look back over the last few years, and undertake to describe the work of this first Republican Chamber, we are somewhat embarrassed. It was chosen as a protest of the electors against Marshal MacMahon's decree of dissolution; but it was really chosen without a programme. Its programme, if you like, was purely negative. M. Thiers, who was still alive at the crisis of the 16th of May, had determined that there should be no programme. The Republican deputies, to the number of 363, who formed the majority dismissed by Marshal MacMahon, had not had time to organize themselves. The 363 were a mixed army, which was composed of the admirers of M. Thiers, of the followers of Gambetta, and of the Radicals who clasped hands with the Communists. They all fought the battle of the 16th of May together, and they won it. They came back to Paris with the spirit of the lion seeking whom he may devour. They could not get rid of Marshal MacMahon at once, as he had only ordered the dissolution with the consent of the Senate; but the new Cabinet soon placed him in a situation which was too difficult for him, and he took the first opportunity of resigning. Gambetta, during the electoral campaign, had said that after the popular verdict the President would have to "se soumettre ou se démettre." The President did both—he submitted and he resigned.

The nomination of M. Grévy gave to the Chamber the whole weight of the political responsibility, as he at once took the position of a constitutional President, expressing no opinion on any question, accepting Ministry after Ministry from the hands of the majority. He has ever since preserved this position. He is at the Élysée very much what King Leopold is at the Royal Palace in Brussels: he may have opinions in the circle of his friends, but before the country he has none, and he stands like an enigmatic arbiter.

What use did the Chamber make of the power thus placed in its hands? It first vented its wrath against the monarchical deputies; it appointed a Parliamentary committee which reported on all disputed elections, and ninety-three members of the new Opposition were mercilessly invalidated. This invalidation *en masse* left the Opposition almost helpless. It had no great leader; it has never been able to act as a check on the majority. It was, besides, like all beaten armies: there was no union among the Conservatives; they accused each other of their common defeat.

There never was a better opportunity for a Republican Chamber; it was in reality as omnipotent as if it had been constituent; it could organize the country on a sound Republican basis, reform everything, correct everything. The presidency of the Chamber was given to Gambetta, a comparatively young man. He became the great ruler of opinion; in the Chamber he made and unmade Cabinets. His will became the will of the majority. If we look back, however, on the last four years we cannot find that the Chamber did much positive work. The deputies seemed especially busy at first in getting rid of all their enemies; each of them had a sort of proscription list; every administration was disembarrassed of all the enemies, or even of the doubtful friends, of the republic. There never had been before such a holocaust of functionaries. At one time it was thought necessary to prosecute the ministers of the 16th of May. A long inquest was made on all the acts of their administration; but it was found, after all, that they had only committed such acts as have always marked electoral campaigns in France. The dissolution in itself had been legal, and the ministers had not exercised on the electoral body an extravagant degree of pressure, since, with all the arms which are given to the Government in a centralized country, they had been signally defeated.

The Chamber, however, wanted to assert its strength, and it soon assumed what will remain in history its chief characteristic—it became violently anti-clerical. "Le cléricalisme, c'est l'ennemi," said Gambetta at Romans, and clericalism became the chief enemy of the Chamber. It seems extraordinary to a witness of events in France since 1870 that the Republican party should have begun this curious war against clericalism, but its younger leaders are men imbued with positivist or materialistic ideas—doctors, medical men, philosophers. They have a curious aversion to the Church, which they look upon as the instinctive and natural enemy of all progress. At the same time, they dare not make open war on the Christian religion; they know that ideas cannot easily be conquered by laws. They must feel that the great mass of the French nation cannot in a single day be converted to the ideas of the new philosophical school; that the peasant especially (and the peasants form the majority of electors) living in his village still regards the Church with a feeling of reverence, of gratitude, and of awe. The leaders of the movement made a distinction

between religion and clericalism, between the common clergy and the congregations. They found in the old legislation of France a whole arsenal of regulations, which they revived.

The war against the Jesuits and the congregations will remain the chief, I may almost say the only, exploit of the Chamber which is now disappearing. This war, in its various phases, filled its existence, and gave a certain unity to all its efforts. At first the Chamber merely attempted to deprive the Jesuits and the members of all the non-recognized congregations of the right to open schools. But the opposition of the Senate to the famous Article 7 induced the Chamber to redouble its hostility to the congregations; they were not only deprived of the right of teaching, but of the right of existence. Whatever may be thought of the rights of the state in matters of education, it will never be easy to defend the conduct of those who, amid the peace of the nineteenth century, began new *dragonnades* and sent soldiers against the convents. In Paris the forcing of the doors of the congregations was done at night, and the painful scenes which accompanied these executions will not soon be forgotten.

An impartial observer of facts must acknowledge, however, that all these acts, being covered by the authority of the administrative tribunals, sanctioned by old decrees, and supported by the Chamber, did not create a profound disturbance in the country. Those who suffered were the devout Catholics only and the true Liberals, who believe in the power of truth and have a horror of force. The country at large remained indifferent; the peasants saw no change in their villages; the Pope, animated by a spirit very different from that of Pio Nono, did not incite the French clergy to rebellion—on the contrary, he attempted to negotiate with the French Government. He reminded the clergy that the Church lives in a higher sphere than governments; that monarchies, republics, constitutional legislation are worldly matters; that Cæsar must receive what is due to Cæsar in all times and in all countries. The submissive character of the French clergy was well shown, and the persecutors of the congregations must themselves have been astonished to find how utterly indifferent the French clergy was in reality to merely political questions. Nevertheless, the movement which had begun could not be stopped, and the anti-clerical spirit would be satisfied. The *laïcisation* of all the schools, high and low, became one of the objects of the leaders of the Chamber. The non-recognized congregations had been suppressed by a single decree; the recognized teaching congregations were *de facto* turned out of many places; the schools of Paris, with one or two exceptions, are now all lay schools. The Chamber passed a final law making primary education gratuitous and obligatory, and separating primary education from religious education.

If we look at the action of the Chamber in all other matters, we find but very little. A new law on the magistracy was talked of for three years, but this law, which was to take away the irremovability of the judges, was not even begun. The Chamber manifested a great desire to take all the railways of France out of the hands of private companies and to turn them over to the state; but this plan has now evaporated. The Chamber merely ordered the building of many sections of railroads by the state. Half this network is now finished, and when the whole is done nobody knows what will be the fate of the lines built by the state. In all likelihood the old companies will be obliged to work them. The Chamber was unable to finish a single commercial treaty with Italy or with England. Its spirit was somewhat, but not boldly, protective, and it could never make up its mind with any decision on matters connected with trade and industry. It was, in short, a defensive Chamber, with a negative character. It was elected as a protest, and it had in itself no great elements of creation. It simply ignored all diplomatic and foreign questions, and was found as submissive on matters which were not domestic as any Chamber ever was under the Second Empire.

CONSULAR PREROGATIVE IN THE LEVANT.

CAIRO, EGYPT, July 20, 1881.

Now that the civil-service and the "boss" systems are beginning to be pretty well aired in the United States, it may not be an altogether Quixotic attempt to call public attention to the situation in which a combination of these two systems has placed American citizens residing in the Levant. To be sure, there are not very many of us here, but we are constantly increasing in number. Perhaps only fifteen per cent. of us are native-born Americans. Some of us became citizens by serving in the Mediterranean squadron; some of us by residing for a short time in the United States, and not a few of us acquired United States protection by hook or by crook. As an instance of the hook-or-by-crook class, I may mention that several years ago the consul in Palestine sold more than three hundred United States passports to the highest bidder. The prices ranged from $1,000 to $75 apiece. The consul in question has since been removed from office, but the effects of his misdirected zeal for increasing American "trade" have not yet been effaced. This is, however, *Neben sache*. The essential fact is that we are here, and that the Government of the United States has recognized its obligation to govern and protect us; and when any one of our number comes into conflict with the local authorities the United States is obliged to come forward and say to the Sultan or to the Khedive: "An ill-favored thing, sir, but mine own." It is not *our* fault, however, that we are so unlovely. The fault lies with the civil-service system of the United States, and it must be borne in mind that the dramatic incidents of our case have nothing whatever to do with those principles in accordance with which we have a right to be governed.

Although last year "substantial justice" was rendered in the trial for murder of Mirzan, a naturalized citizen, yet the precedent which that case establishes for a United States minister to sit alone and without associate or jury to try an American citizen for a capital offence, is regarded by all Americans here as an unwarrantable usurpation of executive authority. What have we done that we should be liable to be tried by a tribunal more arbitrary than that of a drum-head court-martial (for *there* there must be at least three judges)? And how is it that the decision of an executive officer of the Government, who is merely incidentally clothed with judicial authority, can deprive us of rights and privileges which those of us who are native-born Americans have ever regarded as our sacred birthright? The action of the minister in disregarding the Constitutional provisions for trial by jury in capital cases was based upon his decision that the Constitution does not extend beyond the geographical limits of the United States. It would here be obviously impertinent to demonstrate the fallacy of this proposition by legal reasoning; but the distance by which Egypt is removed from American public opinion, and the importance of the principles involved, warrant your correspondent in stating that the three leading objections which Mirzan's counsel made to this proposition were neither answered nor even so much as alluded to by the prosecuting counsel or by the Ministerial Judge. These objections were:

First. The Ministerial Court was bound by the Constitution, because the treaty-making power (the President and two-thirds of the Senate) and the legislative power (Congress)—the only *raisons d'êtres* of the Ministerial Court—are both absolutely subordinate to the Constitution which created them; and neither of them possesses—nor both together—one iota of power that is not expressly granted to them by the Constitution. The treaty and the act of Congress are the mere agents, as it were, of the Constitution, and these agents cannot be greater than their principal, and they cannot authorize the executive or judicial branch of the Government to exercise a power which the Constitution itself has not granted (viz., to try a citizen for a capital offence without a jury), and much less can they authorize the executive or judiciary departments to do that which the *Constitution itself has in express terms prohibited them from doing.* (The Fifth Amendment to the Constitution declares that "no person shall be held to answer for a capital crime, etc., unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury," etc.)

Second. All executive and judicial officers of the United States are required to take an oath to support and obey the Constitution of the United States; and so long as they are acting in their official capacities they are not absolved from that oath by the mere fact of their happening to be outside the geographical limits of the United States.

Third. That if the minister has any judicial capacity whatever, it is as a United States judge, and the Third Article of the Constitution declares that all United States judges *shall hold their offices during good behavior.* That is, that they shall be irremovable *quamdiu se bene gesserit*, and that the President cannot displace them as he can the diplomatic and consular officers of the United States in the Ottoman dominions, who are consequently not qualified to act in a judicial capacity.

These three objections to the precedent established by the Mirzan case have never been answered, and, as they apply to the jurisdiction of our consular courts not only in the Ottoman Empire, but in China, Japan, Siam, and elsewhere, the matter should at an early day be urged upon the attention of Congress. Mirzan's death-sentence has been commuted to imprisonment for life, and this sentence he is now undergoing at Smyrna. The whole matter might be brought up again by an application for his release on a writ of *habeas corpus;* but, as he is utterly destitute of pecuniary means, the question in his case may be considered as finally settled.

One word as to the *personnel* of our consular system. Few persons are aware of the extraordinary authority vested in American and European consuls in the Levant. We have in Egypt a Diplomatic Agent and Consul-General, who is paid a fixed salary by the Government. We have besides a Consular Clerk, who is likewise paid for his services. These two gentlemen reside permanently in Cairo. We have also in Egypt a Vice-Consul-General and some dozen consular agents, who extend from Alexandria and Port Said up to Khartum. None of these officials receive any pay whatever from the United States. With the exception of one Englishman (the Consular Agent at Port Said), these gentlemen would all be Ottoman subjects were it not for the consular office which they hold under the United States Government. Public opinion, whether rightly or wrongly it is impossible to say, has connected the names of several of these United States consular agents with

some of the most notorious swindling operations that have ever been performed even in Egypt. These men, as a rule, possess large fortunes; they entertain most hospitably American tourists on the Nile, and it is always pleasant for the eye to rest upon the "stars and stripes" in an out-of-the-way Egyptian village; but would it not be well for the United States to remember that if services are worth having at all they are worth being paid for, and that it damages the prestige of the United States in the eyes of Europeans as well as of Turks and Egyptians when they see us accepting as a gift consular and even diplomatic services which other countries pay for? A wealthy Chiote merchant is our consular agent in Alexandria. Under the existing system it would be impossible to find a more worthy incumbent, or one who would be willing to spend out of his own pocket some $1,500 per annum solely for the *beaux yeux* of the United States. But it should be remembered that Alexandria is now the second port in the Mediterranean, and that consular representation there and at Port Said is in the hands of merchants whose direct interest it is to hinder instead of promoting American trade and the introduction of our manufactures into Egypt. It would perhaps be better if the United States were to do as Switzerland does—make an arrangement with England, France, or Germany to take American citizens under her protection, and abolish the United States consular representation here altogether; or else appoint a sufficient number of consuls and pay them for their services. At the present moment, the Consul-General being absent, any civil or criminal suit arising between Americans in Egypt would be decided off-hand by the Vice-Consul-General, a gentleman for whom I have considerable personal esteem, but who, were he not the United States Vice-Consul-General, would be an Ottoman subject, who has never even visited the United States, and who does not pretend to possess any knowledge of American law.

There is another danger into which our consular system is likely to lead us, and that is, to interfere in matters with which we have no concern. The higher consular authorities of the United States are men who have received favors from the ex-Khedive. They have not yet accepted the new political situation of Egypt. As I have already indicated in a previous letter, the Anglo-French Protectorate in Egypt is a *fait accompli;* nevertheless, the United States representatives in Egypt never let an occasion go by to hamper the action of these two Powers, and particularly the action of England. The course of the Consul-General and of the American Judge, who are members of the Judicial Reform Commission, has been persistently to oppose the plans of the English delegates, forgetting that they were thereby allowing their personal feelings to lead them into a course directly opposed to American interests; for I suppose there can be no doubt that it is for our interest to have the English language and the English system of law prevail in Egypt as against any other European language or system of law. Our representatives are also apt to forget that England has the same interest in Egypt that the United States will have in Panama as soon as the canal is cut, and that our true policy in Egypt is to recognize and support the Anglo-French protectorate which now by the consent of Europe exists in Egypt, just as we shall expect Europe to recognize and support our protectorate in the Isthmus of Panama when the De Lesseps canal becomes a *fait accompli.*

Notes.

HARPER & BROTHERS will shortly publish the 'Franklin Square Song Collection,' words and music, including songs for children. It will make a volume about the size of the *Magazine.*

——It may aid in the recovery of Malbone's water-color painting on ivory, known as "The Hours," lately stolen with other paintings from the Providence *Athenæum,* to refer to the wood-engraving made after it in *Harper's Monthly* for November, 1879.——Roberts Brothers' fall announcements embrace 'Stories of Adventure, Told by Adventurers,' collected and edited by the Rev. E. E. Hale; 'Around the Hub,' a boy's book about Boston, by Samuel A. Drake, with profuse illustrations; other children's books, by Louis Rousselot, "H. H.," and "Susan Coolidge"; new volumes of poems by D. G. Rossetti and Christina G. Rossetti; 'Massachusetts in the Woman's Suffrage Movement,' by Mrs. Henrietta Robinson; and 'My First Holiday, or Letters Home: Sketches of a Trip to Colorado and California,' by Mrs. Caroline H. Dall.——A 'Popular Science Reader,' "for intermediate classes," prepared by James Monteith and published by A. S. Barnes & Co., is a curious medley in prose and verse. It is surprising to find among the selections in natural history no extract from Darwin.——Parts 13-15 of Prof. Ebers's 'Egypt: Descriptive, Historical, and Picturesque,' conclude the chapters on Cairo, add one on the regeneration of Egypt after the French conquest, and begin another (now timely) on the resurrection of that country's antiquities. The beauty of the illustrations will bear mentioning once more.——Mr. M. D. Conway, in a letter from London, reports that the Rev. O. B. Frothingham will, on his return to New York, undertake a Life of the late George Ripley.——The twenty-ninth annual report of the Boston Public Library alludes to the urgent need of preparing plans for the new building, which must be begun in two years, on the site allotted by the State; shows, in common with similar reports, a falling off in the use of books; discusses the question of fiction *per se* and in view of recent reproaches because of insufficient censorship in the purchase and circulation of novels, and states that "at least 60 per cent. of the circulation of this class is furnished from the novels printed within two years." Only one book in twelve thousand was lost during the year, and one book which had been "out" for at least twenty-three years was returned.——Dr. L. Sauveur has compiled a volume of fairy-tales, 'Contes Merveilleux,' from the collections of the Brothers Grimm, Charles Perrault, and Xavier Saintine, as a text-book for students in his system who need, after practice in conversation, to be exercised in narration. The print being large and the paper good, this volume will be generally welcomed. Dr. Sauveur's notes at the end are explanatory of shades of meaning, of idioms, and of etymologies, and add much to the value of the work.——Christian Kaiser, in Munich, has published the first instalment of Professor Sophus Bugge's long-promised 'Studies on the Origin of the Northern Sagas of Gods and Heroes,' translated into German, by arrangement with the author, by Dr. Oscar Brenner, of the University of Munich. The work, which is to be completed in three *Heften,* will constitute the basis of a discussion among mythological students the end and result of which cannot be foreseen.——A new, revised, and largely augmented edition of the Swedish ballads published by Geijer and Afzelius in 1814-16 ('Svenska Folkvisor') has just been brought out in Stockholm in three volumes, and will receive a hearty welcome from every lover of ballad literature. It is printed on the finest paper, with beautiful borders and a charming frontispiece. The first volume gives the text, and contains 568 pages; the second is devoted to notes and commentaries, and contains 464 pages; and the third furnishes the music, harmonized chiefly by L. Höijer, and fills 232 pages. Mr. R. Bergström's thorough scholarship in this field and his remarkable devotion are best seen in the excellent notes, where much has been added to the original edition, especially in tracing the history of the ballad and its variations, and in pointing out its sisters and cousins in other countries. In the musical volume not less than sixty melodies have been added by Mr. Höijer, who has also written new harmonies for the greater part of those found in the original edition.

—There is little in the September *Harper's* or *Scribner's* which has a decided claim upon the reader's attention. The seasonable articles in *Harper's* are Mr. Rideing's "English at the Seaside," Mr. E. H. Ropes's "Summering among the Thousand Isles," and Olive Thorne Miller's "The Girls' Sketching Camp"—the last an unsubstantial account of a very substantial incident in the lives of the fourteen young ladies who went picnicking in Maine, carrying their art with them. Mr. W. A. Rogers has cleverly illustrated this paper. "An Old Fort, and What Came of It," by Mr. N. H. Egleston, is the story of the founding of Williams College. The transcendent result, if we may trust this writer, is President Mark Hopkins's "construction of a system of philosophy so broad and self-consistent, and so completely in harmony with fact in all departments of knowledge, that it may well be termed a universal philosophy." An excellent engraving of Dr. Hopkins, by the way, is one of the chief illustrations of Mr. Egleston's article, as one of Dr. J. G. Holland is of Mr. Ropes's, mentioned above. Prof. Herbert Tuttle's "German Empire," in which some slips might be pointed out in the historical portion, and the use of "*in petto*" for "*en petit*" is not to be commended, gives a useful view of the constitution of the present transitory form of German unity in comparison with our own Government.

—Mr. John Muir's "Coniferous Forests of the Sierra Nevada" introduces us, in *Scribner's,* to some noble varieties of the pine-tree, whose characteristics are well set forth both textually and by means of drawings from nature. Mr. Ernest Ingersoll treats of the star-fish, particularly as the inveterate enemy of the oyster. Mr. Charles H. Farnham takes time by the forelock in giving practical instructions how to build an ice-yacht. Other illustrated articles are: Mr. Richard Whiteing's "A Russian Artist" (Basil Vereshagin); "The Society of Decorative Art," in which the engraver's attempt to translate into black and white Mrs. O. W. Holmes, jr.'s embroideries is signally unsuccessful; and Miss Gordon Cumming's "The Wheel as a Symbol of Religion." Victor Hugo's dramatic achievements are reviewed in order by Mr. Brander Matthews. Mr. Albert Stickney concludes his presentation of "The People's Problem" with an endeavor to show from the history of the Constitutional Convention of 1787 that the American people, once impressed with the emergency of action, can make novel experiments in government at short notice. He admits that the present crisis is far inferior in gravity to that which confronted our fathers after the breakdown of the Confederation; and in fact it is so much inferior in everything except principle that it has never yet become consciously "the people's problem" at all. For this reason we are decidedly in favor of promoting legislation which may or may not end in the adoption of Mr. Stickney's

radical changes, but which will pave the way for them by educating the public mind to his views of the ends of government, and which can be secured with the minimum of effort and of innovation.

—The instalment of "Dr. Breen's Practice" which introduces the September *Atlantic* is Mr. Howells at his best in his most successful and characteristic vein. Dr. Grace Breen is a young homœopath, and, finding the nearest physician "regular" and indisposed to consult with her, brings herself to surrender to him the case of her friend, Mrs. Maynard, who has pneumonia. The situation has obvious possibilities, of which Mr. Howells makes the most. The two chapters of Mr. James's "The Portrait of a Lady," furnished this month, also touch high-water mark, and apparently, though it is difficult to divine the movement of this story, forward the catastrophe in some measure. The political article is on "The Attempt on the President's Life," and points out, as an important part of the moral to be drawn from it, the danger of establishing a precedent of profiting by assassination, which, in the event of the President's death, would or would not be incurred, as Gen. Arthur might determine. Mr. John Fiske pursues his consideration of Aryan myths and their origin, but, as his exposition is strictly popular, it is perhaps to be criticised for the matter-of-course air of such a statement as, "It seems to have puzzled Max Müller that, in the myth of the Trojan war, the night-demon Paris should appear invested with some of the attributes of solar heroes." It need not be added, by the way, that such a trifle as this does not puzzle Mr. Fiske. "The Katrina Saga" is "Part I." of one of "H. H.'s" lively and entertaining "bits of travel." "Housekeeping Hereafter" is discussed with daringly specific vaticination by J. V. Sears, who says it is "the next problem to engage the attention of intelligent minds." Dr. Holmes's "Post Prandial, Phi Beta Kappa, 1881," is a trifle, but an agreeably characteristic one. The literary articles are Mr. Matthews's "The Dramas of the Elder Dumas," and an interesting sketch of Dostoïevsky, the Russian novelist, by some competent hand, which is buried in the "Contributors' Club," where it is to be picked out from the midst of reflections on the "Individuality of Dogs" and declarations like this: "I suppose I express the feeling of hundreds of your readers in saying that I was intensely interested in Mr. Richard Grant White's article 'On the Acting of Iago'; nay, more, that I was absorbed and fascinated by it."

—A new American industry has sprung up in connection with the press, the origin and excuse of which are, to us at least, somewhat obscure. Any one in the habit of reading a large number of country newspapers speedily learns to recognize the "patent outsides," and now it would seem as if there were a bureau engaged in peddling illustrated biographies. Directly after the end of the Albany senatorial contest we were surprised to find that Mr. Elbridge Gerry Lapham was thought worthy of a portrait and a laudatory sketch by several widely separated journals, which enjoyed the privilege of using the same woodcut and the same caption—"Men of the Hour"—and exhibited a remarkable uniformity of opinion about him and knowledge of his past career. Mr. Warner Miller, however, presently came in for a similar attention, being likewise dubbed a Man of the Hour, and having a flattering tale told of him, always in the same words. A third physiognomy now adorns "Our Portrait Gallery of [Political] Celebrities," as it is sometimes called—that of Mr. W. H. Vanderbilt, "the Rothschild of America"—and the list threatens to be endless. The ingenious inventors of this traffic in the faces and fortunes of our conspicuous fellow-citizens have satirized their own performance by supplying the regulation motto from Shakspere—"Some are born great, some achieve greatness, and some have greatness thrust upon them." Here and there a country and even a city editor, blessed with a little sense of humor, has cut this motto out of the stereotype plate; but the eminent persons celebrated in this manner, and who may be thought to bear part of the expense of it, appear strangely indifferent to the imputation that their greatness may be factitious and ridiculous.

—A recent bulletin from the Census Office, by Mr. R. P. Porter, gives a statement of the outstanding indebtedness of all incorporated cities of any considerable size in the country. It includes cities having a population of 7,500 and upwards. The total bonded debt of these cities was $632,096,460; the floating debt was $28,439,464; and the sinking fund, $117,191,506; leaving as the net debt $593,344,418. The bonded debt was contracted, in part, for the following purposes:

Bridges	$20,809,431
Cemeteries	272,912
Fire department	2,214,824
Harbor improvements, etc	16,726,064
Parks and public places	40,490,636
Public buildings	25,516,929
Railroads and other aids	68,306,493
Schools and libraries	13,882,915
Sewers	21,335,434
Streets	81,502,817
War expenses	28,722,787
Waterworks	141,797,828
Refunding old debts	71,071,140
Funding floating debts	122,864,804

These bonds bear interest at various rates, ranging from 3½ to 10 per cent. Nearly one-half of the amount is at 6 per cent., nearly $200,000,000 at 7 per cent., while at 3½ per cent. there are but $13,500,000, and at 10 per cent. only $6,400,000.

—Census Bulletin No. 245 contains a preliminary report upon the salt production and manufacture of the country, by W. L. Rowland. Salt is produced to a greater or less extent in fifteen States and Territories. California produced, in 1880, 878,093 bushels, from sea-water, by solar evaporation; Louisiana, 312,000 bushels, from natural deposits, the principal of which is at Petite Anse, near the coast. Michigan produced 12,423,885 bushels, evaporated from subterranean brines by solar or artificial heat, mainly the latter. The product of Nevada is 182,408 bushels, obtained from lakes and subterranean brine; of New York, 8,748,203 bushels, Ohio, 2,650,301, and Pennsylvania, 851,450, all from the latter source. The salt lakes of Utah furnished 483,800 bushels, while from subterranean brines Virginia produced 425,895, and West Virginia 2,679,438 bushels. Besides the above, there are several States which produced small quantities. The total salt product was 29,800,298 bushels, of which 888,958 were produced from sea-water, 944,158 from inland lakes or natural deposits, and the remainder, 27,967,162 bushels, which is by far the largest proportion, from natural subterranean brines. As to the method of production, it may be briefly stated that 24,969,172 bushels were produced by artificial evaporation, the rest by solar evaporation.

—It will probably be a surprise to most people to learn that the most important feature of civil-service reform—security of tenure—is already fully established in the city of New York by the provisions of the charter, as construed by the Court of Appeals. This fact has been brought out in a paper read before the New York Municipal Society by Mr. Douglas Campbell on the 7th of February last, and since published. The charter says that "no regular clerk or head of a bureau shall be removed until he has been informed of the cause of the proposed removal, and has been allowed an opportunity of making an explanation; and in every case of removal the true grounds thereof shall be forthwith entered upon the records of the department or board." Mr. Campbell gives a full account of three test cases under this provision, two of which were carried up to the Court of Appeals. In 1877 Mr. Joseph A. Munday, a regular clerk in the Fire Department, was served with a notice of removal, the ground assigned being that "the duties pertaining to the position can be more efficiently performed by another person." Mr. Munday applied to the Supreme Court, which issued an order restoring him to his position, and this judgment was affirmed by the Court of Appeals. The cause assigned was declared insufficient, "it being a mere conclusion which no one could explain." The next year the Commissioner of Public Works gave notice of removal to the chief-engineer of the Croton aqueduct for neglect of duty in allowing bad workmanship and materials in the construction of an arch. The bad construction was admitted, but the engineer showed that he was not responsible, as the duty of inspecting the work in question devolved upon another person appointed by the commissioner, and over whom the engineer had no control. In this case the Supreme Court sustained the commissioner, on the ground that "as the cause alleged for the removal was on its face sufficient, they could not interfere with the decision"; but the Court of Appeals reversed this decision, on the ground that "there must be some evidence to justify the removal"; and in this case the irresponsibility of the engineer was clearly made out, so that the ground of removal was insufficient. A third case was the attempt of the Mayor to remove one of the Police Commissioners for neglect of duty, justifying the act by his own knowledge of the condition of the streets. Here, again, the commissioner was restored to office by the Supreme Court, it being held "that he was entitled to a formal hearing, at which he might be represented by counsel." Finally, by the new code, which went into operation last September, the procedure upon the return to a writ of certiorari—which was purely *ex parte*—is changed, and "the court can now in a proper case permit the return to be contradicted or explained by affidavit, and is to judge whether, on the whole, the removal should be sustained."

—In February, 1877, the *Nation* called attention to a history of America in three volumes published in the Norwegian language by the Chicago *Skandinaven*, the leading Norwegian paper in the United States. We now have the pleasure of noticing a history of the United States written in the Swedish language for the large Swedish population in the Northwest, by John A. Enander, editor of *Gamla och Nya Hemlandet*, the most widely circulated Swedish paper in America. The present work is in four handsomely-printed volumes, reflecting credit on Mr. Enander both as author and publisher. The first of these volumes is devoted exclusively to the pre-historic races of America and to the pre-Columbian discoverers. Under the head of Norse voyages to America, the author takes occasion to give a condensed sketch of the Norsemen, their customs, religion, and institutions in heathen times. The second volume begins with the discovery by Columbus, and ends with the establishment of the thirteen colonies. The third volume carries the history forward to the year 1763, and the fourth down to the year 1881. The author is master of an excellent Swedish style, and the work bears throughout the marks of careful, thorough, and extensive research. It is in no sense a translation or compilation, but an original production. We are disposed, however, to criticise Mr. Enander's tendency to

overload the page with foot-notes in fine print. They will be apt to repel many of the readers for whom his book is intended. This objection applies, however, mainly to the first two volumes, where in some instances more than two-thirds of the page is occupied with notes. We are gratified to notice the genuine patriotic spirit with which the whole work is imbued. It will surely tend to make good and intelligent citizens of its readers, and, when we reflect that the Swedes in the Northwest number several hundred thousand, the importance of an undertaking like this, politically and socially, is not likely to be overestimated. To the fourth volume is added a supplement containing a Swedish translation of the Declaration of Independence and of the Constitution of the United States. We commend this enterprise as an example worthy to be followed by publishers for other foreign nationalities in this country.

RAWLINSON'S ANCIENT EGYPT.—I.

History of Ancient Egypt. By George Rawlinson, M.A. In two vols. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1881. Large 8vo, pp. xx.-554, xiii.-567.

PROF. RAWLINSON comes before us with a very modest preface. The *raison d'être* of this history is simply, he says, the need in English literature of an account of ancient Egypt, addressed partly to the eye, combining its antiquities with its history—a need not met by existing works. Possessing only a rudimentary knowledge of the Egyptian language and writing, he has "made it his aim to consult, as far as possible, the best translations, histories, and monographs," and trusts "to find in England and America a sufficient body of readers to justify his present venture, and prevent his publishers from suffering any loss through him." He feels that the present work "would never have seen the light" if he had known in 1876, when its plan was conceived, that Birch's edition of Wilkinson's 'Manners and Customs' and the English translation of Brugsch's 'Geschichte' were forthcoming. He is quite right as to the need of a book on Egypt for the general English reader. We have travels and sketches in abundance, but no complete, well-digested history. The older works are antiquated. Kenrick wrote over thirty years ago, since which time much has been learned. In eighteen years, said Brugsch in 1876, there had been such progress as made it necessary for him to recast his sketch of the Pharaohs from the monuments. Birch's work does not aim at completeness; the Oriental histories of Lenormant, Duncker, and Maspero are not full enough, are without illustrations, omit the antiquities, and give the political history of the various nations in fragments; the recent editions of Wilkinson and Brugsch do not fill the gap—the former is too bulky for general use, and its historical part is meagre; the latter has no antiquities or illustrations. There is room, therefore, for a book which shall give a clear, well-considered, and sufficiently full narrative of the political and social history of ancient Egypt, together with a description of its geography, customs, art, literature, and religion.

In several respects Rawlinson has fulfilled his task in a very satisfactory manner. The arrangement of material is the same as in his former histories. In the first volume he describes the land, the climate and productions, the people and their neighbors, the language and writing, the literature, agriculture, architecture, mimetic art, the science, religion, and manners and customs; in the second volume is given the history proper from the earliest times to the Persian conquest, B.C. 527. His style and manner are so well known that it is unnecessary to say more than that the present work does not fall below its predecessors in that respect; the style is easy and pleasant, sometimes finished and vigorous (see, for example, ii., 327). A not unimportant point in the arrangement is that the foot-notes, made up of references to authorities and short explanatory remarks, do not interrupt the narrative, and there are no portentous appendices or excursus. The social, artistic, literary, and religious history is rightly given along with the political, and the narration is enlivened by characterizations of prominent persons, and comparisons with the contemporary condition of neighboring nations and with the Egyptian past. It is an intensely interesting picture that he draws for us, as he traces that wonderful history from the great pyramid-building fourth dynasty on through the unification of the country from the Delta to Elephantine under the kings of the southern sixth dynasty; the culmination of the civilization and its subsequent decline; the disintegration of the monarchy, which lasted till the eleventh dynasty; the rise of a new centre at Thebes; the Amen-em-hats of the prosperous twelfth dynasty, which instead of pyramids produced beneficent works like the artificial lake Moeris and opened new avenues of commerce and new fields of industry; then through the following decline of vigor and the Middle Kingdom of the Hyksos, to the rise of the New Empire under Aahmes, the founder of the eighteenth dynasty; the brilliant career of Thothmes III., who led his victorious armies as far as the Euphrates on the north, and to the further extremity of Nubia on the south, while his fleets commanded the whole eastern shore of the Mediterranean; the exploits of the Rameses of the nineteenth dynasty, the grandest period of Egyptian history (about B.C. 1400–1280). After this the glory of Egypt slowly sinks; the house of Rameses is succeeded by a priest-dynasty (the twenty-first); then a line of Ethiopian princes govern the country (twenty-fifth dynasty); and, finally, out of the disintegration comes the revival under Psamatik (Psammetichus) and the twenty-sixth dynasty, when the old heroic spirit flashes up for an instant to expire for ever under the heel of Cambyses (B.C. 527).

The verdict of the public will without doubt, we think, be that the literary and what may be called the mechanical parts of this work are very satisfactorily executed. In respect to the more solid features of the historian's task, we have to give a more guarded commendation. It goes without saying that Prof. Rawlinson shows industry, carefulness, and sound judgment. He seems, unless it be in his chapter and other remarks on the Egyptian religion, to have consulted the best authorities, and where they differed to have weighed the evidence and arrived at a decision only after due deliberation. Perhaps he is in certain cases biased by the fact that he regards the Old Testament narrative as final authority; but one is not disposed to blame a historian for assuming an intelligently sceptical and negative attitude towards novel results. He is on his guard against the weaknesses and errors of modern writers, and is determined boldly to expose them. Thus, on the question of Egyptian morals, he says (ii., 253): "Modern Egyptologists have for the most part glossed over or ignored the crimes and cruelties, the defilements and abominations which deformed the civilization of Egypt. It is not the wish of the present writer to give them undue prominence, but the interests of historic truth require that, when the occasion offers, they should be noticed"; to which last proposition certainly no objection can be made. He penetrates still deeper into the spirit of our times, saying (ii., 331) of a certain theory that it "has naturally great attractions for many minds in an age when novelty is more esteemed than sobriety of judgment, if not even than historic truth"—among the persons seduced by novelty being in this case De Rougé, Chabas, Lenormant, and Birch, while our author himself may be supposed to represent "sobriety and truth." It has apparently not occurred to him that tradition is sometimes as seductive as novelty, or that it is unnecessary to suppose, every time that a writer embraces an unsound opinion, that he has sacrificed truth to the love of the new.

Much of Egyptian history is still so far involved in mist that cautiousness in forming and modesty in announcing conclusions respecting its events are always in place. New facts are constantly coming to light. Many points must be left undecided by reason of the insufficiency of the data. We must do Prof. Rawlinson the justice to say that he recognizes this fact and writes cautiously, except when he is controlled by prejudgments. We have space to mention only one or two of his positions on controverted points. He thinks it probable, with many Egyptologists, that the Hebrew Joseph was the minister of Apepi, the last of the Hyksos, about B.C. 1600, and that the Israelitish exodus occurred under Menephthah, about B.C. 1350, making 250 years for the abode in Egypt; of the 430 years of Exodus xii., 40 he says nothing. As to the ethnical character of the Hyksos, he leans to the belief (which is that of Mariette) that they were Hittites. His reasons for this opinion are that the Hittites were the most powerful of the Canaanitish nations, and that the leader of the invasion bore a name (Set) identical with that of the god chiefly worshipped by the Hittites (ii., 191). As to this last fact, Set was an old Egyptian deity, and the Hyksos leader may have adopted his name. However this may be, a serious objection to this Hittite theory is that the Egyptian language "was to a considerable extent Semiticized" by the Hyksos (ii., 195, 181), and recent investigations seem to have shown that the Hittites were not Semitic in language or in race. Sayce (Transactions of the Society of Biblical Archæology, vii., 2) suggests that the statement in Numb. xiii., 22 that the Hittite Hebron was built seven years before Zoan in Egypt, may point to a Hittite origin of Zoan or Tanis, which was a principal seat of the Hyksos. But it is by no means certain or probable that Tanis was built by the Hyksos, or Hebron by the Hittites. What we know of the history of the latter does not favor the supposition that they made an expedition so far from home as Egypt. The Hyksos problem still awaits solution. Rawlinson seems to us to be right in rejecting, with Birch and Brugsch, Lenormant's view that Thothmes III., by his fleets, subjected to his sceptre the islands of the Southern Archipelago, a considerable portion of the seaboard of Greece and of Asia Minor, and even perhaps the lower extremity of Italy (ii., 249). In another interesting question we must doubt his sobriety. In the invasion of Egypt under Menephthah (B. C. 1350) by Libyans, the latter were accompanied by auxiliaries, who are thought by Brugsch to have been Caucasians, but are regarded by De Rougé, Birch, and others as Europeans occupying the northern Mediterranean. It is this last opinion that calls forth Rawlinson's above-quoted severe reflection on our novelty-loving age. Yet he offers no reason for not accepting it. He says simply: "The names certainly appear at first sight to lend themselves to this view. . . . The first appearance of European races upon the stage of history must have the greatest interest for the modern world, in which Europe plays the first part; and if the identifications of M. de Rougé are allowed, it must be granted that here

Europe first steps upon the scene, exhibiting herself as a great aggressive power in the fourteenth century before our era, a hundred years anterior to the earliest traditional date for the Trojan war, and in the actual lifetime of Moses. So extraordinary a revelation has naturally great attractions," etc. Here we fail to see how the crossing of the Mediterranean by a company of adventurers from Greece and Italy exhibits Europe as a "great aggressive power," or what there is astounding in the supposition that such an expedition occurred a century before Moses and the Trojan war. We do not think De Rougé's interpretation of the names in question established, but we can understand how that eminent scholar might have adopted it without laying his sobriety of judgment a sacrifice on the altar of this fascinating novelty. Much better, as it seems to us, are Rawlinson's arguments against Brugsch's theory that the twenty-second dynasty was Assyrian (ii., 416, 417). Brugsch relies for proof of this on the names Takeloth, Usarkon, and Nemaroth, occurring in this dynasty, which he takes to represent the "Assyrian" Tiglath, Sargon, and Nimrod, and on an Abydus inscription in which Shashang (the Shishak of 2 Chron. xii., 2) is called the great King of Mat; that is, as Brugsch understands it, Assyria, "the land" by excellence. To this Rawlinson replies that there is no proof that Mat means Assyria, and that the names in question are not Assyrian. Tiglath never stands by itself as an Assyrian proper name, but is always defined by another noun (as in Tiglathpileser), the phonetic identity of Usarkon with Sargon is improbable, and Nimrod is not Assyrian, but Chaldean or Accadian. He urges also that the Assyrians were too weak at this time to attempt such a conquest, and that the Egyptian records make no mention of a foreign invasion. This last consideration is not of very great value, perhaps, but the others appear to be sound. Here again, however, it is wise to wait for further light before coming to a decision.

In his treatment of the vexed question of the Egyptian chronology (chap. xii.) Rawlinson is very cautious and conservative. He states at length the case against Manetho and against the possibility of exact computations in the Middle and Old Kingdoms, insists on the differences in the estimates of modern authorities, and brings down the figures as much as possible. The chapter would have been more satisfactory if he had described all the Egyptian sources (as the Abydus tables) and attempted to educe from them a consistent chronological scheme. We do not suppose that the question has gained anything from his *ex-parte* statement. Of general considerations derived from the art and writing of Egypt he says nothing, though they lie on the surface. Thus he puts the great pyramid at about B. C. 2500, and sees in it proof of the "employment of very highly skilled labor" (ii., 51), while of this period he declares that it "carried its own proper style of architecture to absolute and unsurpassable perfection" (p. 786). But this fact has no other effect on him than to excite "profound astonishment that in Egypt, almost at the commencement of its history, among a people living by themselves and deriving no instruction from without, a king . . . conceived and carried out a design so vast," etc. (pp. 50, 51). He takes it for granted that this splendid work must have been executed almost at the commencement of Egyptian history, holding apparently that sobriety of judgment and regard for historic truth require such a conclusion. This naïve adherence to a theory in the teeth of all known laws of cultural development is pathetic. The hieratic writing is found on the Great Pyramid—as early, therefore, as B. C. 2500. He does not ask how long it took to develop this writing from the hieroglyphic, or how far back we must put the latter, which seems to be purely Egyptian.

The first volume of our history, devoted to the arts and life of Egypt, is in the main excellent. Rawlinson is happy in geographical description, and his account of Egyptian plants and animals, architecture and painting, literature, religion, manners and customs and industries, may be pronounced to be, on the whole, the best popular guide on these subjects. He is less happy in his treatment of the language (chap. v.). Grammatical details seem out of place in a work like this, and his remarks, besides being very general and nearly useless, are frequently lacking in scientific precision. His linguistic characterization of the language (p. 115) is particularly bad. To say that Egyptian grammar is "predominantly Semitic" is a serious exaggeration; there are resemblances to the Semitic in some of the personal pronouns, the feminine sign *t*, the formation of a causative stem by prefixing *s*, and the dependence of one noun on another; but otherwise the structure of the verb, the treatment of the article, and the mass of the pronouns are unsemitic. We do not know what is meant by the statement that the "main analogies" of the Egyptian vocabulary are with the Accadian, Mongolian, and other Turanian tongues. There is no demonstrable identity of roots in these languages, and of other analogies we are not aware. Still worse is the comparison between Egyptian and Indo-European, based on Bunsen (p. 97). Rawlinson's singular statement on the same page that the Egyptians are nearly allied to the Canaanites, Accadians, and Himyarites, though introduced by a vague "therefore," is simply an interpretation of Gen. x., 6–10, and has no scientific value.

The estimate of Egyptian morality seems to us not quite fair. The people were guilty of immoralities, but it does not appear that they were worse than other peoples. To say that they "combined an extraordinary degree of theoretic perfection with an exceedingly lax and imperfect practice" (i., 104), is to say what has been true of all great nations of ancient and modern times. There is not a count in our author's indictment against the Egyptians that may not be proved against ourselves, except that which relates to the immodesty of the women. And to declare, from some stories in Herodotus and Diodorus Siculus, two Egyptian romances, and the story of Joseph, that the "Egyptian women were notoriously of loose character," appears to be somewhat strained. Such a view does not accord with the respect and affection that the kings so often show for their wives and mothers, or with the picture of a well-ordered family life that the monuments exhibit. The future historian who should get hold only of certain stories of English, French, and American life might draw strange conclusions from them.

THOMSON'S CENTRAL AFRICA.

To the Central African Lakes and Back. By Joseph Thomson, F.R.G.S. Two vols. 8vo. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

KEITH JOHNSTON, the only son of the well-known geographer of Edinburgh, and himself a geographer of repute, was accepted in 1878 as the chief of the expedition despatched by the Royal Geographical Society to the head of Lake Nyassa. The object of the survey was the exploration of the mainland lying to the south of the Island of Zanzibar, and to consider the practicability of constructing a road between the coast and the lakes. For this purpose the sum of £1,500 was placed at Mr. Johnston's disposal, and he was enjoined to keep strictly within the amount appropriated. He selected as his companion and as naturalist to the expedition a recent graduate of the University of Edinburgh, Joseph Thomson. The travellers arrived at Zanzibar in January, 1879, and at once prepared for their work. The account given of Zanzibar differs in some important respects from that communicated by most other visitors, both as regards the healthfulness of the island and the character of the native population. Owing to the clearing away of the mangroves and the dense vegetation which formerly covered the island, the rainfall has been much diminished in amount, and all diseases have grown less severe.

After a time passed in the acquisition of the Swahili dialect (the means of communicating between the widely-separated tribes of the coast and the interior), a brief preliminary trip was made for the sake of seeing whether the outfit was in good condition. The success of it warranted speedy departure, and in May the journey was begun. The party numbered one hundred and fifty men, and was considered by Dr. Kirk to be "the best organized caravan that ever left the coast for the interior." Six months afterwards Johnston succumbed to the effects of the severe toil and his many anxieties, and died of exhaustion at the village of Behobeho, in the first quarter of the distance from the sea to the lake. Near the thick forest where he died there is a huge prismatic mountain, appearing at a short distance like a monument; to this natural obelisk the companion of Johnston gave the name of the dead explorer, and turned with heavy heart to complete the unfinished task.

In order to understand the difficulties which now faced Thomson, it must be said that he was only twenty-one years old, and wholly unpractised in African travel. He was now at the head of an undisciplined troop of servants, and by no means assured of the fidelity of his guides. He plainly had the choice of trying to make his way back to the coast, or to push on and finish the exploration. He did not allow any of his followers to see that there was any hesitation, but, encouraging them by his bearing and words, this plucky fellow decided to go on. He carried through the entire expedition. The party was led by him through a vast tract of country visited for the first time, and this was done "without desertions, plundering by the porters, battles, bloodshed, or other disasters hitherto supposed to be inevitable adjuncts of African exploration." The expedition did not once come into warlike collision with the natives, and upon no occasion did the chief find it necessary to fire a single shot at them either offensively or defensively. In all respects Thomson was able to carry out the plans of the Geographical Society, and the objects of the expedition were fully attained. The chairman of the committee on African exploration has publicly declared that he does not know "that there has ever been a more successful exploration in Central Africa, or one more complete in all its parts." The president of the geographical section of the British Association meeting of 1880 has also described it as the most successful and brilliant on record. Mr. Thomson has given a modest and readable account of the adventures of his party, and has frankly stated the reasons for occasional discouragement. The manner in which he met them shows clearly that he was well qualified to deal with the many difficulties of African journeying. For example, the following incident will indicate the skilful way in which he oiled the wheels of caravan life:

"When the idea of having a day's rest took possession of the men, they were in the habit of manufacturing as many sick men as possible, and then insisting that it was impossible to get on without a day's halt to give the invalids an opportunity of recovering. One morning I observed this dodge in process of execution. Loud grumbles of 'Si wezi, si wezi sana' (I am very

sick) were heard on all sides, and a large number congregated in the rear, declaring they were unable to carry loads. After much trouble we got the bales arranged. I took no notice of these preparations, and in my usual manner marched away in front. I was not surprised to find myself an hour before my men in camp, or to observe the miserable string of porters marching in the most woe-begone fashion, holding themselves as if they had the gripes, and groaning in the most heart-rending manner and looking inexpressible agonies. I at once saw that there would be no march the next day if they were not instantly cured. But I was determined to get on, and I resolved to put an end to this oft-recurring nuisance. Calling up the sick men, I asked in the most sympathetic tones at my command what their ailments were. They all tenderly rubbed their stomachs with a lugubrious chorus—'My stomach, master; my stomach is very bad.' I rejoiced to hear that that important though vulnerable part of the constitution was out of order, for I had a very simple remedy. Smiling benignantly upon them, I told them to be of good cheer, as I would soon put them all right. Going into my tent, I brought out two large handsome bottles of castor-oil. Now mark the effect that the mere sight of that simple maternal medicine had upon these broken-down creatures! Groans were hushed. Their hands dropped from their affected part, and every one tried to look all right, though a glance of alarm passed from patient to patient; for, be it understood, there is nothing that a native detests more than European medicines. Strange and marvellous to relate, they were all inclined to retire cured by the very sight of these bottles. This was, however, not going to suit my purpose. So, with parental sternness, I ordered them to sit down and open their mouths. Not without difficulty I administered a large dose to each man, letting him know that if it did not prove an immediate specific the dose would be repeated next morning. There was no dancing or singing in the camp that night, though many of the men were astir. Next morning every man was convalescent, and on my doubting the fact in some cases, they at once rushed off and showed me how vigorously they could pick up their loads. Thus, not having the usual excuse for a halt, we marched out of camp most merrily" (vol. i., p. 290).

The following incident shows that young Thomson was far more conciliatory in his treatment of the men than most recent travellers:

"In the evening I had an unpleasant insight into the temper of the men. Seeing a porter offering beads of a kind suspiciously like my own to a woman to pound rice for him, I asked Chuma where the man got them. The latter, who heard what I said, immediately went off among the men, telling them I was accusing them of stealing beads. A dreadful row was at once raised; the drums were beat frantically, and the horns blown to call the men together. From all sides they came rushing, bringing their guns, etc. These they laid down at my feet with the air of injured innocence. They had never been accused of stealing before! 'Here are our parcels!' cried they; 'look and see if we have anything belonging to you. Now give us our tickets of discharge, that we may go back to the coast, for we cannot go with you to be looked upon as thieves.' Every one was in the utmost excitement. Personal articles were packed and preparation for a general return made, as if an unpardonable aspersion had been cast upon their unsullied honor which as immaculate men they were bound to resent.

"I explained what had really occurred, and represented that I had accused no one of stealing. But my explanations had no effect. Then I became apologetic, and appealed to them to remember that I was but a boy, wholly inexperienced, and therefore liable to make mistakes. They should be fathers to me, and tell me quietly and gently when I went wrong, so that I might be put right; and not rush off wildly beating drums, throwing down their guns, and declaring they would return. I was but their pupil, and that was a bad way to teach me how to do right and learn to travel with them.' This harangue took immediate effect, and they became so enthusiastic in my favor that they at once commenced a dance of universal good-will. I was more careful of touching their tender feelings of honor in future."

The reader of Thomson's volumes is struck by the paucity of anthropological details, but this is frankly referred to in his introduction:

"My account of native customs may be thought to be somewhat meagre, and this I admit at once. My travelling experience has convincingly shown me that no one can hope to become genuinely acquainted with African society without a long residence among the people. The traveller passing through the country sees practically very little. Many people will be astonished to learn that during the fourteen months I was in the interior I never saw an African marriage, or the burial of a native, or the ceremonies on such occasions as the birth of a child. My aim has been to *describe only what I myself saw.*"

In reading the account of the interesting features of the natural history of the country through which he passed, we are filled with wonder that a boy, burdened with the care of a caravan, and without the slightest help from companions, could have brought together so many useful and novel facts. The contributions are a good deal larger in the botany than in the other departments of natural history, but valuable additions have been made to our knowledge of the conchology and geology of the region of the great lakes. The opinion held by Mr. Thomson regarding the feasibility of roads through the regions which he traversed is decidedly gloomy from a commercial point of view. He does not believe that roads can be made to pay, except so far as they may affect the natives. The coast road is cited as a case in point. The beneficial social effect which the construction of this road has had upon the neighboring natives is very marked indeed. Dr. Kirk, who has recently visited it, has expressed himself as greatly astonished at the revolution it has occasioned. It has produced greater peace and security, developed more steady and industrious habits, and otherwise given a distinct impetus to material advancement and helped on the work of civilization.

PARLIAMENTARY ANECDOTE.

An Anecdotal History of the British Parliament, from the Earliest Periods to the Present Time. With Notices of Eminent Parliamentary Men and Examples of their Oratory. Compiled from Authentic Sources by George Henry Jennings. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881.

The anecdotes collected in Mr. Jennings's volume begin with Sir Thomas More and come down to the Marquis of Hartington and Sir Stafford Northcote. Within this period Parliamentary anecdote, like Parliamentary oratory, has been developed, has flourished, and has betrayed symptoms of decline. The flourishing period of the two closely coincide. Roughly speaking, the cream of Parliamentary anecdote is to be found in the last quarter of the last and the first half of the present century. It was during this period that the House of Commons became a great modern school of wit as well as debate, and created an intellectual atmosphere of its own, more stimulating and invigorating than that of any similar body of which we have any record. Critics who have observed the changes which have come over it since its constitution was fundamentally altered by the Reform bill of 1832, and the sweeping legislation which the Reform bill brought in its wake, are inclined to think that the old House of Commons has ceased to exist, and that its proceedings are getting to be more and more like those of other modern parliamentary bodies, which, however valuable they may be to the world, will never leave behind them a treasury of wit and humor such as is to be found in Mr. Jennings's pages. A glance at the part of his volume which deals with contemporaneous politicians, will rather confirm this view. Disraeli, whatever his faults, did a great deal to make English politics amusing, almost down to the day of his death; but Disraeli after all belonged to a by-gone generation, and was trained in an old-fashioned school. Of the post-Disraelitish generation, there are few names to be found recorded here as those of men who have contributed anything substantial to the common store of anecdote; nor does it seem likely that the old days are ever to return. The tendency of English public life in the future, with its large constituencies, the constantly growing influence of outside "pressure" of all kinds, and the decreasing individual independence of politicians, must be to the production of public men whose "anecdotal history" will be less and less interesting. An atmosphere of anecdote implies leisure, independence, and cultivation, all of which the House of Commons once had in greater abundance than it is ever likely to have again.

Mr. Jennings has done his work well, though by no means completely. He has collected much valuable information, from various sources; but to make a real "anecdotal history" more is needed. Again, a good deal of the contents of his volume is not, properly speaking, anecdote at all, nor in any necessary way connected with the history of Parliament. Moreover, he has not in all cases succeeded, as he might easily have done, in making his anecdotes reveal the important traits of character or points in the career of the persons to whom they relate. More than four pages—to take an instance at random—are devoted to Lord Melbourne, and yet we get no very clear idea of what sort of a man Lord Melbourne was. The story of his expressing great relief at the death of an eminent literary man, because he could now "bind him up," or the anecdote of his begging to be informed on which side of some important bill his own Government was to be, throw more light on the fundamental traits of his character than anything that Mr. Jennings tells us. Perhaps the best thing in his collection about Lord Melbourne is an account of the latter's reading to his colleagues, in order that they might "know where they stood," a memorandum of a conversation between Lord Gosford and the King (William IV.). The conversation was as follows:

"'Mind what you are about in Canada. By ——, I will never consent to alienate the crown lands, nor to make the council elective. Mind me, my lord, the Cabinet is not my Cabinet; they had better take care, or, by ——, I will have them impeached! You are a gentleman, I believe; I have no fear of you; but take care what you do!'"

This, however, is rather an anecdote of William IV. than of Lord Melbourne.

In looking through Mr. Jennings's volume one is struck with the fact that the entertainment afforded to the world through the medium of the House of Commons in its prime was greatly increased by the presence among its members of a number of gentlemen whose extraordinary dulness helped to keep the atmosphere in an exhilarating condition. Anecdotes about Lord Castlereagh, for instance, always have the flavor of novelty, often as we may have heard them; but what must it have been to meet in the House of Commons as a regular debater a minister who introduced into his speeches remarks about "the ignorant impatience of the relaxation of taxation," "sets of circumstances coming up and circumstances going down," and "the Herculean labor of the honorable and learned member, who will find himself quite disappointed when he has at last brought forth his Hercules!" The story that he once talked for an hour on what subject nobody could guess, and then suddenly exclaimed, "So much, Mr. Speaker, for the law of nations," is probably a happy exaggeration; and the declaration imputed to him, that he had "now proved that the Tower of London is a common-law principle," is probably apocryphal. Lord Granville says of him that he "never spoke above the level of a newspaper." But no news-

paper in its wildest flights ever reached the level of Lord Castlereagh. Few people have ever had what might be called the courage of their ignorance to so marked an extent, and the world at large owes a debt of gratitude to him and to those like him. In the same way, how could we spare Addington? He is as necessary to us as he was to Canning and Sheridan. The story of the Tory nobleman who rubs his hands and exclaims, "Well, thank God, we have at last got a ministry without one of those confounded men of genius in it," throws a vivid light on the mental structure of the Conservative of the day—and on the Conservative of our own day too, for that matter. As a dinner party is always made pleasanter by the presence of one or two dull people, so the House of Commons in its best days was always the better for the sprinkling of dull men it contained. The 'Rolliad' is still almost as amusing as when it was written; indeed, it is difficult to imagine how it can ever be anything but fresh. And the wit of the 'Rolliad' was, in a sense, the result of the dulness of the politicians who figure in it. When the young Marquis of Graham solemnly observed, "If the honorable gentleman calls my honorable friend goose, I suppose he will call me gosling," and was shortly afterwards elected chancellor of Glasgow University, the "significant cheers" with which his remark was received, and the verses of which they were the occasion, put the whole incident so vividly before us that we can hardly believe that it is not a recent occurrence.

The record of great dulness can in fact only be preserved by great wit, and in the art of immortalizing stupidity the great wits of the House of Commons were masters. Drake, the memory of whose remarkable peroration, "Behold, sir, another feature of the procrastinating system; not so the Athenian patriots—sir, the Romans—sir, I have lost the clue of my argument—sir, I will sit down," is preserved in the line,

> "Drake, whose cold rhetoric freezes in its course";

Sir Joseph Mawbey, who was the occasion of the lines,

> "There Cornwall sits, and oh! unhappy fate,
> Must sit for ever, through the long debate;
> Painful pre-eminence! He hears, 'tis true,
> Fox, North, and Burke, but hears Sir Joseph, too";

Beaufoy and Sir Richard Hill, immortalized in the following verses:

> "Lo! Beaufoy rises—friend to soft repose,
> Whose gentle accents prompt the House to doze;
> His cadence just a general sleep provokes
> Almost as quickly as Sir Richard's jokes"—

owe their long salvation from oblivion to the vivacity which their own stupidity did much to stimulate.

Mr. Jennings might, by extending his range of research, or at any rate by working his field with more pains, make his volume a really valuable contribution to the history of parliamentary government. As it stands, it is full of interesting matter of one kind and another. References to authorities are given throughout, wherever they are of importance; and Mr. Jennings has the "historical spirit" to an extent sufficient to save him, in the selection of his anecdotes, from the temptation to favor unduly any one political party at the expense of its rivals.

Select Essays of Arthur Schopenhauer. Translated by G. Droppers and C. A. P. Dachsel. Milwaukee *Sentinel* Co. 1881.

THERE is something apparently paradoxical in the character of Schopenhauer's philosophical writings. No author ever took more pains than he to make his meaning clear to all readers by the use of short and pregnant sentences, of iteration of his thought in a different key, of figurative language, and other marks of a good literary style. And yet the reader will often find a knowledge of Kant, Plato, and other predecessors of Schopenhauer almost indispensable. Schopenhauer even asserts, that to grasp the full meaning of his doctrines one must read them in the light of a previous perusal of all his works—in other words, one must read twice over everything he has written. This, however, is an exaggeration, though it partly holds true of the purely metaphysical portions of his writings. But Schopenhauer's metaphysical views are perhaps the least important of his contributions to philosophical literature. They run like a thread through almost all he has written; but this thread might be removed without much impairing the beauty and value of the pearls of psychological analysis he has strung on it. However, the thread is there and the random reader will not know what to make of it. This makes it so difficult to select single chapters from his works for translation, even when these chapters are not constituent parts of one connected treatise. Nevertheless, a selection of bright paragraphs from his works, called 'Lichtstrahlen aus Schopenhauer's Werken,' has already passed through some five editions in Germany, and there is no reason why a similar work should not become popular in this country.

A beginning in this direction has been made by the translation now before us. The five essays selected are on the Misery of Life, the Metaphysics of Love, the Æsthetics of Poetry, on Genius, and on Education. This selection must be called a good one, not only because these essays contain some of Schopenhauer's favorite doctrines, but because they are comparatively free from the usual *obligato* metaphysical accompaniment. The first essay is a brief statement of the pessimistic view of life, and abounds in bright things: "Whatever may be said to the contrary, the happiest moment of the happiest mortal is still the moment he falls asleep, as the unhappiest moment of the unhappiest mortal, the moment he wakes up." "If life in itself were a valuable possession and decidedly preferable to non-existence, the gate need not be occupied by such terrible guards as death and its terrors. But who would persevere in life if death were less terrible? . . . However, death carries with it still the good of being the end of life, and we console ourselves about the sufferings of life with death, and about death with the sufferings of life." In many of these epigrams the sophistry is so subtle and clever that it assumes the form of pure wit, or a grim sort of humor. The chapter on Genius gives an admirable account of some leading traits of that rare gift, mixed up with some of Schopenhauer's peculiar fancies. The essay on Poetry, among other things, contains a brief statement of Schopenhauer's theory of the tragic, on which some German has recently written a ponderous volume. According to Schopenhauer, Aristotle was wrong in making fear and pity the final object of tragedy. Our pleasure in tragedy is rather owing to the fact that it brings the misery and inexorable fate of life so vividly before our eyes that we become fully aware that life is not worth living, and accordingly avert our wills from it. Schopenhauer's theory of love will not commend itself to lovers, as he himself admits. He represents love as a blind instinct, and an illusion which makes its victims believe they will find greater happiness together than in a union with any other individual; whereas in truth it is the child alone—that is, the race—for which any real advantage is secured through this illusion, since passionate love springs up usually only between two young people whose virtues and faults are of opposite kinds, and will therefore be neutralized in the child. On Education Schopenhauer's leading thoughts are that it should proceed from the particular and intuitive to the general and abstract; that memory is the faculty which should be first cultivated in youth when it has most tenacity, and that all subjects wherein great errors are possible, such as philosophy and religion, should be postponed till after the sixteenth year, when the judgment has acquired some strength and independence.

Of the present translation it may be said that it generally gives the meaning of the original correctly, but that it is not elegant. Schopenhauer's works deserve to be as elegantly translated as 'Wilhelm Meister'; but for that we should need a second Carlyle. If the present translators had borne in mind the pages of abuse Schopenhauer heaps on some one for inserting the word "is" in a quotation from him where he had left it out, they would not have translated the statement quoted from Philo (p. 133) "that usually *one more* belongs to the great mass than every one thinks," by "that usually *one belongs more* to the great mass than every one thinks."

The Amenities of Home. [Appleton's Home-Books.] New York: D. Appleton & Co.

A BOOK in the main so sound in theory and always so admirable in intention as 'The Amenities of Home' must do good, even though sometimes smart rather than clever By "sound in theory" we mean as to what a true home should be. Of the estimate of the American homes of to-day, which is pessimist to the extreme, there may be doubts. Perhaps this is to suggest a limitation rather than a fault in the book. Whatever may have been the author's own experience, she has chosen to describe the life of the easy-going newly rich, and a very unpleasant picture it is; but by as much as it is faithful to the original it is unjust to the sweet and modest homes which make so large a part of our towns and villages. True, the city hotels and the summer watering-places will supply countless examples of all that the author deprecates—the want of respect, the selfish idling, the fast talk and faster manners—but are they not found among people who are *without* homes? and, on the other hand, what is it but love of home and a desire for its amenities that within the last ten years has scattered the pleasant summer homes all about the seashore and the mountains wherever railroads make quick coming and going possible? What is it but the growing sense of the dignity of a home of one's own, of the fitness of it, that has wrought the change in one generation by which so many ladies alone, the unmarried even, now prefer to keep house by themselves—a thing unknown in our country twenty-five years ago? The answers to some such questions might prove that this looseness of family ties, of household bonds, is not, as the author would have us infer, a deterioration from elder virtues. It is the transition state of people who have been, as the French say, "disclassed" by their new and rapid wealth. In such cases the first loss is always of the characteristic virtues of the earlier position, the first acquirement always of the faults of the new. The granddaughters of the Copley beauties who rightly serve as models in this book are much the same manner of women as their forebears—witness the lawns of Stockbridge, the shades of Lenox; but the Daisy Millers have no grandmothers.

One word which should describe the ideal home, we do not find—that is, *interesting*. Nothing so surely binds the daughters and still more the sons to the home as to make it interesting. This is the more true, because there can be no pretence about it; no outsider can contribute this element to the home. Architect

and upholsterer can make it healthful, bright, and attractive to the eye, but nothing but a full, interesting *life* within can make home interesting. This leads to what seems a higher plane than the author reaches. Doubtless the *parvenus* to whom the book seems addressed are beneath it, and it is easy to fall into sentimental views on the subject; but the fact remains that, after our idea of the divine, there is nothing we have so precious as the home. It is the best, the highest outcome of all our manifold civilization. In this view, and this only, is justified its costliness—costly because to make it, to maintain it, requires the time, the force, the mind of all women. Take them from it for pleasure or for work, and just so much is lost: is it for bread-winning, it is the pity of it; is it for pleasure, for folly, it is the shame of it.

An issue might be joined upon some dogmatic statements in the book, such as: "It is the man's prerogative to decide upon religion, politics, business, social position, expenditure." Is not this to make "the good wife" a mere echo? Is not harmony a finer music than mere unison? Does not such an assertion imply that it is possible to have known only women who can but follow a guide, who have no individual life, no wise judgment when to insist and when to yield?

Poems and Ballads of Heinrich Heine. Translated by Emma Lazarus. To which is prefixed a Biographical Sketch of Heine. New York: R. Worthington. 1881.

Miss Lazarus is the latest, and we wish we could say the best, also, of Heine's English translators. Scrupulous fidelity to the original metre, and all the literalness that can be demanded, mark the specimens of her skill here made public. But in neither direction is the highest success to be attained in the case of this poet, whose rhymes, metres, and diction must all be freely modified in order to save the essence of the charm inherent in his mother-tongue. Mr. Leland has shown how easy it is to be at once stiff, unidiomatic, and vulgar by too close an adherence to the model. Miss Lazarus's rendering is never vulgar, it is seldom unidiomatic; but it too frequently reminds us that it is not spontaneous English verse. Her literalness occasionally forsakes her unnecessarily, as in the excellent translation of "Solomon" (p. 47), where for

"Behold! a frown across his brow they view,"

"And if a frown," etc., would have been closer and less abrupt ("Und zieht er," etc.). On page 178,

"'Tis long since I left the town and its people,"

is a serious error for "*she* left" ("Sie hat schon längst," etc.). Page 93,

"We crept into the hencoop,"

describes a feat of some difficulty for two children. "Hühnerhäuschen"—hen-house—is Heine's word. In the poem "Tannhäuser" Miss Lazarus shifts the accent of this name to suit her convenience. On page 95 we have "at six and sevens," which is less than English. On page 140, "clashing" is made to rhyme with "passion." The trying pun,

"Ein Thor ist immer willig,
Wenn eine Thörinn will,"

which Leland takes by the horns in this manner,

"Oh! a wicket is always ready
To ope when the wicked will,"

Miss Lazarus gets over by a change of sex:

"A door will always open
When the adorer knocks."

Perhaps as favorable a sample of our author's work as we can cite briefly is the following contribution (p. 161) to the many attempts to English "Ein Fichtenbaum":

"There stands a lonely pine-tree
In the north, on a barren height;
He sleeps while the ice and snowflakes
Swathe him in folds of white.

"He dreameth of a palm-tree
Far in the sunrise-land,
Lonely and silent longing
On her burning bank of sand."

And we conclude this notice with a comparison in criticism of Miss Lazarus's method. Here is her version of "Sie liebten sich Beide, doch Keiner" (p. 48):

"They loved one another, but neither
Confessed a word thereof;
They met with coldest glances,
Though pining away with love.

"At last they parted; their spirits
Met but in visions rare.
They are long since dead and buried,
Though scarcely themselves aware."

Beside it we place the following from the little volume of selections published anonymously three years ago by Macmillan & Co., and still, to our mind, the best, for its range, of any translations from Heine we have met with:

"These two, they loved each other well,
But neither would the secret tell;
They seemed like enemies, and yet
Their hidden love was passionate.

"At last they said farewell—and then
They met not, save in dreams, again.
They both were dead—dead long ago,
Yet scarcely knew that it was so."

Sketches of Longer Works in English Prose and Verse. Selected, edited, and arranged by Henry Morley. London, Paris, and New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.

This is a quarto volume of some 450 pages, the fifth in Prof. Morley's series of works having to do with English literature. The title sufficiently indicates its scope, and its editorship is sufficient guarantee of judicious execution, in the main. Necessarily the "longer works" presented are more or less abridged, and of course some works lend themselves to such treatment far more readily than others. Those of Beowulf, Gower, Lydgate, Occleve, Daniel, for example, may be subjected to curtailment at the hands of a competent editor without any loss which the reader is likely to feel, or at least which he is not likely to regard as more than recompensed by the convenience of having them in cyclopedic form. Even such a work as 'Hudibras' loses little by presentment in a series of long extracts. Whether the same may be said of 'The Faerie Queene' and the 'Venus and Adonis' is much more doubtful. It is probable, however, that only on these terms will they ever be "sampled" at all by many readers; and if everything written by Shakspere and Spenser deserves to be read not only for its merit but because of its authorship, a merely speaking acquaintance is certainly preferable to none whatever. The 'Paradise Lost' and 'Tom Jones' fall into quite another category. One might just about as well know nothing at all of them as to know only parts. On the other hand, again, there is perhaps no rule to be laid down in this respect concerning such a work as the 'Absalom and Achitophel,' and different people will differ as to 'Robinson Crusoe' and 'Gulliver's Travels,' though there is no question as to 'The Vicar of Wakefield' and 'Clarissa Harlowe'—completeness being essential to an appreciation of Goldsmith's novel and intolerable in Richardson's. On the whole, there are more advantages than disadvantages in Prof. Morley's scheme, and in our judgment the latter are counterbalanced by the way in which the reader is introduced to works of the second or third class, but of great reputation and rarely read. Omissions are inevitable as a matter of course, but the fifty-odd pages devoted to the nineteenth century might, we think, have been sacrificed to secure the inclusion of extracts from such a work as 'Tristram Shandy,' say.

A "feature" of the volume, and one which adds greatly to its value, is its large number of illustrations—nearly 150—which consist of facsimiles from original manuscripts and other authentic sources. Thus the portions of 'Hudibras' contain many reproductions of Hogarth's plates; the 'Canterbury Tales' are introduced with a quaint initial from John Stowe's Folio of Chaucer in 1561, and contain cuts of the different personages who figure in the pilgrimage, from the Ellesmere manuscript; Lydgate is illustrated by, among other cuts, a representation of "Old Canterbury," from William Smith's 'Description of England,' Landsdowne MS.; in More's "Utopia" there is a cut of the plan of that happy island drawn for the edition of 1518; Robinson Crusoe appears in a stylish frock coat of skins as he was depicted in the first edition of 1719; "Mr. Burchell's Pocket-book" is a particularly engaging bit of *genre* drawn by Dodd to illustrate Harrison's edition of 'The Vicar of Wakefield' (1780); and among the most curious are the frontispieces to Hobbes's 'Leviathan' (1651) and to the 'Novum Organum' (1620). The book is in wide double columns, well printed, and abundantly indexed.

Count Agénor de Gasparin. By Thomas Borel. Translated from the French by O. O. Howard, Brig.-Gen. U. S. Army. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1881. 8vo, pp. 126.

The Count de Gasparin is one of the men who deserve to be remembered by this republic for the good and bold words spoken in our behalf at a time when they were worth much to us. His biography by Thomas Borel will well repay the brief time it will take to read it. It is rather a eulogy than a biography, giving very few events, not presenting the reader with the words of the man himself as the best picture of his individuality, but dwelling upon the several features of his character in that encomiastic, not to say rhapsodical, style of which the French are so fond, and which in truth is so well adapted to the genius of their language. It sounds rather flat in English, it must be acknowledged, especially in the clumsy and unidiomatic English of this translation. Take, for instance, the following passage: "That sensibility which affected him in meeting a solicitous countenance or chagrin was extended to everything which had breath. He did not forget the day in which, seeing at his feet the partridge which he had wounded, he had to do violence to himself in order to finish it. He gave no more shots except the blank, and he never regretted it," Considering that M. de Gasparin was a public man, the book contains surprisingly little information upon public events and parties in France; it is purely a personal memoir.

Sea Mosses. A Collector's Guide and an Introduction to the Study of Marine Algæ. By A. B. Hervey, A.M. Boston: S. E. Cassino. 1881.

This is a handy octavo volume of very modest pretensions. It professes to give chiefly the more obvious characteristics of our commoner seaweeds, and this part of the work is well done. The descriptions are clear and the plates are remarkably good; rightly used, they will serve a very excellent purpose in enabling amateurs to identify some of the prettier forms of algæ which are thrown upon our beaches. We hope that a second edition may give also more than an inkling of the proper classification based upon the organs of reproduction. This may be done by a

few short keys scattered through the work and by an accompanying glossary of the terms used in the microscopic examination of sea-weeds. We are much in need of a popular work which can form an easy introduction to Professor Farlow's new work on algæ. It may be added that a portion of the present volume could be sacrificed without detriment, to make room for more important matter.

Book of the Black Bass. By J. A. Henshall, M.D. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.

THE black bass is a fish which until lately has been very much neglected by sportsmen and naturalists, and only within a few years have the first generally known that as a game-fish it is fully the equal of the book-trout, or the latter been able to tell us with certainty the seasons or places of its spawning. The first half of Dr. Henshall's book is chiefly devoted to the scientific description of the varieties, ranges, and habits of the black bass, and is not especially interesting to the lay reader. The general division he makes in the two species of his fish is the large-mouthed bass and small-mouthed bass, and no names could better indicate them, although there are other differences in shape, color, and size of scales and fins. Both varieties frequent the same waters and have the same habits, and, Dr. Henshall thinks, are equally gamy, although he admits the existence of the contrary belief among anglers. Speaking of the habits of the black bass, the Doctor says, on p. 170: "A well-attested fact is that the largest bass are found in the largest bodies of water, or where the range is most extensive." We think if he had said they are found where the best supply of proper food exists he would have been more correct; and this may or may not be where the range is most extensive. The largest black bass we have ever seen taken were in a small lake, not two miles long, in northern Michigan, where the average weight of one day's catch was nearly six pounds. This large growth is doubtless greatly attributable to the unusual abundance of small shell-fish and minnows in the lake. Every angler knows that the largest bodies of water do not always yield the largest fish. The trout of the Rangeley waters in Maine are larger than those of Lake Superior, and those of the Thames the largest of their kind in Great Britain. The same is true of anadromous fishes, especially of the Salmonidæ. The Grand Cascapedia River of New Brunswick, although a rather small stream, breeds much larger salmon than the Restigouche of four times its size, or indeed than any other river of the Atlantic coast; and the sea-trout of the Nouvelles, hardly more than a brook, are larger than those of most of the rivers falling into the Bay of Chaleurs.

Part second treats of "tools, tackle, and implements," and contains many useful instructions to those contemplating bass-fishing; one chapter on "knots" especially will well repay careful study. The illustrations of this part, though poor, are very useful in explanation of Dr. Henshall's directions as to tackle and the paraphernalia of fishing. Part third is entitled "Angling and Fly-fishing," and contains minute and thorough instruction as to fly and minnow casting, the way to approach the bass, to fish for him, and to land him. Regarding the last operation, our author says: "Don't be in a hurry to land him; the longer he resists the better for your sport. Take your time, and only land him when he is completely exhausted." This advice we think very bad. Any fish should be landed just as soon as practicable after being hooked, of course with due regard to the strength of the tackle. If he is well hooked, he is certain to be landed. If very lightly hooked, we think the chances are better for his escape if long on the line than if got ashore as soon as possible. He will probably get off whichever course is adopted.

We are sorry Dr. Henshall has not been able to avoid the sentimental side of fishing rather more, and leave "good old father Izaak Walton" to his needed repose. He is not a poet, as can be proved by reference to p. 382 *et seq*. On the whole, however, the book is by far the best of any recent American publication on fishing; it supplies a great want, and is the only one we know which gives full and reliable information on the habits and the pursuit of one of the finest of American fresh-water fish.

Young Folks' History of America. Edited by Hezekiah Butterworth, author of 'Zigzag Journeys in Europe,' etc. Illustrated with one hundred and fifty engravings. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 1881.

WE cannot think Mr. Butterworth's history of America so successful as his books of travel, which, with some faults of style, are on the whole very attractive to young people, both in the story and the illustrations. The history is in a style too heavy and formal for the class for whom it is intended, and the pictures are for the most part "made up," instead of genuine illustrations of history. We except, of course, the portraits and the views of real scenes—for example, Breed's and Bunker's Hills (p. 259), a very striking view, especially if it is a genuine reconstruction of the original ground. The best part of the book is the stories that are inserted here and there, many of them unfamiliar ones—as, for instance, the story of Annawon (p. 131). Of course what children want is these picturesque and suggestive stories, and so far the work is well done. As a consecutive history it is less successful. On what principle is the story of Acadia sandwiched in (p. 84) between the early histories of Virginia and of New England? And why is the chapter on "Salem Witchcraft" placed (p. 157) before that upon "Persecution and Religious Liberty," including the story of Roger Williams? On page 234 we meet that odious quasi-word "misses": "the patriotic spirit was shared by the boys [why not *masters?*] as well as by the misses." It is discouraging to see it make its way from school reports and shoe-dealers' advertisements into a formal history published by a reputable house.

Rome and Carthage. The Punic Wars. By R. Bosworth Smith, M.A. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 12mo, pp. 239. [Epochs of Ancient History.]

THIS is a welcome addition to the "Epochs" series, giving us in a brief space the substance of the author's larger work in the field in which he is an authority. The present work is indeed distinctly stated to be an abridgment of the other. Its point of view is therefore Carthage rather than Rome, and in this respect it differs from all other histories of this period. This fact must be borne in mind by the reader. Taken by itself, the sketch of Roman history and institutions here given is inadequate, even as a sketch subordinate to the main purpose of the book, while Carthage receives full and sympathetic treatment. At the same time the author accepts the result, the triumph of Rome, as on the whole a gain to civilization and humanity.

The book contains an accurate and interesting history of Carthage, especially during the time of the wars with Rome. It is not the plan of this series to have elaborate discussions of controverted points; such points abound in the period under review, and we always find a clear and forcible presentation of the best-sustained view. The chief question of this sort is Hannibal's route over the Alps, which Mr. Smith assumes to have been by the Mont du Chat and the Little St. Bernard, undoubtedly the correct view. Curiously enough, the illustrative map of Italy mixes up the two opposing opinions, by extending the Taurini so far north as to occupy the valley of the Dora Baltea, into which this pass enters. Kiepert, it may be remarked, makes the same blunder, saying that the pass of the Graian Alps (Little St. Bernard) led into the territory of the Taurini, that of the Pennine (Great St. Bernard) into the territory of the Salassi; while a glance at the map shows that these two passes meet nearly at right angles in the valley of the Dora Baltea. Now this confusion must arise from an endeavor to reconcile Livy's narrative with the theory which carries Hannibal over the Little St. Bernard—a useless endeavor. Livy's account is confused in many particulars, but is perfectly clear in the main thing, that he conceives Hannibal to have crossed by the Cottian Alps or Mont Genèvre. He makes him pass from the valley of the Isère to that of the Durance, which leads directly to the Mont Genèvre; it would have been the height of absurdity from this point to carry him north again to the Little St. Bernard or even Mont Cenis (which again is out of the question, as not in use in ancient times). Moreover, he states positively that Hannibal crossed into the territory of the Taurini, that is, the upper Po valley. If we follow Livy we must accept the Mont Genèvre route, as most of the Roman writers after him did, and as M. Réville has done in a recent number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (May 1, 1880). But the authority of Livy on a point like this is absolutely worthless against that of Polybius; and Polybius is at variance with him on the two vital points—he says nothing of the Durance, but carries the march directly up through the country of the Allobroges; and he leads Hannibal into the country of the Insubrians, to whom the Salassi, who occupied the valley of the Dora Baltea, were vassals. His testimony is almost as explicit for the Little St. Bernard as Livy's for the Mont Genèvre.

Another point of controversy is the position of the Romans and Carthaginians respectively at the battle of the Trebia. This controversy, too, hinges on an alleged discrepancy between Livy and Polybius. Livy's account certainly places the Romans on the left bank of the river, and this is the view adopted by most writers, and followed by Mr. Smith. Mommsen, claiming the support of Polybius, places the Romans upon the right bank, but we cannot see on what ground. The narrative of Polybius, while not quite so explicit, perhaps, as that of Livy, seems to us to be perfectly consistent with it, and inconsistent with any other view. Mr. Smith gives a good plan of the battle-ground, but fails to indicate the points of compass.

A third question is as to several localities in the city of Carthage. Mr. Smith has studied this subject upon the spot, and his conclusions agree with those of Kiepert, but differ from those of the explorer Dr. Davis. He describes the topography clearly and well, and places the Byrsa on the Hill of St. Louis, at the south, the Megara northwest of it, and the artificial harbor on the coast of the open sea, southeast of the Byrsa.

Demosthenes: With extracts from his Orations, etc. By L. Brédif, of the University of France. Translated by M. J. MacMahon, A. M. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 8vo.

So much honest, hard work has been put into this book by both author and translator that one

cannot nelp sincerely regretting that the product is not more worthy of commendation. The book goes over the facts of the public life of Demosthenes minutely, treats of his peculiarities as a man, as an orator, and as a statesman, discusses particularly the trial which gave us the Oration on the Crown, and gives a view of the history of Greek oratory. It abounds in illustrations and parallels, mostly from Roman and French history and literature, and in quotations from orators contemporary with Demosthenes. But, after all, the book will be of little use to any one desiring to get a clear and true idea of the man and his policy. Its arrangement is very confused, in spite of a great show of system. It seems to ignore all the German study of the author. It builds opinions on the foundation of single passages, and treats rhetorical exaggerations like sober history. To one who can correct its errors as he reads, it may be of service in suggesting new combinations of some of the orator's separate expressions, or in putting in a forcible form some familiar view, but the unlearned reader would probably find himself more muddled than helped by it. The translator has evidently striven to be faithful, and often expresses the thought of the original happily, but almost every page bears witness to his want of exact scholarship or of command of his own language. The proof-reader, too, must have taken some pleasant naps during his work. It is really a pity to see so much labor and expense put into a book without a more profitable result.

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Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1880.....	1,495,947 23
Total Marine Premiums.....	$5,728,622 27
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1880, to 31st December, 1880.....	$4,141,087 80
Losses paid during the same period.....	$2,071,238 98
Returns of Premiums and Expenses.....	$873,113 96
The Company has the following Assets, viz.:	
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Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at.....	470,000 00
Premium Notes and Bills receivable.....	1,628,921 34
Cash in Bank.....	337,977 37
Amount.....	$12,608,356 71

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 1, 1881.

The Week.

THE President's condition has of course occupied the public mind during the week, almost to the exclusion of all other topics. On Friday and Saturday the deepest sensation was created by the apparent despair of the doctors, owing to a sudden and decided aggravation of the worst symptoms. This was followed by equally sudden improvement, and at this writing he is holding his own, if not advancing. But one thing is plain, and that is, the longer the case lasts the more difficult does it become to obtain accurate information, owing partly to the inevitable effect of the prolonged strain on the nerves of the attending doctors, and partly to the growing dithyrambic tendency of the newspaper descriptions.

The "international struggle for gold" which has exhibited itself in the several advances of the rate of discount by the Banks of England, France, and Germany, can hardly have the effect to check importations of that metal by this country while there is a balance of unliquidated indebtedness due to us and a continued demand in foreign countries for our products. This demand bids fair to be not only continued, but imperious. The recent destructive rains in Great Britain will necessitate large importations of breadstuffs and at higher prices than those of last year, and while our exportable surplus will be less than that of the two preceding years, the advance in price will perhaps more than compensate our farmers for the difference. The amount of American securities abroad available to take the place of gold in the settling of international balances is relatively small, though probably greater than last year at this season. The advance of the rate of discount by the Bank of England will have the effect more or less to cause holders to realize on these securities by sending them home to be sold—the proceeds to be invested at the higher rate of interest now offered in London. Aside from this the advance in the Bank rate, unless it be raised to a figure high enough to attract American capital to England for investment, can have no effect upon the movement of gold hither.

A fortnight ago the British wheat harvest was reported as about ten per cent. below the average, and as likely to produce 10,000,000 quarters, while the oats were estimated as twenty per cent. below the average. This would not have made up for the losses of the last five years, but it would have enabled most of the farmers who have held on till now to hold on still longer, if not to pull through. A fortnight's rain has, however, destroyed even these moderate expectations, and it is supposed, although within the last day or two the weather has improved, that the wheat crop will fall short by one-third. This means the ruin of a large proportion of the remaining farmers. Its effect in sustaining our exports of produce, about half of which go to Great Britain, will of course be great, but this is insignificant compared to the effect it is likely to have on English politics. It means a still further decline in the great social and political force known as "the landed interest." Many people on this side of the water fancy it will help the agitation for "fair trade," but we advise them not to build much on this movement till some one of its promoters produces, in black and white, his scheme for bringing "fair trade" about. None of them has done this yet, or is likely to do it.

The Bank of England early in the week raised its posted discount rate to 4 per cent. from 3 per cent., making an advance of 1½ per cent. in two consecutive weeks. This was done for the double purpose of drawing gold to London from the Continent and of stopping the outflow from London to New York. The latter it failed to do; for, since the advance as before, the rates for sterling exchange here have warranted gold imports. During the week, about $1,500,000 gold arrived here, and it is estimated that about $7,000,000 more is now afloat bound for this port. The United States Sub-Treasury here again took in more money than it paid out, and the New York banks, as the result of the movement in and out of their vaults for the various accounts, again lost heavily, so that on the statement of average condition for the week they lacked $2,568,025 of a 25 per cent. reserve. The redemption in advance of maturity of the $28,500,000 United States 5 per cent. bonds, due October 1st, is made at the Treasury at Washington instead of at the Sub-Treasury here; some $9,000,000 to $10,000,000 of these bonds have already been presented for prepayment, but on account of the delay incident to the formalities of redemption little or none of the money reached New York during the last bank week. Besides the money which will come out of the Treasury on this account, reports have been current that Secretary Windom will further use surplus income either to purchase the long 4 or 4½ per cent. bonds, or to redeem $20,000,000 to $25,000,000 of the bonds which earlier in the year were extended at 3½ per cent. and any part of which he can by the terms of the extension pay at any time. These reports were generally credited.

At the Stock Exchange the tone of speculation changed from "bear" to "bull," and in the latter part of the week there were rising prices for railroad and telegraph stocks. There is no change in the condition of trunk-line railroad affairs, the war appearing to be as bitter as at any time; and rates certainly have not been lower. But it is known that a few men can at any time close this war, so that appearances are not implicitly trusted. The wheat and corn harvests indicate a larger yield in this country and smaller returns in foreign countries, excepting Russia, than had been estimated. The outlook for the money market is no better than it was, except for the supposed disposition of the Secretary of the Treasury to release surplus revenues in sufficient amount to prevent the Treasury operations from making the loan market stringent.

Since the President's improvement the stock market has continued strong and rising. The theory is that leading stock speculators have been waiting for the termination of the suspense respecting the President (knowing well that his death or his recovery would not logically or properly affect the material interests of the country), to change the current of their operations, and then to change such events as they can control, like the railroad war, from "bear" to "bull" influences. However this may be, there was an "improved feeling" at the Stock Exchange late in the week. The talk that the Treasury is about to resume bond purchases advanced the price of the long United States bonds ⅛@1 per cent. The price of silver bullion advanced in London to 51⅞d. per ounce from 51¼d., and the bullion value here of the 412½-grain silver dollar advanced to 87 cents.

Senator Edmunds has written a letter to the Massachusetts Republicans giving his views as to the proper future policy of the party. He thinks that its duty is to preserve and improve the laws for the security of national civil rights; to make as effective as possible provisions for the purity and fairness of Congressional elections; to establish by law the methods of ascertaining the result of Presidential elections; to "so improve the civil service as to diminish and, if possible, remove the evils of place-hunting and the interchange of favors between the members of the legislative and executive branches of the Government, and to free the tenure of a great number of officers from dependence upon political favor or political opinion"; to readjust the revenue laws upon the basis of producing the greatest revenue with "the least and nearest equal burden to the people," and of "developing and encouraging the industrial pursuits of every calling of our citizens"; to bring both the theory and practice of the Government in regard to the currency to the point of a fixed and uniform metallic standard of values, making coin only a legal tender in the payment of debts; and to promote, so far as the national Government can lawfully do so, the increase and diffusion of education.

Mr. Edmunds's position in the Senate and his experience and ability make such a forecast as this valuable; at the same time it must be said that in some respects it lacks that definiteness and point which we should have expected from him. We should like to know, for instance, what legislation he would recommend to "improve the laws for the security of national civil rights." We have heard a great deal about the necessity of doing something effective for civil rights for many years, but when we ask what it is that ought to be done, we invariably fail to get any reply. So with regard to the revenue laws: what Mr. Edmunds says, amounts to no more than a declaration that we ought to have reve.

nue laws of the right sort, as to which there is no difference of opinion between Democrats and Republicans. The most important plank in his platform, it will be seen, relates to the civil service, and it will be gratifying to all friends of the movement to reform it to know that they are to have hereafter the assistance and support of the Vermont Senator.

The Greenbackers held conventions on Wednesday week in this State and in Massachusetts. Their hearts still beat warmly for greenbacks, and they hate "monopolies" of all kinds, but on some new subjects which they have recently taken up it is difficult to make out from their resolutions what they are after. In both States they have taken up the civil-service question with considerable vigor. In New York they declare that "we recognize the fact that all chief executive officers should have entire control of the selection and appointment of their assistants, to the end that the administrative machinery may work harmoniously; but for the purpose of relieving both State and National politics from the odium of executive interference, we demand that all persons performing executive service for the State or General Government shall be deprived of the elective franchise during the period of such service." In Massachusetts, on the other hand, they have reached the conclusion that "in appointment by the President lies the chief evil of our present civil service; therefore, in frequent elections by the people of the largest possible number of Government officials, giving frequent opportunity for the people to pass judgment upon their acts as their servants, will be found the best possible solution of the problem of civil-service reform." These proposed reforms would undoubtedly effect sweeping changes in the service, but they seem to be founded upon somewhat divergent views as to what the civil-service problem is.

The remainder of the platforms is of a highly miscellaneous character. Thus the Massachusetts Convention seems to have had among its members some one interested in the tax-mortgage abuse, and accordingly we find that it resolves very sensibly "that the holder of mortgaged property should only be taxed on the amount of his interest therein." On the other hand, it would be hard to say why the New York Greenbackers should insist "that the Government should exchange its legal-tender notes for any of its interest-bearing debts at par on demand, and for gold or silver bullion or coin at their legal-weight values," or precisely what the resolution means. There seems to be no immediate connection between the Greenback movement and an amendment of the Massachusetts Jury law "so that at least one-half of the legal voters of each city and town shall be on the jury list," nor should we have expected to find in a Greenback platform a plank insisting that "all halls owned by towns and cities" should be "free of all expenses for political or educational purposes." This seems to be directed against the abuse of "hiring a hall" so commonly reprobated, no less among the politicians of the two old parties than by the Greenbackers. The purchase of the telegraphs by the Government we might have expected to be recommended by anti-monopolists, but the Massachusetts Greenbackers insist that the Government should after this undertake one function never until now, we believe, suggested in this country—that of collecting and distributing news. "We demand," they say, "that the daily news be publicly bulletined at every telegraph office and given to every newspaper free of charge, in the interest of a broader dissemination of intelligence."

The reported discovery that Lieutenant Flipper, the colored officer, had been defrauding the Government is said to have created "wild excitement" among the garrison at Fort Davis, Texas. At first the rumor was not believed, the lieutenant having hitherto borne a high character, and being popularly supposed to be above suspicion. For several months he has been Acting Commissary of Subsistence, but since the 9th of July last the story is that he has not transmitted his funds to the Chief Commissary at San Antonio. On an explanation being demanded no reply was received, but on further enquiries being made Mr. Flipper stated that he had sent the funds by mail, but had kept no record of the fact, and consequently could not prove it. This is said to have been regarded as careless, but nothing more, until one evening, shortly after, some of the officers and ladies out driving were surprised at finding outside the post Lieutenant Flipper's horse, with a pair of saddle-bags, fastened in front of a store. Mr. Flipper was immediately brought back by the adjutant. The funds which he reported to have been sent by mail consisted in part of checks on different banks, given him by the officers of the fort in payment of their monthly bills. A description of them was forwarded to the banks, and it was learned that they had not been presented for payment. Lieutenant Flipper was now placed under arrest, and a search set on foot, which resulted in the discovery of what are said to be the missing checks upon the person of a woman servant.

Such is the story sent out from Fort Davis, but what is Flipper's side of the story? Is he unfamiliar with the Whittaker case? Does he not know that the prejudice in the army against colored officers is so intense that there would be nothing unnatural in "putting up a job" of this kind? Did he never suspect anything when they pretended to like and esteem him very much, and craftily made him commissary, and entrusted him with funds, well knowing that the negro race is not accustomed to complicated pecuniary transactions, and can easily be confused about them by means of accounts, vouchers, and the like? When he was suddenly called upon to account, and stated that he had mailed his funds, did it never occur to him that his servant might have been bribed, and checks carefully prepared to look like those which have disappeared placed in his hands? Then the poor defenceless boy is locked up, prevented from communicating with his friends, and stories are spread abroad that his "most intimate associates of late have not been the best." And this, too, at a distant post, surrounded by army officers who loathe him, graduates of an institution where prejudice against his race is cultivated by officers of instruction, and where the mutilation of negro cadets is regarded as a pleasant pastime. It is pretty evident that Flipper has not "retained counsel."

"Colonel" Cash of South Carolina, who shot "Colonel" Shannon of the same State in a duel recently, because he had, as a lawyer, alleged a fraudulent transfer of the former colonel's property to his wife, has published a defence of himself in the newspapers. His account of the affair does not differ materially from that which has already appeared. But he says of "Colonel" Shannon, that "no braver man ever bit the dust," and adds figuratively that "he died upon the ramparts of the enemy, and with a smile on his face fills a hero's grave." He denies that he addressed the crowd on "the field of honor" before the duel. There were about two hundred colonels, white and colored, there, when he arrived, but he declares he made no remark to them whatever. Having given due credit to the memory of his dead foe, he next turns his attention to the editorial colonels who have expressed disapproval of his conduct, one of whom, he says, is "an imported flunkey and notorious cuckold," and the others "vampires" who "disgrace the once proud title of editor." It is almost impossible to believe that when these colonels read this they will not seek "satisfaction" on "the ramparts of the enemy." We may be thankful if there is not more dust-biting among these hot-tempered officers.

The British Parliament was prorogued on Saturday, after one of the most remarkable and exciting sessions in its history. Nevertheless, it may be said to have accomplished little beyond the passage of the Irish Land Bill and the Coercion Bill. The Land Bill is one of the great measures of the century, but it is not great enough to be the sole product of nearly nine months' work of the most powerful and oldest legislative body in the world. The Coercion Bill may in one sense be said to have been a condition of the passage of the Land Bill, because Mr. Gladstone would probably not have succeeded in retaining for it the support of the English and Scotch constituencies if he had not accompanied it by the creation of extraordinary penal machinery for the maintenance of law and order. To be sure, the Coercion Bill led to obstruction by Mr. Parnell's followers, but their obstruction was, after all, a trifling misfortune compared to what the alienation of the English and Scotch would have been. Every one admits that nobody but Mr. Gladstone could have carried the Land Bill under any circumstances; but even he could not have carried it if no attempt had been made to check the Irish "outrages." But the Coercion Bill did not check them; in fact, it increased the exasperation which led to them, and, in the opinion of some of the best judges of Irish affairs, was a sorry substitute for the vigorous enforcement of the ordinary law.

It satisfied, however, the now long-standing and, in spite of all the progress of the last fifty years, deeply-rooted English prejudice which considers "troops" an essential part of every remedy for Irish discontent. Even the most advanced English Liberals are not fully prepared to give up "troops" in dealing with Ireland, however satisfied they may be of the inefficacy of this medicine as a remedy for discontent elsewhere. So Mr. Gladstone had to put a little of it in the cup of conciliation, and apparently considers himself obliged to adhere to it until the Land Bill has fully got into operation. It has, however, been a great misfortune, because it will deprive the Land Bill of a good deal of its power as a means of reconciling the country to the English connection.

That the anti-English agitation is not ended by the passage of the Land Bill is plain enough. We tried to foreshadow last week the direction it would now take, and what we predicted has received a good deal of confirmation from the recent declaration of so moderate an Irish malcontent as Sir Charles Gavan Duffy, that "the price of peace in Ireland is the concession of not only their own Government and their own Parliament, but their own military and naval forces and their own distinguishing flag." These are things which probably neither he nor anybody else will ever see; but there will be a powerful Irish group in the House of Commons trying for them through the means to which they find Englishmen most susceptible—disorder in Parliament. In spite of all the discussion of the subject during the last year, no adequate means of dealing with this has been hit upon. The Continental "clôture," the American previous question, and the "urgency" machinery which was furnished in the House of Commons last winter, are efficacious enough in preventing too much debate of a particular motion; but they cannot suppress a party or group of members determined to impede all business and bring the Legislature itself into contempt, and with Mr. Gladstone no longer on the scene to keep the English temper down by the weight of his character and authority.

There are strong indications that the English Tories, in default of anything better, have determined to advocate a return to protection, and have made or are making an alliance with the Parnellites, whom they join in denouncing "coercion," so as to make an inroad in the Liberal boroughs in England, where the Irish vote is strong. But no programme of what they propose to do about "protection" has appeared from any quarter; that is, they carefully refrain from saying what imports they would tax if they had their way. The nearest approach yet made to it comes from Sir George Elliot, who is preparing to contest North Durham. He says that commercial intercourse with the colonies should be "perfectly free." But as far as England is concerned, it is free already. Such obstacles as exist are imposed by the Colonial legislatures, so that Sir George, if he has any clear meaning at all, must mean that Parliament should take away from the Colonial legislatures the control of their own import duties, which is absurd. No ministry would attempt such a thing, and no colony would stand it. Mr. James Lowther, a scion of the Lonsdale family, and a very ridiculous person, who was Lord Beaconsfield's Irish Secretary, and is running for North Lincolnshire, seems to confine himself to vaguer phrases. He says, if correctly reported by the telegraph, that "agricultural and commercial depression points to the necessity of effectual measures against a ruinous foreign competition." If this means anything, it means that there ought to be import duties on food; but even he knows very well that this, too, is impossible.

There is no doubt the Parnellites have made one good point against Mr. Forster. He declared that the Coercion Bill was intended to enable him not to silence the political agitators of the Land League, but to arrest certain "village ruffians," who, he said, were the terror of their neighbors. Now he has not arrested any "village ruffians," so far as is known, while he has arrested a good many of the Land League orators. This does not look well for him, and he has, though a most conscientious and humane man, become thoroughly detested in Ireland. He has, as Mr. Labouchère points out in *Truth*, one capital disqualification for his place: he is an Englishman, and no Englishman ought to hold the Irish Secretaryship. The thing is a scandal, and the Liberals ought to put a stop to it. The queerer the Irish seem in English eyes the more necessary it is that the Cabinet officer charged with Irish affairs should understand the Irish in some degree, and in looking for such a person England is the last place to go to.

The attack on the House of Lords, which has grown out of its public attempt to stop the Land Bill, is carried on by the *Pall Mall Gazette* and the *Daily News* by means of a very effective retrospect of its labors in arresting or marring nearly all the beneficent reformatory legislation of the last fifty years. The position of the Lords, it is now clear enough, is likely to be seriously injured by Lord Salisbury's leadership. Under the late Lord Derby or Lord Beaconsfield, they crept along without exciting too much notice, but their present chief is likely to get them into a world of trouble. The worst of it is that arguments showing the value of a Second Chamber are of no use to them, for on this point their enemies agree with them. But the question, Why should the Second Chamber be hereditary? is a very crushing one, inasmuch as the only possible answer is the one known as a "woman's reason"—because it should.

There could hardly be a stronger illustration of the tendency of ceremonial worship to become mechanical than the recent flogging of a choir boy in an English cathedral by the organist for a mistake in his singing. The organist, who is a Doctor of Music by the way, forbore to punish the boy in anger. He waited awhile and then flogged him in cold blood. He defends himself now by the plea that such floggings are common in other cathedrals. As the only thing which distinguishes singing in a cathedral from singing in the theatre is the supposition that the former is an act of worship, dependent wholly for its value on the spirit in which it is performed, using a whip to make the worshippers sing in tune is one of those absurdities which are too absurd to be laughed at. They are food for reflection rather than for mirth.

Of course there is a variety of explanations of Gambetta's failure—for this is what it comes to—at the late French elections, but the favorite one, and apparently the one he himself accepts, is his prolonged retention of the position of a critic simply. The country apparently does not relish his incessant production, with an air of authority, of schemes of reform which he shows no disposition to carry out in person. It is now said that he does not intend any longer to shirk taking office, and has begun to prepare for it by denouncing "Utopian and reactionary policies," or, in other words, taking up the rôle of a practical man. His paper, the *République Française*, seems to confirm this impression, and he is to produce some sort of political programme in a speech on the 4th of September, the anniversary of the downfall of the Bonapartist dynasty. European opinion has apparently settled down on the conclusion that the Republican success, great as it has been, will do little to form a compact Republican majority unless Gambetta forms a ministry. He is the only man in public life in France who is capable of dominating all "the groups."

It is reported by cable that on Thursday at the conference of the orthodox evangelical clergy at Berlin, as well as at several meetings of the Conservative party, more violent speeches were made against the Jews. The argument advanced by a member of the clergy that, as the Jews are not content with equal rights but aim at absolute predominance over the Christians, the rights of the former must be curtailed for the protection of the latter, appears intensely comical considering the fact that the Jews form a smaller part of the population of Germany in proportion than the negroes form of that of the United States. It is almost incomprehensible how any intelligent and self-respecting people, as the Germans are, can permit it to be said, or even to be suspected, that the Jews are so greatly their superiors in prudence, enterprise, industry, and general cleverness that barbarous demonstrations of force and legal disqualifications must be resorted to to prevent them, a feeble minority as they are, from gaining "absolute predominance" over a great people. It is said that the dissatisfaction recently expressed by the Emperor of Germany and also by the Crown Prince with the anti-Jewish movement has put a stop to the worst excesses. If this is true it is creditable enough to the Emperor and the Crown Prince, but it shows also that those excesses would never have happened, or at least would not have continued so long, had not the Government permitted its feelings with regard to the anti-Jewish movement to remain in doubt.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

THE condition of the President has varied this week more than in any week since his wound was received. On the 23d his retaining nourishment gave the physicians great hope; the granulation of the wound was progressing favorably, and the glandular swelling giving comparatively little trouble. The last, however, was lanced on the following day, and though some relief was obtained no substantial improvement was noticeable, and the question of removing the President from the White House was seriously mooted. Dr. Agnew was sent for and agreed with the Washington physicians, who unanimously opposed Dr. Hamilton's proposal of removal, according to report. On Thursday the doctors were inclined to give their patient up, and announced to the assembled Cabinet that the case was extremely critical. Secretary Blaine cabled Mr. Lowell that the sole hope of reaction rested upon the retainment of nourishment, and announced that the brain was affected. On Friday the pulse went up to 140, the President was frequently delirious, the bulletins expressed alarm, and Mrs. Garfield was warned that but little hope of recovery remained. On Saturday a favorable reaction began. The President asked for and ate a small quantity of toast; the mental disturbance disappeared, and the parotid gland broke into the outer canal of the ear, relieving somewhat the tension. A slight increase of respiration was the only alarming symptom. The next day this disappeared also, and since then improvement has been plain, though of course exceedingly slow. The gland was lanced again and began to discharge more freely, the discharge from the wound, which had for some days been extremely unsatisfactory, improved in character, and when Dr. Hamilton left Washington he announced his confidence in the ultimate recovery of the President. The favorable symptoms continued Monday, and in justifying his confidence Dr. Hamilton explains that he regards them as the effect rather than the cause of the improvement.

At the time of greatest danger, when every one had abandoned hope, the guards of the jail where Guiteau is confined were doubled; in connection with which precaution may be mentioned a rumor that a large organization of "reputable men" has been formed, "without any nonsense of pass-words and grips," to see that Guiteau is punished as they think proper.

The Mississippi Republicans and Greenbackers held their Conventions at Jackson last week, and nominated the following joint ticket, the head of which is an Independent Democrat: For Governor, Benj. King (Ind.); for Lieutenant-Governor, J. B. Yellowby (Gr.); for Auditor, A. T. Wimberly (Gr.); for Superintendent of Education, Professor W. D. Hawsee (Gr.); for Secretary of State, J. J. Spellman (Rep., colored); for Attorney-General, W. F. Fitzgerald (Rep.); and for Treasurer, J. N. Bynum (Rep.). Several gentlemen who had "formerly affiliated with the Democrats" made speeches, and the Bourbons now in power were warned of their approaching downfall and the succession of honest government and fair elections.

The Greenback Convention of New York assembled at Elmira on the 23d instant: The formation of a temporary organization was all the business done on the first day, owing to the scarcity of delegates, but on Wednesday there were too many for concord, and a grand quarrel preceded the permanent organization. The following ticket was nominated: For Secretary of State, Epenetus Howe; for Comptroller, John Hooper; for Attorney-General, Dennis C. Fealey; for Treasurer, Allen G. Woods; for Surveyor-General, J. H. Gould; and for Associate Justice of the Court of Appeals, L. G. McParlan. The platform announces that seventeen years of peace prove the inability of both the great parties "to restore harmony, confidence, and good feeling between the people of the North and the South," demands "the overthrow of all monopolies by the resumption by the Government of the power to issue and control the money of the people, and by a Government control of railroads and other transportation corporations," and, in short, echoes the national platform of the party adopted at Chicago a year ago last June.

The Massachusetts Greenbackers met at Worcester on the 24th instant, 406 delegates being present. The platform adopted is substantially the same as that of the New York convention. A resolution advocating the giving of factory hands a share of the profits in proportion to their wages, when the profits amount to more than six per cent., the corporations to make annual returns of their business to the Secretary of State, was somehow or other lost. The following ticket was nominated: For Governor, Israel W. Andrews; for Lieut.-Governor, George Dutton; for Treasurer, George Foster; for Secretary of State, A. B. Brown; for Auditor, W. T. Whitney; and for Attorney-General, D. O. Allen.

General William C. Wickham, one of the leading Republicans of Virginia, has written a letter to the editor of the new Republican paper of Richmond, the *Debt Payer*, in which he declares his intention of supporting the ticket of the Funder Democrats "as far less hurtful to the best interests of the State and of the country than the Readjuster candidates," to vote for whom he regards as an abandonment of "one of the most vitally important principles of the Republican party." "Suppose they [the Readjusters] succeed in their efforts against the credit of Virginia," he continues, "will it not have a demoralizing effect on the tone of the whole country?" The repudiation of the debt he calls the "one distinctive principle" of the Mahonites. As to their being "liberal Democrats," he is extremely sceptical, and has "no confidence in their professions." If they succeed this fall, "the Republican party will cease to exist in Virginia for all time thereafter." General Wickham argues that a straight Republican ticket supported by the party would have been successful, and says that when the canvass is over he will put forth all the zeal he possesses to "resuscitate and reunite" the Republican party in the State.

Mr. Loren B. Sessions was defeated in the Senatorial Convention of his district on Friday, Mr. Norman M. Allen receiving the nomination, partly owing to bad "tactics" of the friends of Sessions, who overreached themselves by voting for Allen, whose small following they expected on the next ballot to reciprocate the courtesy out of a sentiment of gratitude. The anti-Sessions men, however, proved ungrateful, and a "stampede" for Allen was the result of the "movement." The nominee was a Democrat until 1855, since which time he has been twice in the Senate from his present district, and was a member of the Constitutional Convention of 1867, besides having held various local offices.

At a meeting of the Anti-Monopoly League of the Twelfth Assembly district on Thursday evening, Mr. F. B. Thurber made an address reciting and explaining the proceedings of the recent Utica Convention. He was desirous of having it understood that the Anti-Monopolists proposed to work no injustice to capital. On the other hand, they desired to protect it in every legitimate way and to conserve its interests in every proper manner. He announced that in the way of organization far greater success than had been expected had already been met with. A subordinate league is proposed in every Assembly district in the State, its members to vote for legislative candidates who will pledge themselves to support their views, whether they happen to be Democrats or Republicans.

A convention of representatives from forty-four oil refineries throughout the country was held in Cleveland, O., last week. The proceedings were secret, but at their conclusion it was announced that the Independent Oil Refiners' Association had been organized, and would probably be joined by all the oil refiners in the United States except the Standard Company. The object of the association was declared, however, not to be opposition to the Standard; on the contrary, "the Standard is a help to us in that it believes in holding up prices and keeping a respectable state of the market." The true motive for organization is "to create harmony in the ranks of the smaller refiners," and "the proper way to fight the Standard is in quality, not price."

A civil suit was begun by the Government on the 24th instant against Captain Henry W. Howgate, the alleged signal-service defaulter, to recover something over $100,000. The suit is based upon affidavits reciting the result of an examination of the accounts of the accused when disbursing officer of the service.

Official notification was sent to the Adjutant-General of the Army on the 24th instant that Lieutenant H. O. Flipper had been put under arrest at Fort Davis, Texas, charged with embezzling $2,300 Government funds. Lieutenant Flipper was Acting Commissary of Subsistence at Fort Davis, and thus entrusted with considerable amounts of money. He is the only colored graduate of West Point, belonging to the class of 1877, in which he stood 43. He wrote a book after his graduation, relating his experiences at the Academy. A court-martial will be held.

Mayor Grace, last week, decided to remove Police Commissioners French, Mason, and Nichols, whose long trial terminated some time ago, and communicated his decision to each of the Commissioners and to the Governor, with whom the case now rests. Accompanying the notification sent to the Governor is a *résumé* of the voluminous testimony taken before the Mayor, interspersed with comments which make it the justification of the removals. The document concludes: "The duty imposed upon them was a plain one and one of the very first importance to the city. They understood what the duty was and undertook its performance. At the same time they failed to perform it." Mr. Bliss, of counsel for the Commissioners, expresses no surprise at the Mayor's course, which is "what, in fact, I told him he would do when I summed up the case before him." He expects a hearing before the Governor, and has already applied for one. If at its conclusion the Governor's decision also is adverse to his clients, "we shall take it into the courts and we shall fight it in the courts as long as there is any law for us to stand on."

Judge Gilbert M. Speir, of the Superior Court, has resigned his seat upon the bench, his resignation to take effect December 31. His successor will be appointed by Governor Cornell, his term not expiring till 1883. Had he resigned three months instead of two before the next election, his successor would have been chosen by the people, and his course is accordingly "severely commented upon" in City Hall circles.

The Commissioners of Rapid Transit last week fixed the route of the new east-side elevated railway beyond the Harlem River in the annexed district of the city. It is probable that there will be an elevated road to Fordham, and a surface one thence to the Bronx River.

Lieutenant-Commander B. L. Edes and Lieutenant L. G. Spaulding, of the United States Navy, lost their lives by a torpedo explosion at the Newport Station on Monday. They were engaged in planting a torpedo, which they had taken out in a small boat with them for the purpose, but the connection with the firing-post had not been broken in accordance with instructions, owing to which negligence the explosion occurred. Lieutenant-Commander Edes leaves a wife and two children.

The steamer *State of New York*, of the New York and Hartford Line, struck on a large stump in the bottom of the Connecticut River, near East Haddam, on Monday night, and stove

a hole in her bottom. She was beached and the passengers taken off by a ferry-boat. No lives were lost except that of the baggage-master.

A West India cyclone, of which the Signal Service had given warning, struck the South Carolina and Georgia coast on Saturday. At Charleston the spray from the sea breaking against the sea-wall reached forty feet in height, and the damage done to buildings is roughly estimated at $140,000. Four persons lost their lives in consequence of the gale. At Port Royal a ferry-house was blown into the water and many people—variously reported from twenty to forty—drowned. The most serious damage was apparently done at Savannah, although no figures of the money loss are given. A large part of the city was under water for several hours, the City Exchange badly injured, the Georgia Infirmary wrecked and many of the patients bruised, and the shipping in the harbor disastrously knocked about. The loss of life among the colored population on the rice plantations and along the river is said to be very great. At Shad Island all the people were drowned.

"General Budlong A. Morton," more generally known as Marvin, who is charged with having married fourteen successive wives before the death or divorce of any of them, as well as with forgery, was arraigned at Richmond, Virginia, on Monday, but remanded and the hearing postponed.

The deaths of George W. Riggs, banker, of Washington; Jas. F. D. Lanier, banker, of this city; S. B. Ruggles, long a prominent member of the Chamber of Commerce and responsible in a great degree for the success of the State canals; ex-Congressman De Jarnette of Virginia, and Colonel J. G. Benton of the Ordnance Department, U. S. A., have occurred during the week.

The Apache chief Nana's main band has crossed the Sonora line into Mexico, after a hard flight before the soldiers, who were five hours behind them. A San Francisco despatch from Tombstone, Arizona, says all the citizens of Eureka, N. M., numbering about seventy, have been killed by Indians. A doubtful rumor comes from St. Paul that one hundred and fifty young bucks have left the Standing Rock Agency, after procuring in some way plenty of arms and ammunition.

FOREIGN.

The House of Commons was prorogued on Saturday, Lord Selbourne, the Lord High Chancellor, reading the Queen's speech. The speech notes the cession of Thessaly to the Greek kingdom; says satisfactory assurances have been received from France in regard to English rights secured by treaty with the Bey and also in regard to the relations between the Regency and Tripoli; mentions the signing of the convention which gives "Europeans in the Transvaal, subject to important conditions therein set forth, complete internal self-government"; chronicles the withdrawal of the British troops from Kandahar, declares that Ayub Kahn's revolt does not disturb the peace of the northwestern frontier of India, and announces an intention, "while respecting the independence of the Afghan people, to promote by friendly offices, as opportunity may arise, the restoration of peace"; says the commercial negotiations with France have been suspended, but great efforts will be made to secure a treaty "on terms favorable to an extended intercourse between the two nations"; recognizes the "zeal and assiduity" which have been evinced by Parliament in passing the Land Bill, and expresses an earnest desire that the condition of Ireland may so improve as to permit the abandonment of "the temporary and exceptional provisions" of the Coercion Act.

Sir Charles Gavan Duffy advises his countrymen to accept the Land Bill, but adds that "the price of peace in Ireland is the concession of not only their own Government and their own Parliament, but their own military and naval forces and their own distinguishing flag," a suggestion described by an English journal as "slightly seditious." Mr. Parnell and Mr. T. P. O'Connor will probably visit this country after the Land League Convention has been held, to raise more money. The former has issued a manifesto to the electors of North Durham which ignores the Land Bill, and pronounces it impossible for the Irish party to enter into an alliance with any section that "allows itself to be used in support of the coercionist Ministry, who banished personal liberty from Ireland and reduced it to a worse condition than that of Russia under the Third Section." The cost of the recent trials of Mr. Parnell and others was £9,800. The Land League at its last weekly meeting in Dublin reported subscriptions during the week to the amount of £1,315, of which £900 comes from the *Irish World* of this city. The Kilfinane branch of the League has pronounced in favor of the Land Bill, despite current Irish opinion that such action should await that of the Convention.

For this Convention great preparations had been made, and it was opened at Newcastle on Monday, with about two hundred delegates from different branches of the League throughout Great Britain. Mr. Joseph Cowen, M. P. for Newcastle, moved a resolution denouncing the continued incarceration of "suspects," and condemning the Land Bill. Mr. Parnell was absent. In Dublin, on Monday evening, a banquet was given to Mr. John Dillon, who referred at length to the present situation, and expressed himself "very strongly of the opinion that the passage of the bill would immediately increase the difficulty, if it did not render impossible the carrying on of the Land League movement on the old lines." He feared "the yoke of landlord ascendancy" would be so altered that the people would be content "once more to bow their heads beneath it." As for himself, he could not agree with what he believed would be the League's policy—namely, that of "trying the bill"—and would therefore retire from public life for a few months, and leave those who did agree with it to carry it out unembarrassed.

Rev. George Granville Bradley, M. A., Master of University College, Oxford, has been appointed Dean Stanley's successor.

In speaking of the Belleville elections the Paris *Temps* says: "M. Gambetta has become the representative of a large majority in the country. The elections have placed him almost under the necessity of assuming power, and will necessarily result in the formation of a Ministry with Gambetta at its head." To judge from indications in the *Republique Française*, Gambetta has come to the same conclusion, and is prepared to succeed M. Jules Ferry, who has already announced that such an event would please him. It is predicted that the Chamber will be more than ever at variance with the sentiments of the Senate. The Committee of Enquiry into the election in the Twentieth arrondissement have announced that M. Gambetta was elected in the First or Belleville district, but failed of a majority in the Second, where a new election must be held. This will result in a walk-over for Tony Révillon, Gambetta having withdrawn. Since the election Gambetta has written a letter to some leading statesmen of the Italian Left deprecating an Italian alliance with Germany and Austria, of which there is believed to be little imminent danger, owing to the hostility of Premier Depretis, and has presided at an anti-clerical lecture by M. Paul Bert, whose sentiments he applauded in some subsequent remarks of his own.

The Paris Municipal Government has changed the name of the street on which Minister Morton lives to the Place des États-Unis.

Affairs in Tunis and Algeria continue disturbed, but it is impossible to tell from the despatches precisely what, or whether any, active movements are going on. Enormous fires are reported in Algeria, started by Arabs, it is feared, and Stora, the port of Philippeville, has been destroyed. The French destroyed the tomb of the Marabout at Saïda, and though they paid every honor to its illustrious occupant, the Arabs are said to be irritated at the sacrilege of the demolition just the same. The occupation of Susa has been decided upon. Sickness prevails in the French camp at Goletta. Engagements of trifling consequence are reported between the Arabs and French.

Complete returns from the Spanish elections show the election of 235 or 240 followers of Sagasta, with 70 of Marshal Campos's, upon whom in any event the Government can rely. General Blanco telegraphed from Cuba that the "Constitutional candidates" were successful in a majority of districts of the island, the Autonomists securing but six seats in Cuba and two in Porto Rico. The "Constitutionalist" ticket was the result of a fusion between Conservatives and moderate Liberals. All the persons arrested in Madrid charged with attempted fraud on the ballot-box have been released on bail.

The Swiss Federal Council has expelled from the country Prince Krapotkin, the Nihilist, and a member of one of the oldest and noblest Russian families. Several recent arrests in St. Petersburg are reported, including that of an official of the general staff. The post of Town Commandant of St. Petersburg, now held by Count Baranoff, is to be abolished, it is announced, and General Kobloff, now Commandant of Moscow, is to replace Baranoff, with the title of Chief Director of Police.

The latest supposed conspiracy against the life of the Sultan is being investigated by the Constantinople authorities. An Ottoman Greek has been denounced as having formed a plan to kill the Sultan with dynamite on his recent visit to the palace of Top-Capou. The Greek, being "examined," denounced his two brothers-in-law, Samians, but Italians subjects, who had, he said, received explosives from Athens. They were accordingly arrested; against one no evidence was found, and he was liberated; but ten dynamite cartridges with fuses were found in the other's possession. They were for fishing purposes, he said, and a number of fishermen said so too; consequently it is now firmly believed that no conspiracy at all existed.

Ayub Khan's forces are reported to be much diminished since his victory over the Amir, his eight regiments not numbering over four hundred men each, and the Kabulis being especially discontented. The Amir has arrived within some miles of Khelat-i-Ghilzai, and Ayub, it is rumored, is contemplating a retreat to Herat.

News from Lima, bearing date of August 2d, reports the presentation of his credentials by the new United States Minister, General S. A. Hurlbut, to the Provisional President, and the withdrawal of Mr. Christiancy on July 26th. In bidding adieu to the latter, President Calderon declared that Peru could never forget his efforts to bring about a termination of the fatal war with Chile. The new Minister recognized the Calderon Government as provisional, having for its object the re-establishment of a regular and constitutional Government. The ex-Dictator Pierola and his *Montaneros* are still irreconcilables, but Pierola is reported to be very unhappy—"disgusted with everything and everybody." No one obeys his orders, and bands of his followers ravage the country to such an extent that the inhabitants in some districts have been compelled to call upon the Chilians to protect them.

A Panama despatch of August 16 reports the settlement of the long-disputed boundary question between Chile and the Argentine Republic. Among other provisions of the treaty is a guarantee of the perpetual neutrality of the Straits of Magellan, which are to be for ever free to the flags of all nations. Any difference arising as to the interpretation of the treaty is to be settled by the arbitration of some friendly power.

TUESDAY, August 30, 1881.

SOME LESSONS OF THE CRISIS.

It has been frequently remarked that the attempted assassination of President Garfield has brought about a better understanding between the North and the South, and has perhaps rendered it impossible for the two great sections of the Union ever to view each other in exactly the same light as they did before they were softened by a common grief. Separated they may be by opposing ideas, prejudices, training, but they can hardly ever again approach any controversy, each holding the preconceived idea that the other is incurably bad, wilfully blind and desperately sinful. Any party or considerable mass of the people which habitually entertains the opinion that its opponents love evil for its own sake, and that there is no good in them, is not only unable to appreciate the force of argument, but contributes to produce in the opposing faction or section the hateful qualities which it ascribes to them. In the long watch at the bedside of the President, the door of the household, North and South, has swung open and has disclosed to view genuine patriotism in places where only evil had been looked for, and that continually. It is not that facts have changed, so that what was true on the first of July became something different on the second, but that our opportunity of discerning the truth has been enlarged. We are not inclined to "gush" over this much-needed and now evident softening of asperities between the two sections. Whether the President recovers from his injuries or not, parties and party differences will survive, being an integral and necessary part of rational free government. President Garfield's wound will by and by cease to be the object of chief interest, and society will resume its wonted activities as though no such persons as Guiteau and Wilkes Booth had ever lived to afflict mankind. The important thing now is not that party or even sectional animosity should cease, but that the people of the whole country should hereafter be slower to think ill of each other on account of old animosities, and should give the reflecting and reasoning faculties a better chance to perform their office in political controversy. Thus much of permanent good, we think, these weeks of soberness and anxiety have wrought for us. If by this means we have learned that no part of our country is wilfully wrongheaded and hopelessly bad, then President Garfield, even if he die of his wound, will not have died in vain. If he shall recover, the same lasting benefit will accrue from the peril and pain which he has so manfully endured.

But this is not the only lesson we have learned from the catastrophe. American society has changed somewhat since the close of the war. There has been great accumulation of wealth side by side with much poverty and wretchedness. Discontent has grown up here and there, which has exhibited itself in Greenback-Labor movements, in Socialist organizations, in strikes of a more or less riotous character, in anti-Chinese mobs, Sand-lot agitation, Molly Maguire outrages, etc. The extent of this social pyæmia has no doubt been much exaggerated by the fears of those whose rights of property have been menaced. It is most reassuring to find that no organized body or group among us, however revolutionary in theory, has uttered any other sentiment than that of detestation of the crime of Guiteau, and that no individual has been allowed to express satisfaction at the deed without exposing himself to social reprobation if not bodily chastisement at the hands of his nearest neighbors. General Garfield represents for the time being social order in America. It is this fact which makes his attempted assassination different from that of any other reputable and useful citizen. To strike him down is in one sense to strike at existing institutions. If there were any body of opinion among us bent upon assailing the institutions of the country, and of sufficient magnitude to be worth a moment's attention it would have shown itself by its indifference to the President's fate, if by nothing more positive. The evidence is clear that we have no nihilists among us, no socialists to speak of, no Irish tenantry, no dynamite men who have any hostile intent towards us, no class whose discontent threatens an assault upon the constitution of society, whose temporary head the stricken President is. This negative testimony to the permanence of our form of government is supplemented by positive testimony overwhelming in its fulness and extent, which the press has not chronicled and which everybody has felt and witnessed during the vicissitudes of the President's illness. For aught that now appears our institutions may last forever.

A third indication is that the division of the Republican party denominated Stalwart has lost ground irreparably since the shooting of the President. This phrase was once supposed to signify particular views as to the condition of affairs at the South, but when General Grant acknowledged himself satisfied by personal observation with the temper and loyalty of the Southern whites, and when the names of Senators Blaine and Edmunds and Secretary Sherman, all pronounced Stalwarts, were found arrayed at Chicago against the faction calling itself Stalwart, the original signification of the phrase was lost. By degrees it came to mean hostility to General Garfield's Administration. This was its popular definition at the time of the shooting, and Guiteau adopted it as the handiest justification of his crime. It was the misfortune perhaps more than the fault of the Stalwarts that they were thus identified with the ill-will towards the President at an unexpected and terrible crisis. Mr. Conkling had the same right to oppose the confirmation of Collector Robertson that the President had to appoint him, and if his method of doing so was theatrical and absurd, he took his own risk and has paid the penalty, and the account might properly be called square. But it is far from being so considered by the public. Opposition to President Garfield, whether justly or unjustly, has been thus discredited in the public mind by his suffering and his fortitude and by the general alarm, so that what would have been passed over and forgotten in a short space under other circumstances will not be soon effaced, whether the President recovers from his wound or finally succumbs to it. No dexterous handling of patronage by Mr. Arthur, if he should be weak enough to resort to such means of balancing accounts, would avail the Stalwarts. The removal of President Garfield's appointees would look like a fresh assault upon himself, and the wing or division of the party which should support such a policy, and profit by it, would speedily be reduced to the condition of the John Tyler Whigs and the Andrew Johnson Republicans.

THE TROUBLES IN AFGHANISTAN.

The Gladstone Ministry is receiving much help in an indirect way from the doings of Ayub Khan in Afghanistan. The folly of the invasion of that country set on foot by the Beaconsfield Ministry was, to be sure, amply shown before it went out of office. But the demonstration needed a few finishing touches, which Ayub Khan seems to be giving it. The contention of the Liberals with regard to Afghanistan was all along simple enough, and rested mainly on the British experience in the invasion of 1839–41. Afghanistan is not a consolidated state or nation, and never has been, in historic times at least. It is a collection of tribes torn by fierce internecine feuds and separated from each other by high mountains and sandy deserts, but nevertheless with sufficient cohesion, through blood, religion, and language, to be able occasionally to bear a common ruler, though never very long at a time. The ruler is apt to be the man, from one of two or three dominant families, whose character and prowess make him most attractive to the fighting men. As long as he can keep an army together at Kabul he reigns peaceably. But then an Afghan army is a very loose body. The men are fickle and turbulent; the discipline is always poor, and the pay irregular, and if they get dissatisfied they either mutiny or go home. Nothing appears in the course of Afghan history to have had such a powerful effect in producing mutinies and revolts against the reigning Amir as the suspicion that he was subject to foreign influence or took orders from foreigners; for, as Dost Mahomet assured the British envoy in 1839, they will submit to anything but a master. It was this which made it impossible for the British in that year to set up Shah Soojah in Dost Mahomet's place; it was this which led the unfortunate Shir Ali to refuse in 1877 to receive a British envoy; it was this which ruined his successor, Yakub Khan; and it is this which must always make it impossible for any foreign power to rule Afghanistan through a native Prince. Lord Beaconsfield thought he could do it through Shir Ali, but Shir Ali knew better, and ran away when he found the experiment was about to be tried in his person. Lord Beaconsfield then thought he could do it through Yakub Khan, but Yakub also failed him, let the British envoy be murdered, and then abdicated.

The Liberal Ministry, as the easiest way out of the difficulty, allowed Abdurrahman Khan, as apparently the strongest of the chiefs, to set himself up in their stead, when they proposed to leave the country last year. They gave him as little help as possible, and would probably never have fired a shot in his behalf if Ayub Khan had not come up from Herat

and attacked and defeated General Burrows's force outside Kandahar. This compelled them to chastise him, and his overthrow seemed for the moment to be pure gain to his rival, Abdurrahman, at Kabul. But as a matter of fact, and in strict accordance with all Afghan traditions, it was to Ayub a blessing in disguise, for it made him seem to the people a better Afghan than Abdurrahman. They said, as they have always said, that the man who was fighting the foreigners, whether he won or lost, was the man for them; while the man whom the foreigners favored, and who profited by their victories, must be a bad Afghan and, what is still worse, a bad Mussulman. Accordingly, no sooner had the British withdrawn after handing over the forts to Abdurrahman, than Ayub, who had retired after his defeat by General Roberts to Herat, where he was reported to have passed a thoroughly Afghan winter—fighting three days in the week with rebels and quelling mutinies the other four—sallied out once more with a very respectable force, met Abdurrahman near the scene of Burrows's disaster, and routed him. It would not have been a real Afghan fight, however, if the men on both sides had remained true to their colors. Accordingly we find that during the engagement a third, or thereabouts, of Abdurrahman's forces went over to the enemy, and a portion of Ayub's occupied itself in plundering his own baggage train.

He was very slow after his victory in advancing on and occupying Kandahar, while poor Abdurrahman went back to Kabul, whether to raise another army, or to prepare for complete flight, nobody could tell. It would, however, also have been contrary to all Afghan experience if Ayub had been able to follow up his success. Afghan troops are never, as the saying is, "flushed with victory." On the contrary, like the old Scotch Highland clans, when they have won a battle they are apt to think that it is time to go home and engage in some other enterprise. It is not surprising, therefore, that the latest telegrams from the Viceroy of India should announce that "Ayub's forces are much diminished," and that some "trouble" had broken out in Herat which compelled him to send thither both troops and money. The picture would still be incomplete without the additional news, which comes through the London *Times*, that Abdurrahman had got another army and was on his way to Kandahar, and that there was no likelihood that Ayub would resist him, inasmuch as he thinks of going back to Herat.

A more instructive illustration of the criminal folly of Lord Beaconsfield's enterprises than the manœuvring of the two rivals furnishes, the Liberals could not desire. It shows, too, how insensate is the Tory dread of Russian influence in Afghanistan. If Russia seeks to exercise influence through an Afghan ruler, she ruins him, just as British influence would ruin him. If she seeks to occupy and hold the country, she enters on an undertaking to which the resources of no European Power are equal. No treasury and no army could bear the strain of it. It would require a force far larger and far more difficult to maintain than the Russian force in Turkistan. Indeed, it may be said that the subjugation of Afghanistan—that is, not simply the dispersal of the armed force of the country, but the preservation of peace and good order in it—is a task to which no civilized state is yet equal.

CITY GOVERNMENT IN MASSACHUSETTS.

An interesting contribution to the question of municipal reform has been made in a recent movement of the city of Newton, Massachusetts, for a revision of its charter. Newton, the youngest, and probably the most rural of the chartered cities of Massachusetts, appears to feel the inconveniences and shortcomings of the municipal constitution more keenly than do its sisters, more compactly inhabited, and having longer experience of the high taxation, and exclusion from a direct share in the management of affairs, which always attend the transition from the town to the city form of government. The committee (of five) to whom the question of revision was referred have reported a much simplified scheme of government; and an even simpler plan has been presented in a minority report, signed by two of the five. Further, one of the minority, Mr. Francis J. Parker, has published, as a sort of commentary upon his plan, a pamphlet entitled 'A Study of Municipal Government in Massachusetts.' Although the problems of municipal government in New England differ somewhat from those in other parts of the country, these three documents will be found instructive wherever the desire for improvement in this matter exists.

The two reports agree up to a certain point. Both aim to make the form of government more simple and self-consistent, by carefully separating the executive and legislative powers, and by concentrating each of them in the hands of a single authority—Mayor and Council respectively. The minority report goes further in the same direction, and proposes to extend logically the same principle of differentiation, by reducing the Council to one chamber, prohibiting standing committees, and abolishing the School Committee (the majority abolish all other bodies co-ordinate with the Council, such as Overseers of the Poor). The School Committee, elected by the people, and thus wholly independent of the Council, is retained by the majority plan; the minority contemplates the appointment of a school board, but wish it to be appointed by and wholly responsible to the Council. In their plan the Mayor and the Council make up the entire frame-work of city government; all other authorities—boards, commissioners, and heads of departments—are strictly subordinate to these. The propositions of the majority are, in the main, such as will very generally commend themselves to all who take an intelligent interest in this subject. So far in reform we are all prepared to go; the question is, what to think of the more radical propositions of the minority. As these are the questions really at issue, our remarks will be chiefly confined to the minority plan.

First, as to the question of the single chamber. Here we have no doubt that they are in the right, and indeed the majority report contemplates the possibility of this result. The "double-headed City Council"—Board of Aldermen and Common Council—is said by the minority to be almost peculiar to New England, being found nowhere else except in Philadelphia and Baltimore. The experience of the country at large is against them. It is true the experience of all countries favors legislatures of two houses, although the basis upon which the two houses should be respectively organized is subject to controversy; but a municipal council is not a legislature in the strict sense of the word, as a municipality is not a true government. It exercises none but delegated and subordinate powers, which range within a quite limited field of action. These powers, moreover, are rather administrative than legislative. The acts of the Council are not laws, but *ordinances*, or rules of a temporary and limited nature. These being essentially administrative, and bearing immediately upon executive action, there would be no fitness in hedging them about with the checks and delays which are requisite to law-making proper. For this reason (the essentially administrative character of municipal business) it appears to us that the minority are wrong in insisting upon so complete a separation of executive and legislative authority—a separation more complete than is found practicable even in the State and national governments. This separation is in no government carried out to its logical results, and we doubt whether it would be possible to do so. The minority—leaving the Mayor his veto—forbid him to preside in the Council. We doubt whether this is wise.

The proposition to abolish standing committees of the Council is connected in theory with this strict division of the departments. Here, however, a distinction needs to be made. Committees invested with administrative power—that is, encroaching on the functions of the executive—may be very mischievous, and are certainly inconsistent with the proper division of powers; but standing committees are so characteristic and universal a feature of American institutions that, like all institutions which have been naturally and spontaneously developed out of the experience of any live community, they should be dealt with cautiously and intelligently. The fact of their existence and universality is a proof that they meet a certain need, not necessarily in the best possible way, but at any rate in a way corresponding to the genius of the people. And if abuses have grown out of it, as they certainly have, the first question should be, not whether we should abolish it, but whether it is capable of amendment. The system of standing committees arises from the absolute necessity a legislative body is under of having every measure laid before it examined by some disinterested and competent authority before action is taken. The English Parliament, acting always in co-operation with the Government, receives its proposals of law from the ministers; our Congress, jealously guarding the independence of the departments, refers such proposals to committees of its own members. And this would seem altogether the safest and best plan if the jealousy spoken of did not go so far as to cut off all direct intercourse between the two departments, so that the work of legislation is deprived of the assistance of the executive, and is frequently done against its judgment.

The abuse of the institution of standing committees consists, therefore, in diverting them from their original function of deliberation upon propositions laid before them to that of originating, shaping, and directing all legislation, of which these bodies are practically the sole source. Hence the conflicting and ill-considered legislation which emanates from twenty independent committees, with no superior authority to harmonize it and put it in shape. This is in legislative bodies. In bodies which are essentially administrative, like the City Councils, the evils are still greater. But if these committees could be deprived of the power of *acting*, and given simply the power of *deliberating*, inspecting, and reporting to the Council itself, it seems to us that they would serve a useful purpose. An example of their mischievous action is given (p. 10) from the experience of Boston:

"The Committee on Paving order A Street to be repaved, and it is done; but it is hardly done before the Committee on Drainage, finding it necessary to repair the sewer in A Street, the new paving is removed, and must be again relaid. Soon afterwards there appears a gang of men who tear it up again, by order of the Water Board, in order to increase the size of the water-mains; and about the time when the pavement has been again restored the Street Commissioners announce their intention to widen A Street; and after them there must be a new grade and a new pavement, and still other changes in pipes and drains."

Both reports agree in placing all the legislative authority which is conferred upon the city in the hands of the Council, except as to school matters, for which the majority report would retain the present independent board, while the minority would make no distinction between this and other branches of legislation, but, if a school board is established, would have it purely the creation of the Council, responsible to it, and under its control. It is intimated that this is the one subject upon which the majority and minority differed so radically as to necessitate two reports. The arguments of the minority upon this point are certainly very strong, and it appears as if, under the present system of school superintendents, all general regulation of the schools, under the authority of the State Legislature, and superior to that of the Superintendent, might well be left to the Council itself. But the minority do not propose to leave it in this simple form. They institute a school board, yet would have it responsible to the Council instead of independent of it. Of this we can see no need. If the schools are not to be left under entirely independent control, we can see no advantage in having two authorities below the Council. Properly-constituted committees seem to us better than inferior boards. The Council exercises all legislative authority, the Superintendent all direct administrative authority; what room is left for a board?

A valuable innovation is proposed by the minority report, in adopting Mr. Bradford's plan of allowing direct intercourse between the executive and legislative branches. Heads of departments are allowed to appear on the floor of the Council in order to give information, and even to take part in the discussion upon questions affecting their own departments. Both reports introduce the principle of civil-service reform, by making the tenure of certain offices dependent only upon good behavior; but the minority report extends the principle to "the treasurer, the clerk, the auditor, the assessors, and all the school-teachers." The last will probably meet with considerable opposition, as the custom of annually electing the teachers is almost universal in this country. Taken in connection with the abolition of the school committee, it amounts to an almost complete revolution in the system of school administration. The City Council exercising general legislative authority over the schools as well as other municipal affairs; a School Board wholly responsible to the Council; a Superintendent, appointed for good behavior, with the entire management of the schools under the general legislation of the Council; and a corps of teachers appointed also for good behavior—this would be a very radical change. All we need say now is that it requires and promotes the existence of a body of thoroughly-trained professional teachers, such as at present we hardly possess anywhere; and, moreover, it must be understood that appointments would at first be made on probation, and the permanent tenure contemplated by the plan earned by satisfactory work for a certain period of time.

We have passed over a number of recommendations of each report which would be very well worth considering, but those we have already touched upon seem the most important. A single large body, such as the minority propose, elected in such a way as to represent fairly all elements and large interests in the community—on the principle of personal representation, if possible—with public sessions, and possessing all the legislative power which is conferred upon the city, and a Mayor invested with large and substantial executive authority—these make a sound basis of a city government. If then, in the different departments of action, single commissioners or superintendents are appointed, in order to exercise well-defined and responsible administrative powers, it seems to us that the responsibility would be made most real and effective by placing each department under the supervision of a well-selected committee of the Council itself.

THE PRESERVATION OF NIAGARA.

NIAGARA FALLS, N. Y., Aug. 22.

THAT part of the doctrine of the relativity of human knowledge which appeals most forcibly to the ordinary mind is the fact that things are never seen in such a clear light as when they are contrasted. In New York, hotel-bills and hack-fares are exorbitant, innumerable peddlers accost you, a handbill is forced upon you every few minutes, and yet it is not customary to speak of the impositions and impertinences of New York. Is not this because one has not been trained to expect anything else? There is no such thing as an ideal New York, no permanent artistic background which one would keep unobstructed. On the other hand, the homage of the world has thrown a halo round Niagara for those who have not seen it, and Niagara has left its own impress upon every thoughtful person who has seen it. Every unpleasant feature is therefore brought into bold relief. "Where the carcass is, there also will the eagles be gathered together." A continuous stream of open-mouthed travellers has offered rare opportunities to the quick-witted money-makers of all kinds; the contrast between the place and its surroundings, perceived at first by the few, has been for years trumpeted throughout the country by the numbers of correspondents who write periodical accounts of the season; and to-day every sane adult citizen may be said to know two things about Niagara: first, that there is a great waterfall there, and second, that a man's pockets will be emptied more quickly there than anywhere else in the Union.

The first impression of the traveller arriving at Niagara is profound astonishment that so many distinct and separate sights with corresponding fees can have been found in any one place. A list of them is interesting; to many readers of the *Nation* it will doubtless seem like a half-forgotten *Via Mala*. They are as follows—or rather, so far as discovered up to the time of writing, they are as follows:

Goat Island, admission	$0 50	
Cave of the Winds	1 00	
		$1 50
Prospect Park, admission	$0 25	
"Art Gallery"	25	
Inclined Railway	25	
Ferry to Canada	25	
Shadow of the Rock	1 00	
		$2 00
To go behind Horse-Shoe Fall		1 00
Museum		50
Burning Spring		50
Lundy's Lane battle-ground		50
Whirlpool Rapids		50
Whirlpool		50
Suspension Bridge		25
Railway Suspension Bridge		25
		$7 50

Besides these fees there are, for the lovers of old English customs, two toll-gates on the Canada side. $1 50 an hour is the legal rate of hack hire. From the above list the Horse-Shoe Fall and the Museum may be omitted; all the other places are well worth seeing—the Burning Spring solely because of the beautiful drive. And it may be added that without paying these fees there is nothing to be seen.

So much for preliminary information; now for the conclusion. Niagara is being destroyed. This broad statement is true in two senses. First, Niagara is being destroyed as a summer resort. It has long since ceased to be a place where people stay for a week or more, and it is now being given up to second-class tourists, and excursionists who are brought by the car-load. The constant fees, the solicitations of the hackmen, the impertinences of the store-keepers, have actually been so potent that it is a rare thing to find any of the best people here. The hotels are not to blame: the Cataract House, for instance, is a quiet, comfortable hotel, excellently managed, and in the hands of gentlemanly proprietors, and it is probably by no means alone in this respect. The hotel-keepers are aware of the state of things; they do not encourage the excursion traffic. Some even seek to avoid the patronage of the excursionists. From all over the country—from places as far as Louisville—the railway companies bring these people by thousands; they pour out of the station in a stream half a mile long. Of course, like locusts, they sweep everything before them. Several places—Prospect Park, for instance—cater to the tastes of this class alone. Several evenings in the week Prospect Park is filled with a crowd of free-and-easy men and women, selling their own tea and coffee and provisions, and enjoying a rollicking dance in the Pavilion. And all this within fifty yards of the American Fall! For their entertainment there is an illuminated spray fountain, and their appreciation knows no bounds when various colored lights are thrown upon the Falls. Then a crowd of fifty swoops down upon one of the hotels—men, women, and children—all in brown-linen dusters; all hot, hungry, and careless. These people must not be deprived of their recreation. Heaven forbid! None have a greater right than they to the influences of Niagara. But this way of visiting the place is all wrong; they derive little benefit, and they do infinite harm.

In the second sense, the destruction of Niagara is making rapid strides in a far more dangerous direction. The natural attractions of the place are being undermined. On the American side the bank of the river above the Falls is covered for a quarter of a mile with structures of all kinds, from the extensive parlors and piazzas of the Cataract House to the little shanty where the Indian goods of Irish manufacture are sold. For the purposes of securing bath-rooms and water-power, dams of all kinds have been built; these are wooden trenches filled with rough paving-stones. Some of the structures project over the Rapids, being supported by piles. The spaces between the various buildings are used to store lumber, and as dust-heaps. One of them contains a great heap of sawdust, another a pile of scrap-iron. The banks and fences bear invitations to purchase Parker's hair balsam and ginger tonic. The proprietor of Prospect Park has made a laudable attempt to plant trees upon his land; these extend for a few yards above the Falls. In return, however, he has erected colored arbors and a station for his electric light, which are almost as unpleasant as the other buildings. Just below the Suspension Bridge the gas-works discharge their tar down the bank into the river; a few yards further on there are five or six large manufactories whose tail-races empty themselves over the cliff. The spectator on Goat Island, on the Suspension Bridge, or on the Canada side sees this mass of incongruous and ugly structures extending along the whole course of the Rapids and to the brink of the Fall. Of course, under these circum-

stances the Rapids are degraded into a mill-race, and the Fall itself seems to be lacking a water-wheel.

One half of Bath Island—which lies between Goat Island and the shore—is filled with the ruins of a large paper-mill which was burned last winter. It is now being rebuilt and greatly enlarged. Masses of charred timbers, old iron, calcined stones and bricks, two or three great rusty boilers, the dirty heaps surmounted by a tall chimney—such are the surroundings of a spot which, for grandeur and romantic beauty, is not equalled in the world. A short distance below Bath Island lies Bird Island, a mere clump of trees in the midst of the rushing water, a mass of dark-green foliage overhanging its banks and trailing its branches carelessly in the foam. This little spot has been untrodden by man; the most fearless savage would not risk his birch-bark boat in these waters. But what those who profit by it call the rapid strides of commercial industry, or possibly the development of our national resources, will soon destroy this little piece of Nature; already the owners of the paper-mill have built their dam within twenty yards of it, extending through the waters like the limb of some horrid spider, slowly but surely reaching its prey. Let the connection be made, and a couple of men with axes be turned loose in this little green island, and before long the rattle of a donkey-engine or the howl of a saw-mill will swell the chorus of this *soi-disant* civilization.

This incident is a fair specimen of what will soon take place on a large scale. The following sentence is taken from a paper on "Niagara as a Water-Power," presented at the recent Bankers' Convention: "Hence it is that we are soon to see a development of this peculiar power at Niagara, which will stand unrivalled among motors of its class in the world." Already people talk of the storage of electricity, and quote the opinions of scientists about the possibilities of the future. A few days ago a prominent gentleman reminded your correspondent that Sir William Thomson had said that it would be perfectly feasible to light London with electricity generated at Niagara. There is no assurance that Goat Island may not be sold at any moment for the erection of a mill or factory. Indeed, if a rapid development of the mechanical application of electricity should take place—no extravagant supposition—thus enabling speculators to offer very high prices for the immense power that could be controlled from Goat Island, it is almost certain that such a sale would result. And with its accomplishment would disappear the last chance of saving Niagara.

This state of present degradation and future destruction has not existed without calling forth some efforts to remedy it. By the labors of several distinguished men—principally of Mr. Frederick Law Olmsted—a bill was passed in the Legislature of New York instructing the Commissioners of the State Survey to prepare a report on the condition and prospects of Niagara. This report was prepared by Mr. James T. Gardner, the Director of the New York State Survey, and Mr. Olmsted. It protests strongly against such waste and degradation of the scenery as have been described; sets forth the dangers of ultimate destruction, and makes an eloquent appeal in favor of State action to preserve this natural treasure. The report strongly urges the establishment of an "international park," and gives details of its construction, with maps and views. It is proposed that a strip of land a mile long and varying from 100 feet to 800 feet broad, together with the buildings on it, should be condemned by the State, appraised by a Commission, and purchased. Much of this land is already public property in the form of streets. Besides this, the erections on Bath Island and in the Rapids are to be swept away. All buildings are to be removed from the land thus acquired by the State; along the edge of the river, trees are to be planted of a kind and arrangement to resemble the natural growth upon the opposite shore; roads and footpaths are to be appropriately laid out. In addition, the State is to acquire the right to plant and preserve a row of trees along the bank beyond the park reservation, and to restore the growth of shrubs and trees on the slopes from the top of the cliffs to the water's edge. The permanent moisture of the atmosphere renders the growth of vegetation very rapid and luxuriant. If this plan were carried out, the village would be hidden from view, and the great cataract with its surroundings would be restored in some degree to that beauty which struck with awe the first white man who stood upon its banks, and which had drawn forth the worship of the savages for ages before.

Like all propositions which are made to-day, this one will be met first of all with the question, Is the game worth the candle? Is it worth while to spend a million dollars—to take twenty-five cents out of the pocket of each taxpayer in the State of New York—in order to destroy a lot of good buildings and plant trees in place of them? and, moreover, to do this for the sake of a few persons whose nerves are so delicate that the sight of a tremendous body of water rushing over a precipice is spoilt for them by a pulp-mill standing on the bank? This is the common question, and no intimate acquaintance with American society is needed to know that many will be found to answer it promptly in the negative. What else is to be expected when it is stated on very good authority that Governor Cornell himself, after listening to a description of the present surroundings of the Falls, remarked: "Well, the water goes over just the same, doesn't it?"

What marvels of beauty and grandeur are yet to be discovered in the interior of Africa, no one knows; it is safe to say that the civilized world does not contain another spot so impressive as Niagara. A mistake constantly made by those who have but a superficial acquaintance with it is to suppose that the only attraction, or at least by far the greatest, is the cataract itself. It would be difficult to fall into a greater error. Let the visitor sit for an hour on the extreme end of Goat Island, watching the Rapids sweep by him on either side, now shooting silently past, now roaring hoarsely as some great boulder stops them. Let him walk home through the quiet woods of Goat Island. On the morrow let him stand and watch the Whirlpool Rapids, and see how all the water of Niagara tears its way through a rocky chasm a few yards wide, in its struggle rising ten or fifteen feet higher in the middle than at the sides. He is sure to leave the spot with a curious feeling of healthful fear. Then let him stroll down to the whirlpool and seat himself by its edge. In a half-circle behind him towers the cliff in its fantastic outlines, with its dense growth of foliage; in front of him, the river winding down between those wonderful banks, the green of the water being at last indistinguishable from the green of the trees; to his right, the chasm and the fearful Rapids; at his feet, the whirlpool, carrying its prey for ever round and round. Nowhere else is there a scene so wonderfully varied, and yet it leaves one distinct impression: that of rest, of rest after anxiety, of sleep after struggle. And if as he sits watching, the heavy shadows of the cliff come one by one and fall on the eddying waters, it will seem to him as though some strange peace came and cast its shadows over the uneasy places of his soul. Then, when next he stands before the waterfall, he will realize that it is but a part of the great Niagara.

One brilliant moonlight night, about two o'clock in the morning, I succeeded in climbing over the gate which leads to Goat Island without disturbing the watchman. I might tell of the walk through the woods or the view of the American Fall; but time limits me to one incident. On the brink of the Horse-shoe Fall lies a great stone, around which the waters dash, and which they seem to be trying to push over the edge. On this stone I stretched myself, and, tired from a day's walk and soothed by the noise of the waterfall, I fell asleep. When I woke, all feelings of alarm at my dangerous resting-place were lost in wonder at the scene before me. In the moonlight the Rapids were like flowing silver; each jet of spray sparkled as it rose, and the whole ocean seemed to be hurrying to pour itself into the misty gulf; and, most beautiful of all, the famous lunar bow stretched in a perfect arch from side to side. Anything so strange and so delicate I have never seen; all the weird beauty of the moonlight seemed concentrated in that one circle. In the stillness of the night every sound was magnified. Overhead the endless stars, the awful cataract underneath—no one can live long in such a scene and remain an unchanged man. In Matthew Arnold's verse the sentiment of the place is well expressed:

> "'Ah! once more,' I cried, 'ye stars, ye waters,
> On my heart your mighty charm renew;
> Still, still let me, as I gaze upon you,
> Feel my soul becoming vast like you.'"

This is the place we are asked to preserve. Surely no one to whom beauty is worth more than pulp and paper, and character of more importance than stored electricity, can ask if it be worth while. A million dollars—a few cents from each taxpayer—is all that is needed. With the influence of the word of every man who cares, the bill will pass the Legislature. It needs not much insight to prophesy that the tastes and preferences of future generations will be different from those of the present one; if we have received aught from our fathers, we owe it as a debt to our children; if we have any interest in the welfare of the human race, we are under obligations. Let us act so that it may not be said of us in years to come that we were either too ignorant or too careless to preserve the most beautiful thing that nature gave to our country.

THE LAST STAGE OF THE LAND BILL.

LONDON, August 17, 1881.

WHEN the Irish Land Bill, after having been debated in committee from the last weeks of May till the beginning of August, finally passed its third reading and went up to the House of Lords, it was pretty generally understood that the Lords would not reject it altogether. Of course they disliked it; there were not a dozen among them all who could have believed a year before that such a measure would ever be submitted to them by a Government. If the Tory leader had told his followers to reject it, they would have done so, and that by a large majority, for the peers, or at least the Conservative peers, are singularly obedient to their chiefs, not only because they are united by strong bonds of interest, but also because comparatively few of them attend the sittings of the House, or trouble themselves to exercise their own judgment on political affairs. They are country gentlemen, or capitalists, or men of pleasure, and are contented to follow wherever the standard of the party is carried. But the Tory leaders did not venture on so bold a course, much as they would have liked it. Not only were they unwilling to declare war on the House of Commons in such an open way as the rejection of the bill would have implied, but they felt the seriousness of the crisis in

Ireland, and did not see, as no one else saw, how it could be met without some kind of legislation. The Executive Government having declared that, unless the island were to be placed under martial law, some large concessions must be made to the claims of the tenants, they would have been obliged, if they refused these concessions, to point out how else Ireland could be governed, and, if Mr. Gladstone resigned office, to attempt to govern her themselves. As this was out of the question, they could only accept the principle of the bill, and give it a second reading, which they did after only two nights of debate. Then came the tug of war. Amendments were carried in committee which drew the teeth of the bill completely. Provision after provision, which had been framed in the tenant's interest, was struck out; provision after provision inserted to strengthen the position of the landlord. The Ministry were placed at a great disadvantage, not only because their best debater, Lord Granville, was absent through illness, not only because they received on the flank the fire of two Liberals who had quitted the Government owing to its land policy—the Duke of Argyll and the Marquis of Landsdowne, the former of whom is the most powerful speaker in the Upper Chamber—but also because the advocates of the bill did not venture to defend it on its true principles. Those principles, broadly stated, would have offended the feelings of the Lords so greatly that it became necessary to suppress them, and to rely on grounds that were felt to be superficial. Thus the Opposition had, or seemed to have, the superiority in argument as well as in numbers, and were thereby encouraged to maul and maim the bill in its most essential points. Considerable disquietude was produced in the country when these mutilations became known, since no one expected Mr. Gladstone or the House of Commons to put up with them. But it was thought that the Lords were only indulging their feelings, and would ultimately yield. When their amendments came to be considered by the House of Commons, all the important ones were disagreed with, just a few of the minor changes being agreed to at the instance of the Government, in order to respect the *amour propre* of the peers, or in some cases because their criticisms had improved the measure in point of form. However, even as to these minor changes, a strong feeling of antagonism to the Lords was shown by the more advanced section of the Liberals, some fifty or sixty of whom voted pretty steadily with Mr. Parnell against the Government whenever the latter proposed to concede anything to the Upper Chamber.

Thus restored to its original character, the bill went a second time up or rather across the great central hall and gallery which divides the two Houses. Curiosity was keen; excitement was just beginning to appear. The action of the Lords soon quickened it. In the course of a single evening they disagreed with nearly all the more important of the Commons' amendments to their own amendments, so bringing the measure back to the shape in which they had previously sent it down. The work was done by Lord Salisbury, who, as you know, leads the Tory party; the Duke of Argyll, and other Whig malcontents having now drawn themselves out of the fray. It was done by majorities that were still large, for the Tories have a vast preponderance of strength in the Upper House, and it was done with a smartness and an air of unconcern which sometimes bordered on contempt. When about midnight the operation was despatched, in the presence of a great crowd of members of the House of Commons who had gathered at the bar and in the galleries to witness it, a mingled feeling of astonishment, alarm, anger, spread through the building. Anxious groups formed in the lobbies; the men who haunt them were in preternatural activity; every one talked of "the crisis." Had the bill then or even next morning come before the House of Commons, there would probably have been an explosion of wrath. But Mr. Gladstone, with great judgment, moved that the Lords' amendments, which were to have been considered on the Saturday forenoon, should not be taken up till Monday, and thus gave passion two days to cool down. Next morning, however, things looked no better. Our newspapers, not merely by their comments, but by reporting the sentiments of people all over the country, tend to intensify the excitement of those who are at the centre, and make them feel that the pulse of the nation is beating hourly faster. All that Saturday wild rumors were flying about the political quarter of London. Some sage old observers refused to believe that things would come to a deadlock. They argued that, in all similar crises before, a way out had been found; that it was not the interest of the Lords to fight on this particular ground; that the conduct of the Tory leaders in the House of Commons had never betokened a resolute resistance; that Lord Salisbury, with all his vehemence and reckless airs, was not really a firm or resolute person who would stand to his guns under fire. But the majority, excited by the situation, and pointing to the very strong and decided language which the Tory chiefs had held in the House of Lords on Friday night, were fully persuaded that the weak point of our Constitution had been disclosed, and that nothing remained but an appeal to the people to say whether or no the will of the Commons should prevail.

The question then came to be how this appeal should be made. Mr. Gladstone might dissolve Parliament, and force the Lords to yield to the vote of a new assembly. But it was felt that not only would this be an injury inflicted on his own supporters, but it would increase the difficulties of governing Ireland in the meantime. Or he might resign, and throw the responsibility of settling the question on the adversaries who had forbidden him to settle it. As this would have been practically an invitation for them to dissolve, since they could not have held office against a hostile majority, it was a no less improbable course. Or, thirdly, Parliament might be called together in October, the bill passed afresh, and the Lords challenged once more to take the responsibility of rejecting it. Finally, since such a prorogation, with a new autumn session, would involve passing the bill afresh through all its stages, and exposing it thereby to the dangers of obstruction, Parliament might be merely adjourned for a few weeks, in which case the bill could be taken up just where it had been left, the Lords' amendments disagreed with, and the opportunity given to them of considering whether, after those weeks of meditation, they would still hold to their objections. By neither of these two latter courses would any formal appeal to the country have been made; but it was obvious enough that the interval of time, whether counted by weeks or by months, would be spent in popular agitation, in holding mass meetings all over the United Kingdom, denouncing the action of the Lords, and calling on them to submit to the representative House. As the agitation would have become in substance an agitation against the House of Lords rather than in favor of the Land Bill (which, indeed, it would have been hard to explain to an average English elector), the prospect of it was very attractive to the more ardent spirits among the Liberals, who openly thanked God that the Lords had been delivered into their hands, and talked of nothing less than an immediate reform, if not an extinction, of that chamber. While these things were being discussed in Westminster, the party managers all over the country were at work. Meetings of Liberal associations were convoked in the large towns, resolutions passed denouncing the conduct of the Lords and calling on Mr. Gladstone to be firm. In three or four days more we should have been in the full stream of agitation.

Sunday wore away in the same excited disquietude, but on Monday it was felt that the wind had changed. What precisely had happened, or whether anything definite had happened, could not be made out, though of course there were plenty of quidnuncs, each with his story of conferences between Mr. Gladstone and some emissary from the Tory chiefs. But it was known that peace was at hand, and all the members who had countermanded preparations for going to Scotland or Switzerland took heart again, and telegraphed to their wives or friends. When the House of Commons met, everybody was cheerful, not so much at the prospect of preventing a strain to the British Constitution as of getting away after an unusually long and laborious session—everybody except Mr. Parnell and his friends. To them the collision of the Houses had been an unlooked-for piece of good fortune. It promised to delay, perhaps to prevent altogether, the passing of what they regard as an unsatisfactory bill; it would strengthen their hands in agitating against the interference of England in Irish affairs, and would show that government by an Irish Parliament, with no English land-owners putting their veto on what Ireland demanded, was the only possible solution. However, it was soon clear that they must submit to the inevitable. Mr. Gladstone, who through all the stages of the bill has shown singular tact and self-command, showed, by the quiet way in which he moved that the Lords' amendments be considered, that he did not apprehend and was anxious to prevent any contest. He treated the occasion as a perfectly ordinary one, and so calmed down men's minds that the debate, except for an occasional outbreak from Mr. Parnell's followers, was one of the least exciting of the session.

You know the sequel: how the Lords next day, after an hour's debate, accepted the Commons' amendments, and how the bill passed accordingly, with no further trouble. The crisis, however, has not been without its permanent importance, and it is for this reason that I have supposed your readers likely to desire a sketch of its progress. It has brought before the minds of our people, more forcibly and more clearly than any other event since the passing of the Reform Bill of 1832, the possibility under our Constitution of an absolute deadlock, when neither House will yield to the other, and great mischiefs may ensue before a compromise can be effected. And it has brought into strong relief the character which the House of Lords has now assumed of a chamber of land-owners, whom one must expect to be influenced by what they conceive to be land-owning interests. While the House of Lords contained a nearly equal number of Whigs and Tories, party feeling prevented class feeling from becoming supreme. But now, when the Whigs are hardly one-fourth of the whole number, and when even Whig peers, like the Argylls and Lansdownes and Sutherlands, are found obeying class sentiment rather than party sentiment, men are driven to ask what are the grounds on which the present composition and powers of the Upper House rest, and whether collisions such as that from which we have just escaped, are not more and more likely to recur. Philosophical politicians have of course been pointing this out for

many years past. But our people do not listen to theoretical arguments: an evil must actually arise and make itself felt before they will trouble themselves to remove it. No ministry, no body of experienced men, would undertake the task of reforming the House of Lords unless forced to it by some practical need or some strong popular cry, for, in a delicately balanced old machine like our Constitution, you can never be sure that in changing any one part you are not disturbing the working of the whole. And no popular cry will arise unless the House of Lords provoke it by obstructing the passage of something which the mass of the nation desires. They have now given a considerable handle to their enemies, and it is far from improbable that we shall hear for months to come a good deal more argument and abuse directed against them than could otherwise have found a hearing. Most reforms have with us to go through the stage of being considered as questions, subjects to be talked about, for years, perhaps a good many years, before any practical solution is proposed by a responsible statesman. It seems as if the reorganization of the House of Lords might be now entering that stage. How long it will stay there nobody can guess. But the crisis showed one thing plainly, that the House of Lords has no very strong hold on the affections even of the Conservative party. While the crisis lasted, no newspaper of any weight in the country urged the Lords to resistance, or promised them popular support. The best Tory journals either counselled compromise or preserved a discreet silence, feeling that the cry of "Lords against Commons" would be a bad cry to go to the country with, a cry which Tories would resent almost as much as Liberals. This sense of weakness was increased by the feeling that the Lords had not chosen a good battle-field, since their conduct could easily be represented as being dictated by selfish motives, not by patriotism, and that Lord Salisbury, who led them, was neither fighting nor yielding with dignity. In hacking the bill to pieces, he was thought to have shown too much insolence in professing to accept a compromise when he was really laying down his arms upon hardly any conditions extorted from the victor. Many said that he was making his House appear ridiculous, and that it would have been better to say frankly that as his counsels were rejected, he must yield to the will of the Commons, and throw upon them the responsibility of a measure which he utterly condemned.

It need hardly be added that the Lords' surrender was very largely due to those Irish influences which have all along embarrassed the Conservative opposition. The Conservative party in Ulster would have been ruined if the bill had been defeated. The Conservative landlords in the other three provinces of Ireland, who have received but little rent for the last two years, would have lain out of their money for months to come, and perhaps ultimately lost nearly the whole of it. Their instances pressed upon Lord Salisbury even more than did the fear of exciting an agitation against the privileges of his House. Y.

Correspondence.

THE SEXUAL THEORY OF GAMES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Perhaps a few thoughts suggested by your article on "The Development of Games" would be of interest.

"If we could imagine the world carried on by women alone, one of the first results of the extinction of man would unquestionably be the disappearance from it of almost all the games and sports which now constitute so large a part of its serious work."

I would add that another result of the condition imagined by the writer would be the disuse of stimulants, and I believe this to be a more general statement, including the former. Games are stimulants; and while a woman sometimes enjoys a game as she occasionally takes a glass of wine, yet the fact remains that for the great majority the stimulant is unnecessary—that is, uncraved. Therefore, their "self-sacrifice" in resisting the "longing to take part in the sports which they usually spoil" seems to me less "touching" than to the writer.

Men have few resources of pleasure within themselves. Take for instance their enjoyment of nature. Long before science corroborated the fact, women have known that the majority of men have no fine perception of color. The "blue violet" of the poets is one evidence of this. If we consider the sky blue, the violet is not only not blue, but a color which does not harmonize with blue. The "blue violet" is therefore an *untruth* and a *discord*. George Eliot compares Rosamond's eyes filled with tears to "*forget-me-nots* under water." The resemblance is perfect, and for a fair blonde like Rosamond the forget-me-not is, so far as I know, the only flower with which her eyes could be compared. Imagine the man who mixes his greens and browns trying to "enthuse" over a landscape! Who could blame him if he soon wearied of it?

I believe men to be equally obtuse with regard to *forms*, and I would propose as a test a fern. It is impossible to say what is the most beautiful thing in nature, but I believe many women will agree with me that for delicacy of form nothing exceeds a fern. How seldom does a boy notice a fern without having his attention called to it. The girl never needs to be told that it is beautiful, and she who knows by experience the wonder and joy that a fern can bring to a little girl's heart, would never wish to exchange such memories for those of the boy's successful game of ball.

Men love nature—that is, they love to be in the open air; they love to feel themselves moving; but nature alone cannot satisfy them because its finer vibrations find no corresponding chord in their natures. They must have something to make them forget themselves—that is, a *stimulant*—a game to be won, a mountain to be climbed, a hunt perhaps after some wild animal—for alas! this too is included under the term "sport." Humane societies justify this kind of "sport," and the anti-vivisection agitators pass it over in silence, though I believe that there are few operations performed on living animals in the interest of science which for unmitigated cruelty can be compared to that of hunting an animal to death.

There is much talk at present of educating boys in the perception of color, in order to fit them better for certain practical duties. It seems to me that there are other reasons for it. The highest aim in education is to increase the child's resources for happiness, and in proportion as this is accomplished his desire for stimulants will decrease. Let us, then, hope that a time will come when the salutation, "It is a fine day; let us go out and *kill something*," will no longer be heard among gentlemen. C. D. M.

[We are afraid that some of the criticisms made by "C. D. M." on men are open to objections. If men have few resources of pleasure within themselves, why is it that they always manage to have a good time together, while women themselves admit that a similar meeting of their own sex is apt to be somewhat stupid? We were not aware that science had shown that the majority of men have no fine perception of color. What science has shown is that a larger percentage of men than of women are color-blind; but the number is only four per cent. No proof is offered that it was a man who first called a violet blue, and besides, such false nomenclature may be due to a confused use of adjectives and not to a defective perception of color. As to form, it may be true that the young male athlete *par excellence* does not care so much for ferns as the average girl; but all young men are not athletes *par excellence*. The vast majority of the great painters, sculptors, and architects of the world are male, and they, it may perhaps be asserted, have shown a delicacy of perception of which not even a woman need be ashamed. And, to crown the whole, there can be no question that the most beautiful thing in the world, so far as form is concerned, is not a fern—a "maiden-hair"—but a maiden herself. Schopenhauer, indeed, says that men are more beautiful than women; but few men would agree with him, and certainly not women until they tire of hearing themselves alluded to as the fair sex. But now, to whom do women owe their superior beauty? To no one else than man. He has in the course of thousands of years continually selected the most beautiful women for marriage, until the law of the survival of the fittest has given woman the superior beauty she now has. Had women shown the same discrimination as men, the latter would not now be so inferior to them in beauty. And as among all the lower animals it is the male, and not the female, that is the most beautiful, it would seem that among them the females have a better perception of beauty of form than among human beings.—Ed. Nation.]

A GERMAN UNIVERSITY IN AMERICA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In No. 842 of the *Nation* there is a "note" on the latest of the letters of Bodenstedt, in which he urges the realization of Auerbach's plan of a German university in America. Now, I would suggest a modification of the plan which will make its execution practicable.

The sad condition of things complained of by Bodenstedt is not overstated. It is true that the influence of German science, as exercised by its living representatives in this country, is almost naught, and that nowhere has any considerable intellectual growth resulted from the influx of Germans into native society. These are bitter truths for us Germans in America to consider! But I must go one step further still towards stating the whole truth in this matter, before we can say what the remedy ought to be. Another very gloomy fact is the decadence of the German book trade in this country; not as regards quantity, perhaps, but certainly as to quality. Every German bookseller will bear me out in this statement, and will add that what people read nowadays is chiefly the illustrated periodicals, such as the *Gartenlaube*, *Ueber Land und Meer*, etc., and very little else. I might name still other significant facts, all pointing to the same truth, that German culture in this country is declining. But enough!

If we had to-day a German university in this country, fully equipped with the best professors, library, etc., we should still want the most necessary of all things for the purpose; viz., the students. A university proper admits, or ought to admit, no students except such as have passed the examination of "maturity" required in Germany of all (except foreigners) who would enter

upon a regular course of study in one of the three "upper" faculties. Now, where should we find the young men so thoroughly versed in the ancient languages, and so well acquainted with at least three modern languages and with history, etc.? Every one who knows what difficulties our better colleges experience in getting students properly prepared, can foresee the consequences.

On the other hand, an institution which should lay the *foundation* of thorough German culture would now be in its proper place in any one of our large cities. A true German gymnasium might now exist in each of at least six of our large cities, and might prosper. The all-important condition, however, under which prosperity alone would be possible is this, that the idea must never be entertained that a gymnasium could be made self-sustaining. The tuition ought to be a mere trifle, almost a nominal sum, and if the crowd of scholars should then become too great, it might easily be reduced by more rigorous examinations. There ought to be a fund large enough to pay the salaries of the teachers—such fund, of course, to be raised among those of our wealthy Germans who take an interest in this important matter. The dangerous idea also ought to be carefully avoided which has baffled the noble intentions of many founders of institutions of learning in this country—the idea, namely, that first of all there ought to be *grounds* and *buildings*. It is a much cheaper and by far more expeditious method to *rent* the buildings. The whole yearly cost of a gymnasium of six classes, with six teachers of the highest order, need not exceed fifteen to twenty thousand dollars.

If we had in each of our large cities a German gymnasium, we should soon perceive a revival of letters among us and an increased appreciation of the treasures of German science and art. Soon a generation of young men would arise fully prepared to become students of a German university worthy of that proud name.

W. S.

St. Louis, Mo., August 24, 1881.

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. make the important announcement that they will undertake a series of volumes entitled "American Men of Letters," and another entitled "American Statesmen," to be begun during the coming season. The former will be under the editorial charge of Mr. Charles Dudley Warner; the latter, of Mr. John T. Morse, jr. The list, as far as made up, embraces Irving, by Mr. Warner; Noah Webster, by Horace E. Scudder; Hawthorne, by Prof. Lowell; Willis, by T. B. Aldrich; Thoreau, by F. B. Sanborn; Cooper, by Prof. Lounsbury; Simms, by G. W. Cable; Hamilton, by H. C. Lodge; J. Q. Adams, by Mr. Morse; Randolph, by Henry Adams; Madison, by S. H. Gay; Monroe, by President Gilman; Calhoun, by Dr. Von Holst; Jackson, by Prof. Sumner; Clay, by Carl Schurz; Gallatin, by John Austin Stevens; Patrick Henry, by Prof. Tyler; and Franklin, by T. W. Higginson. Each biography will occupy but a single volume, 16mo.——D. Appleton & Co.'s fall announcements include volume second of Bolles's 'Financial History of the United States,' 1789–1860; 'History of the Formation of the U. S. Constitution,' 1783–1789, by George Bancroft, in two volumes, 8vo; 'The Elements of Economics,' by Henry Dunning Macleod, in two volumes; 'Ralph Waldo Emerson, Poet and Philosopher,' by A. H. Guernsey; 'Selections from Arguments, Addresses, and Miscellaneous Papers of David Dudley Field,' edited by A. P. Sprague; 'Homes and Haunts of Our Elder Poets,' by R. H. Stoddard, F. B. Sanborn, and H. N. Powers, illustrated with portraits and otherwise; 'Florida, for Tourists, Invalids, and Settlers,' by Geo. M. Barbour; 'In the Brush; or, Old-time Social, Political, and Religious Life in the Southwest,' by Hamilton W. Pierson, D.D., ex-President of Cumberland College, Ky.; 'Clearance and Entrance of Vessels in the United States of America,' by Richard Wynkoop, of the N. Y. Custom-house; 'The Wit and Wisdom of Benj. Disraeli, Earl of Beaconsfield'; 'The Ancient Bronze Implements, Weapons, and Ornaments of Great Britain and Ireland,' by John Evans; 'Volcanoes,' by Prof. J. W. Judd; 'The Sun,' by Prof. C. M. Young; 'A World of Wonders: Marvels in Animate and Inanimate Nature,' illustrated; 'Essays on the Floating Matter of the Air, in relation to Putrefaction and Infection,' by Prof. John Tyndall; 'The Verbalist,' by Alfred Ayres; 'Wild Work,' a novel, by Mary E. Bryan; 'The Bloody Chasm,' by J. W. De Forest; Cherbuliez's 'Saints and Sinners' ('Noirs et Rouges'); 'Half-Hours with Greek and Latin Authors,' from various English translations; 'The Poems of Vergil,' with a complete dictionary, and notes, by Prof. Henry S. Frieze, of the University of Michigan; and an 'Historical Reader,' by Prof. H. E. Shepherd.——Harper & Bros. will have ready in November 'Harper's Cyclopædia of United States History,' by Benson J. Lossing, in two volumes, profusely illustrated.——Geo. H. Ellis, Boston, will shortly publish 'Ecce Spiritus'; 'A Study of the Pentateuch,' by R. P. Stebbins, D.D.; and 'Man's Origin and Destiny,' by Prof. J. P. Lesley.——'Shakspere for the Young Folk,' by Prof. R. R. Raymond, announced by Fords, Howard & Hulbert for publication during the present month, will consist of three typical plays made over into tales.

—The *Publishers' Weekly* engages to perform the great service of giving a monthly or quarterly record of books, pamphlets, etc., published by the Government, and will as far as possible announce their forthcoming.——The publishers of *Wide-Awake* (Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.) have organized a Reading Union for American and English young folks.——The Messrs. Harper have brought out a beautifully clear edition of the Revised Version of the New Testament in large type. The size is octavo.——T. B. Peterson & Bros. put forth a reprint of Gliddon's 'Ancient Egypt,' which, it is safe to say, partakes of the antiquity of its subject.——The current numbers of the Essex Institute *Bulletin* (1–6 of vol. 13) are noticeable chiefly for the memorial meeting in honor of Jones Very, the eminent poet now departed, and for an abstract of a paper by Rev. Geo. F. Wright, touching the question of man's antiquity in the valley of the Delaware. Perhaps we ought to allude to the statement of Prof. E. S. Morse that he has patented a device "for using the sun's rays as a means of heating and ventilation," which he has tested in the hall of the Peabody Academy of Sciences.——Four of the six page-plates in the August *American Art Review* are reproductions of pictures and studies by Mr. Shirlaw, which, with several others in the text, accompany Mr. T. H. Bartlett's concluding article on this painter. The number may almost be called a Shirlaw number, indeed, and the work of the artist is set before the reader satisfactorily as well as copiously. Mr. Davidson also concludes his article on the Monte Cassino frescos, and Prof. Norton contributes a note on an Etruscan unguent jar presented to the Boston Museum of the Fine Arts a few months ago by Mr. W. J. Stillman. There is an etching by Peter Moran and one by Chas. A. Platt.——An admirable nucleus for a much-needed work is to be found in Mr. George C. Mason, jr.'s preliminary report on "Colonial Architecture" in the *American Architect* for August 13 and 20. It is illustrated with spirited pen-drawings after the ample material which Newport supplies.——In *Le Livre* for August M. Léon Degeorge concludes his description of the Plantin Museum at Antwerp, which he rightly declares one of the most curious in the world. Among its bibliographic treasures are the prices-current of the works issued by the Alduses in 1592 and by several other great contemporary printing-houses, and a 'Theatrum typographicum plantinianæ officinæ,' or chronological list of all the works printed by Plantin down to the year 1576. Vastly interesting is the gallery of engravings by the masters of the Antwerp school, exhibiting seven or eight thousand coppers, mostly in a perfect state, ready for reimpression; and the *salle des bois gravés*, containing no less than fifteen thousand woodcuts of every variety, with as many as thirty or forty fancy alphabets, beautifully conceived and executed. In its news column, the same number of *L'Art* reports the discovery by two Lyonnese of a mode of stamping copper type from the cold metal, assuring the greatest durability with a relatively slight enhancement of the cost. A similar invention was shown in Paris in 1849, and actually received a silver medal at the hands of A. Firmin-Didot. But the promise of the machine was not realized.——We read in the *Rassegna Settimanale* that Prof. Ruggero Bonghi will shortly begin the publication of a critico-bibliographical review of the moral sciences, letters, and arts, called *La Cultura*. It will appear fortnightly.——Bodenstedt's Letters are finished, and he announces that he will now devote himself to writing an exhaustive work on America after the model of his 'Tausend und Ein Nacht im Orient.'

—A. Williams & Co., Boston, have made a handsome volume of Dr. Samuel Abbott Green's Centennial Address before the Massachusetts Medical Society at Cambridge last June. The author's well-known antiquarian habit and literary skill assured an interesting production for others besides those supposed to be immediately concerned with the "History of Medicine in Massachusetts." Two-thirds of the address deal with this history prior to 1781, at which date the Society in question was incorporated with a charter signed by Sam. Adams as President of the State Senate, and John Hancock as Governor. The moot point as to the nature of the great plague among the Indians "which made room for the Pilgrims at Plymouth," Dr. Green was inclined to settle in favor of the small-pox rather than of yellow fever; but in his appendix he prints a letter from Dr. J. H. Trumbull, who clearly leans the other way—on the ground that the Indians themselves distinguished the small-pox from the great plague, and that Roger Williams cites their word for the latter, 'he hath the plague,' which literally means 'he is *badly* yellow.' The first unmistakable and historic occurrence of yellow fever in the present United States was in Boston in the year 1693, by importation from the West Indies. On another point of some curiosity, Dr. Green identifies the Boston "eruptive miliary fever with an angina ulcusculosa," of 1735–36, with diphtheria. Massachusetts was the first State to practice inoculation and vaccination, and, if she did not invent ether, introduced the use of it. She was also the first to legalize the study of practical anatomy, in the face of popular prejudice. It was some time before the differentiation of pursuits in the colony drew a line between clergymen and physicians. The name of doctor was slow to be applied to the practitioner. The first recorded instance discovered by Dr. Green is in the Roxbury Church Records

of 1668, where "Doctor Emery" of Salem is referred to. From 1667 to 1730 so large and important a town as Northampton had no physician or surgeon. The barber long retained his surgical functions, his pole, says Dr. Green, being for the patient to grasp in order that the blood might flow more freely, and being painted red in case of staining. White linen swathing-bands encircled it when not in use. Dr. Green remarks that in this country since the war "a blue stripe is frequently added, making the patriotic combination of the 'Red, White, and Blue.'" Those who know Mary Dyer and Anne Hutchinson only for their respective religious enthusiasms and hardships will find here some singular obstetrical details about both. The following extract from a Boston dentist's advertisement just a hundred years ago (Oct. 8, 1781) shows that people were already asking themselves why the teeth were so perishable in America:

"Many people blame the climate, &c. for the loss of Teeth,—But it is too often the case, as I've observ'd in the course of my practice on the Continent, that but few people take care of their Teeth till they become defective. The Europeans are remarkable (particularly the French) for their good and beautiful Teeth, owing to their own care, and knowledge of the art."

Washington's false teeth were made in New York, by John Greenwood, whose father, Isaac Greenwood, was in 1780 an ivory-turner in Boston, and as such held himself ready to manufacture teeth, legs, hands, fifes, German flutes and hautboys, and to repair "umbrilloes."

—In connection with the statistics of the delinquent classes, the Census Office has prepared a tabular statement showing the machinery of justice in each of the States. It is an extremely condensed account of our means of dealing with suspected persons, and has been collated by Mr. F. H. Wines, of Springfield, Ill., with the utmost care from the statutes of the States and critically examined by competent legal authorities. It appears from this statement that there is at least one high court in each State, variously denominated: in most States it is called the Supreme Court, in others the Court of Errors and Appeals, Superior Judicial Court, etc. The number of judges differs widely, and there does not appear to be any sectional uniformity in this respect. In the following States this court has three judges: Alabama, Arkansas, Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Kansas, Minnesota, Mississippi, Nevada, Nebraska, North Carolina, Oregon, and South Carolina; in three States, Michigan, Kentucky, and West Virginia, there are four judges; in Indiana, Iowa, Louisiana, Missouri, Ohio, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Wisconsin, Connecticut, Virginia, and Delaware there are five; in California, Illinois, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, Vermont, Massachusetts, and Maine there are seven, and in Maryland and Texas there are eight. In New Jersey there are a Supreme Court with nine judges and a Court of Errors and Appeals with sixteen. In New York there are also two high courts—a Supreme Court with thirty-four judges and a Court of Appeals with seven. As to mode of appointment and tenure of office, in twenty-eight States they are elected—in Vermont for two years, in Ohio for five, in Georgia, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, Nevada, Oregon, South Carolina, and Texas for six; in Minnesota for seven, in Arkansas, Kentucky, Michigan, North Carolina, and Tennessee for eight; in Colorado for nine; in Missouri and Wisconsin for ten; in California, Virginia, and West Virginia for twelve; in New York for fourteen; Maryland, fifteen; Pennsylvania, twenty-one; and in Rhode Island for life. In the other States they are appointed—in New Hampshire, Delaware, Florida, and Massachusetts for life; in Louisiana for twelve years; in Mississippi for nine; in Connecticut for eight; in Maine for seven; and in New Jersey for six years. One term of the highest court is held annually in each of the States, with the following exceptions: in Connecticut, nine terms are held; in Iowa, eight; Illinois, six; Massachusetts, five; Michigan, Nevada, and Pennsylvania, four; New Jersey, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia, three; and in New York at the discretion of the court.

—The power of the highest court in nearly all cases seems to be to issue remedial writs. In the States of Connecticut, Georgia, Kentucky, and Oregon they have appellate jurisdiction only; in Massachusetts this court tries capital offences; in New Hampshire and New York it has original criminal jurisdiction, and in Rhode Island the same, excepting such offences as are triable before justices of the peace. Appellate jurisdiction depends upon the character and jurisdiction of the Courts of Appeal. In Illinois there are four Courts of Appeal, having twelve judges; in New York, fifty-nine Courts of Sessions; in Ohio, eighty-eight Courts of Common Pleas and forty-six Probate Courts having criminal jurisdiction; in Pennsylvania, sixty-seven Courts of Quarter-Sessions; in Rhode Island, one Court of Common Pleas in each county; in South Carolina, a Court of General Sessions; in New Jersey, a Court of Oyer and Terminer, with a branch in each county. Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Pennsylvania have each a Superior Court, and Delaware, New York, Georgia, and North Carolina have courts of Oyer and Terminer. The next lower courts seem to be those known in different States as Circuit, District, or County Courts. In sixteen States there are Circuit courts, namely: Alabama, Arkansas, Florida Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Maryland, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, New Jersey, Oregon, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia, and Wisconsin. In these the number of courts ranges from five in Oregon to forty-two in Indiana, and there is usually one judge for each court. In ten States—Colorado, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Nebraska, Nevada, Ohio, and Texas—there are district courts, and in nine States, several of which have also circuit or district courts, there are county courts, one in each county. In every State there are justices of the peace, who are mostly elected, and whose tenure of office is limited. Their powers usually cover the trying of petty offences, making preliminary examinations, issuing of search warrants, etc. Besides the above, there are in all the large cities of the country municipal and police courts for trying offences committed within their limits and above the jurisdiction of justices of the peace.

—Of the large number of valuable papers read at the recent session of the International Medical Congress at London, those of Professor Huxley and Professor Virchow were the most interesting; while that read by Professor Pasteur, in French, was doubtless the most original and important. Professor Huxley's discourse was on the connection of medicine with the biological sciences. Beginning with the times of the "oldest hospitals," the temples of Æsculapius, he traces the history of medicine—which he thinks is more complete and fuller than that of any other science, except, perhaps, astronomy—down to our own times, in which "the search for the explanation of diseased states in modified cell-life, the discovery of the important part played by parasitic organisms in the etiology of disease, the elucidation of the action of medicaments by the methods and the data of experimental physiology," appear to him to be the greatest steps which have ever been made towards the establishment of medicine on a scientific basis. Much of this recent progress is due to the intimate relations which now exist between medicine and the biological sciences, whereas Hippocrates and his successors knew very little, indeed practically nothing, of anatomy or physiology. He thinks that, so far as medicine is concerned, physiology, such as it was down to the time of Harvey, might as well not have existed, and that it is hardly an exaggeration to say that, within the memory of living men, justly renowned practitioners of medicine and surgery knew less physiology than is now to be learned from the most elementary text-book. It appears to him that the essence of modern as contrasted with ancient physiological science lies in its antagonism to animistic hypotheses and animistic phraseology. Some interesting remarks are made on Descartes's plan of regenerating mankind by a new and improved medical science which would make men wiser and better and teach them to avoid an infinity of diseases of the mind as well as the body. Throughout the lecture are scattered some of those admirable philosophical generalizations which Professor Huxley knows so well how to express in terse language, and of which one or two may be quoted here: "All true science begins with empiricism, though all true science is such exactly in so far as it strives to pass out of the empirical stage into that of the deduction of empirical from more general truths." "It is a peculiarity of the physical sciences that they are independent in proportion as they are imperfect; and it is only as they advance that the bonds which really unite them all become apparent." Perhaps the most striking thing in the lecture is the reference to the state of pharmacology at the present time as compared with that which existed forty years ago. At the present rate of progress it will sooner or later "become possible to introduce into the economy a molecular mechanism which, like a very cunningly contrived torpedo, shall find its way to some particular group of living elements and cause an explosion among them, leaving the rest untouched."

—Professor Virchow's address in part covers the same ground as Professor Huxley's. That part of it, however, which seems to have caused the most excitement among English journalists is the defence of vivisection for scientific purposes, and the statement that "killing is more than torturing." The *Times* says the true question is not so much whether mankind be in the abstract entitled to submit cats and dogs and rabbits to vivisection, as whether the human sentiment of self-respect and sympathy with pain and suffering have sanctioned or will sanction it. It admits, however, that where philosophers like Mr. Darwin and Dr. Virchow pronounce the practices essential to the advance of medical science, nations will hardly be induced to choose darkness. After Professor Huxley's lecture the following resolution, supported by the physiological section, was read, received with loud cheers, and declared carried without a single dissentient: "That this Congress records its conviction that experiments upon living animals have proved of the utmost service to medicine and are indispensable for its further progress; that, accordingly, while strongly deprecating the infliction of unnecessary pain, it is of opinion that, alike in the interest of man and of animals, it is not desirable to restrict competent persons in the performance of such experiments." This being, therefore, one of those uncommon cases where doctors do not disagree, the sentimental objectors to vivisection would do well to note the fact. The objectors to the practice of vaccination indirectly received in M. Pasteur's address no less a rebuff than did the anti-vivisectionists in Dr. Virchow's. The result of

vaccination, it is well known, is simply to give the person vaccinated a mild and innocuous form of the same disease which, in its more virulent form of small-pox, in a majority of cases proves fatal if the patient has not been previously vaccinated. Now, Professor Pasteur has shown that at least four other infectious diseases, two of which he describes, can be met, like small-pox, by a process similar to vaccination. These two are chicken cholera, and splenic fever or Siberian pest (*Milzbrand*). The vaccine virus which counteracts these diseases can be prepared by a method which "is based simply on the action of the oxygen and the air—that is to say, of a cosmic force existing everywhere on the surface of the globe." As soon as this method became known it was extensively used in France to prevent the splenic affection, a disease which causes the annual loss to France alone of sheep and cattle to the value of twenty million francs. In the course of two weeks some twenty thousand sheep were vaccinated, besides a large number of cattle and horses. Professor Pasteur thinks that we may here be in presence of a general law applicable to all kinds of virus, and in conclusion expresses his satisfaction at being able to announce this great discovery in the native land of Dr. Jenner, the discoverer of the principle of vaccination. The germ theory of diseases, which has already so many supporters among eminent medical authorities, has thus received a new and powerful argument in its favor.

—In the August number of the *Deutsche Rundschau*, Professor Max Müller has an article entitled "Language and Languages," a "call in distress," as he terms it, first sent to a Rumanian journal, where his words fell unheeded. He laments that in these evil times it is not sufficient to be able to read books written in German, English, French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Modern Greek, Danish, Swedish, and Dutch: a poor tormented scholar is unable to keep abreast with the times in his field of study if he cannot also read works published in Russian, Polish, Hungarian, Finnish, Icelandic, Rumanian, or Servian, nay even in Sanskrit, Bengali, or Hindustani. In view of this fact he thinks the time has at length come to fire a signal of distress. In Rumania, for instance, a charming, indigenous national literature is now being developed. Why not? The more the better. But why, asks Max Müller, should the proceedings of a scientific academy in Bucharest appear in the Rumanian language? Is it in order that no one shall read them but the home members of the Academy, if indeed all of these are able to read Rumanian? The same is true of the scientific publications of the Russian, the Hungarian, the Finnish, and several other academies and learned societies, although they do occasionally publish some of their more important articles in French, German, or English. The time was when Latin was the *lingua franca* in which every one wrote who desired to be read by contemporary scholars; but the only person who still writes Latin is the Pope. Latin has been supplanted by English, French, German, and Italian, the four great living languages of the world. Max Müller's proposition is that every scholar, every philosopher, every statesman who wishes to take part in the discussion of cosmopolitan questions ought to be able to speak and write in *one* of these four languages, and that every person of culture should thoroughly understand them all. It is no hardship to require a scholar to learn one language besides his mother tongue sufficiently well to be able to express his thoughts in a tolerably exact and elegant manner. What has been done can be done, and English and French are certainly not more difficult than Latin, a language which every man of culture could write in the centuries of darkness and ignorance.

—Max Müller also holds that it is time the alphabets were made uniform, and that the angular letters of the Germans should give way to broad, fluent Roman letters, though he does not expect to see these reforms realized in his lifetime. "What is more *reasonable*," he asks, "than the now so much talked of and ridiculed bad spelling in German and in English? But nothing progresses more slowly than—reason. Reason is the true tortoise," which nevertheless wins the race with the hare. He ridicules the well-nigh universally accepted doctrine that it is treason for a people to sacrifice its language, and lauds the example of Japan, where English has been introduced in all the schools in order that the growing generation may reap the benefits of intellectual intercourse with England and America, and through these nations with the whole world. Besides the world-literature produced in one of the four great languages he encourages the continued cultivation of the lesser vernaculars. He does not want them exterminated, but favors their continuance as the homely and familiar speech of the family. Finally, he suggests that the time may come when there will be but one world-language, in which nations, churches, and learned bodies will talk together. The languages of Babylon, of Jerusalem, of Athens, and of Rome have expired (*sind vorklungen*); are English, French, German, and Italian so much better than they?

—A return laid before Parliament on the subject of the ransoms of persons captured by brigands contains some interesting statistics. The acts of brigandage with which it deals cover Mexico, Italy, Greece, Spain, Sicily, and Turkey. The Mexican brigands seem to put a low price on their prisoners, $3,400 and twelve muskets being all they got for Mr. Rabling, captured in 1863, and even this paltry sum was the result of the "higgling of the market," for the original price demanded was $6,000. Another prisoner had to pay only $2,000. In 1869 a Mr. Furber was captured, and on the following day his body was found, with a notice that he had been murdered for having refused to ransom his life for $5,000. In these cases the home Government did not interfere in any way, but left the matter to be regulated entirely by the natural laws of trade. In Europe the value set upon tourists is higher, sometimes no doubt because ladies and even children are captured with the party, which must seldom happen in Mexico. Five thousand pounds does not seem to be at all an uncommon price to exact; while the Greek brigands who bagged Lord and Lady Muncaster and their friends in 1870 demanded at first £50,000, which was afterwards reduced to £25,000 and an amnesty. In Spain $37,000 was paid in one case and £6,000 in another. In the two recent cases of Colonel Synge and the Suter family the sums advanced by the British Government were £11,000 and £14,000 respectively. The British Government has made no explanation of its reasons for abandoning its practice of advancing ransoms and then making reclamations upon the brigands' Government; but perhaps their action may have been caused by a suspicion that the chief effect of it was to raise the price.

EDGAR QUINET.

Edgar Quinet: His Early Life and Writings. By Richard Heath. London: Trübner & Co.; Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1881.

MR. HEATH'S book consists of an ill-digested sketch of Quinet's youthful life, curiously interlarded with abstracts of his earlier works. The Life, further, considered as a specimen of biography, has the terrible defect that the biographer shows no capacity whatever for presenting anything like a picture of his hero. Whether Mr. Heath ever knew Quinet in the flesh we cannot say; if he did, he makes no use of his knowledge. Probably he knew Quinet only from his works, and has fallen into the error of fancying that strong and perfectly justifiable admiration for an author's character and mode of thought is a sufficient qualification for writing his biography. Still, though Mr. Heath will certainly fail to interest any large part of the public, either in England or in America, and will, we fear, do little to spread the reputation of a very noteworthy writer, who ought to be far better known than he is out of France—still, 'Edgar Quinet: His Early Life and Writings' will interest, and even deeply interest, the limited circle of students who, having admired and imbibed some of Quinet's leading ideas, have long wished to know what manner of man was the author of a treatise on the Revolution fully as impressive as Carlyle's well-known history.

This natural curiosity Mr. Heath satisfies. We should have been heartily glad could he have told us more about the every-day facts of Quinet's existence. In this work he appears something like a disembodied spirit; he seems to have lived on ideas. One longs to know whether he ate and drank like other men. Did he care to make money? Had he the least wish to get on in the world? Had he any moral faults, and, if so, what were they? Above all, did he ever make a joke or did he ever laugh? To all these enquiries and the like one would wish to have an answer, and from Mr. Heath we get no answer whatever. But, though of Quinet's outward, commonplace, daily—so to speak, flesh-and-blood—life only a glimpse here and there can be gathered from Mr. Heath's pages, we can, happily, learn from them what is assuredly well worth knowing, that the moral beauties, and indeed all the qualities, of Quinet's writings were reproduced in his life, and, what with such a man was the same thing as his life, in his whole mode of thought and feeling.

Quinet was, we take it, an avowed freethinker; yet of all the writers on the French Revolution with whom we happen to be acquainted he is the most religious. If the word "spiritualist" had not been vilely perverted from its true sense, we could express our meaning by saying that Quinet wrote of the greatest historical crises of modern times as a spiritualist. It is not only (though this is itself a very marked trait) that the religious difficulties of the Revolution have for him an interest which they do not possess for other writers, and that he traces the failures of the Revolutionists to their utter incapacity for understanding or solving religious problems, but that he never for a moment loses sight of the fact that the spirit in which men act, their view of truth, their view of the relation of man to God, has a fundamental influence on the whole of their political and social theories and the mode in which they attempt to put their theories in force. Hence Quinet has assuredly an insight into some aspects of the revolutionary convulsion which are hidden from as painstaking investigators as Taine or Ternaux, or even from a thinker as subtle and profound as De Tocqueville. Quinet, for example, never forgets that the failure in France of the struggle for religious truth at the time of the Reformation was both a presage and a cause of the failure of the struggle for political freedom at the time of the Revolution; he, again, does rare justice to the position of the priests who, like the Abbé Grégoire, were true both to their religious convictions and to their belief in freedom. He points to the spiritual deficiencies which lay at the very bottom of the revolutionary creed, and shows,

what a writer such as Taine never understands, that the Jacobins adopted the worst traditions and in many ways reproduced in their government the worst features of the monarchy, just because they (and, we may add, the mass of Frenchmen) retained in their souls the ideas which underlay the vilest institutions of that monarchy which the Jacobins meant totally to destroy. Quinet's work, again, though it has marked defects of its own, displays no trace of the delusion, which mars a good deal of De Tocqueville's speculations, that men are morally the creatures of institutions, rather than institutions and social arrangements themselves the creation and result of each generation's moral state and condition. Quinet could never for a moment have used language of which you may certainly find specimens in the 'Democracy in America' or the 'Ancien Régime,' that "self-government" was the cause of all the manly virtues, and that a country in which every parish managed its own affairs was necessarily a country filled with village Hampdens.

Quinet, in short, is in his historical writings a spiritualist. His defect is the fault, rare among his countrymen, of underestimating the importance to be attached to the mechanism of society and to the formal parts of political life. He hardly, indeed, estimates highly enough the influence on mankind of their material interests. Doniol's elaborate treatise on the abolition of feudalism, and especially on the agrarian revolution initiated but not completed by the National Assembly, supplies not only facts but ideas which Quinet indubitably overlooked. The point, however, to be noted by one who reviews Quinet's biography is that this ingrained tendency to turn towards what one must call things spiritual is the one predominant characteristic of Quinet's life. The sorrows of his boyhood; his passionate fervor almost as a child for Napoleon, who represented to him the cause of national independence; his bitter, not to say morbid, indignation at the baseness with which men forgot the Emperor whom they had idolized; his vehement affections—all tell of a soul to whom the spirit was everything and the letter or form nothing. With the spiritual side of his character is closely connected a trait which assuredly affected every line that he wrote—his keen sympathy with his mother's hereditary Protestantism, as also with her admiration for the freethought of the age which had preceded the Revolution. A spirit like Quinet's was, further, certain to search till it found its proper nutriment. It was in Germany, not in France, that Quinet discovered the ideas for which his soul hungered. Mr. Heath is assuredly right in insisting on the fact, as Quinet himself would no doubt have done, that the latter's translation of Herder gave the tone to his whole system of moral and religious thought. Nor was his connection with Germany of a purely literary character: his love for Minna Moré, the daughter of a German Protestant minister, has a singular appropriateness when viewed in connection with his relation to German literature and sentiment.

Moreover, if Mr. Heath is painfully chary of facts, no one can fail to see that the whole of Quinet's early life was a sacrifice of interest to a high ideal. His contest with his father, in order that he might devote himself to literature; his passionate application to the pursuit he had chosen; his utter incapacity for bending his convictions to his interests, which made him almost without a thought give up every chance of promotion by Guizot rather than subscribe to the Orleanist creed, are all the sure and certain marks of a man who lived in the spirit. Of the few individual traits we can gather from Mr. Heath, as touching a one as can be found is his reply to the mother whom he adored when she rallied him on leading as a young man the life of a recluse:

"If you knew the harm your sarcasms do me when they come from you, you would for ever renounce such a poisoned weapon. What is the use of loving if it is not to spare one another? It seems to me it is preparing for ourselves vain regrets if we should have to confess sooner or later that, instead of using all our faculties to embellish this short life or mutually to console each other, we sometimes disenchanted it or dried it up at the source."

Every line of Quinet's writings breathes an ardent love of liberty. With freedom of thought, freedom of speech, freedom of action—with freedom in all its forms, he displays burning sympathy. This is the characteristic which makes him such a marked contrast to an author with whom he had stronger points of contact than the fact of their having both dealt with the problems raised by the French Revolution; for, in truth, it would be easy to enumerate a large number of resemblances between Quinet and Carlyle. They were both severe, and yet not altogether unsympathetic, critics of the Revolution. They were both rather moralists than mere historians. They both tried, and each with great success, to trace out rather the ethical than the material aspects of the revolutionary movement. They were both deadly foes to materialism. They both distrusted every kind of mechanical solution of events which they felt to be the result rather of spiritual than of physical influences. The Frenchman, again, no less than the Scotchman, utterly detested any theory of history which ignored the influence of great men or of original genius. Quinet's critique on Strauss—one of the most interesting portions of Mr. Heath's work—is a keen exposure of the absurdity involved in attempting to explain the origin of Christianity without giving weight to the character of Christ; and, as we understand Mr. Heath, Quinet's belief in the influence of individuals went so far as to excite his disbelief in the validity of the views held by the whole school of German historical critics. This, however, certainly did not arise from any aversion to German literature; for Quinet (in this, too, like Carlyle) found among Germans the men whom he acknowledged as his principal teachers. Quinet, lastly, like Carlyle, looked at European history from an essentially Protestant point of view, and would probably have re-echoed every expression with regard to the Reformation used by an author who to the end of his life remained in sentiment, if not in opinion, a Scotch Calvinist. Yet with all these points of resemblance between the opinions and attitude of Quinet and of Carlyle, the spirit of the Frenchman is totally different from the spirit of the Scotchman. The difference lies mainly, if not wholly, in their different sentiment as to liberty. Carlyle, even when he passed with others, and probably with himself, as a democrat, was never really an admirer of freedom, democratic or otherwise. Quinet, even when as a child he admired Napoleon as the saviour of the country, was really filled with enthusiasm for liberty. He belonged in a good sense to the Revolution, just as truly as Carlyle belonged also, not in a bad sense, to the reaction. And at every step of Quinet's career, from the time when he left his father's home to pursue what he felt to be his vocation, down to the day when he was a victim of the *Coup d'état*, you find that he was in his life as in his works the devotee of freedom.

Mr. Heath's book stops at the point where his hero, after having apparently sacrificed his prospects through his refusal to ally himself with the Orleanists, was at last, to the disgust of Louis Philippe, raised to the professorial chair which he had every claim to occupy. One cannot but wish that the rest of Edgar Quinet's career may be placed before the English reading public, and—without disrespect to Mr. Heath be it said—by a writer who is not under the delusion that to give abstracts or renderings of an author's works is the same thing as to provide an account of his life. Yet Mr. Heath is not utterly without excuse. Quinet was, we conjecture, one of those men who lived in his thoughts. His life, therefore, was to be found, not in outward actions, but in the history of his thoughts and beliefs.

THE WOMAN'S-RIGHTS MOVEMENT.

History of Woman Suffrage. Edited by Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Susan B. Anthony, and Matilda Joslyn Gage. Illustrated with steel engravings. In two volumes. Vol. I. 1848–1861. New York: Fowler & Wells. 1881. 8vo, pp. 878.

THERE is force in the objection which has been brought against this book, that as woman suffrage is not achieved it has no history. But, on the other hand, it may be said that in some of the Territories women are allowed to vote at all elections, and in several States for school officers, and that the tendency is unmistakably towards the political equality of the sexes. If, therefore, a work like this could show the inception of the agitation, describe the opposition overcome, record the successive triumphs and their intervals, and leave on the reader's mind a cumulative impression of invincibility, it would need no justification, for it would undoubtedly hasten the completion of the reform. In the nature of the case, however, such a weapon can be forged only by one brain, capable of marshalling the facts in their proper sequence with telling effect. There is no evidence that any one of the three editors of the volume before us has any such capacity, and it is certain that all together they have produced one of the most disorderly and ineffective works ever dignified with the name of history. It is, in its entirety, absolutely unreadable, and the last thing to be derived from it is a feeling of the steady progress of the cause which its authors have at heart. In fact, were the reasonableness of this cause to be judged by the clear-mindedness, coherency, and sense of proportion manifested in the so-called editing of this bulky retrospect, the verdict must infallibly be adverse.

Except in the resolutions and speeches of woman's-rights conventions, here given at tedious length, suffrage cuts but a small figure, and the net outcome of the agitation is exhibited in the amelioration, or more or less thorough abrogation, of the common-law status of married women. Had even this been systematically set forth, it would have been worth the while, for in the present chaotic state of the law no layman and few jurists can get an intelligible idea of the drift of the legislation of the past half century. It would, too, have fallen in with the otherwise bad arrangement of the chapters by States instead of chronologically. The thesis is distinctly propounded in the Introduction (p. 16):

"While the laws affecting woman's civil rights have been greatly improved during the past thirty years, the political demand has made but a questionable progress, though it must be counted as the chief influence in modifying the laws."

Dates are obviously of some importance here. On p. 52 we read: "Above all other causes of the 'Woman Suffrage Movement' was the Anti-Slavery struggle in this country"; and on p. 62: "The movement for woman's suffrage, both in England and America, may be dated from this World's Anti-Slavery Convention"—in London, namely, in June, 1840. This is historic

truth, and it need only be added that the first woman's-rights convention was held at Seneca Falls, N. Y., in July, 1848. Now if we turn to Dr. Henry Hitchcock's review of "Modern Legislation touching Marital Property Rights," in the *Journal of Social Science* for March, 1881, we shall find that "the first step towards the new legislation appears to have been taken by the State of Mississippi, by an act passed in February, 1839," more than a year before the World's Convention and nine years before the convention at Seneca Falls; that Maryland came next in 1841; that between 1844 and 1846 Maine, Michigan, Rhode Island, Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Kentucky, Arkansas, and the Territory of Florida joined in the movement with unequal radicalism; and that in the next four years (1846–1850) Vermont, New York, Pennsylvania, North Carolina, Alabama, Tennessee, Wisconsin, and California likewise "wheeled into line." From this it is evident that the dissatisfaction with the common law had manifested itself and rapidly acquired strength in fully half the States of the Union before the political doctrine of Mrs. Stanton and her colleagues could have begun to have any appreciable influence on the public mind—in many slaveholding States, too, alike abhorrent of abolitionists and of woman suffragists; and that the credit of it must be given to the tyrant man himself. We do not deny that the movement was accelerated by the general discussion of human rights which the suffrage agitation involved, as well as by the accessibility to legislative committee hearings which woman's speaking in public unquestionably secured. But this must be measured by more dispassionate and punctilious observers than the ladies whose compilation we are considering.

We shall be asked what value, if any, have these crude and ill-digested pages, and our answer must be, that of their defects and something more. There is, to begin with, no other single volume containing so much of the current reports of proceedings at the various woman's-rights meetings, or so many biographical sketches of prominent workers. The reminiscences by Mrs. F. D. Gage, Mrs. Emily Collins, Mrs. Nichols, Mrs. Stanton, and others; the tributes by the last-named to the late Mrs. Angelina Grimké Weld, Mrs. Lucretia Mott, and Mrs. Paulina Wright Davis; the account of Mrs. Ernestine L. Rose; the history of the Bloomer costume; the picture of the World's Anti-Slavery Convention, and of the World's Temperance Convention in New York—all these can be read with interest and profit. Nor can the most careless reader fail to be struck with the glimpses of the social and civil inferiority of women against which the woman's-rights movement was a protest; or to be amazed at the public opinion which regarded an assembly of women outside of a church as a fit object of mob violence. A special curiosity attaches to the valuable paper by Mr. Whitehead on female suffrage in New Jersey at the close of the last century and the beginning of the present. Finally, the arguments themselves for political equality will repay study, whatever conclusion they may lead to. Altogether, a sense of the profound change in public sentiment within a generation must arise from a perusal of this work. This may be briefly illustrated under three categories. "I remember," says Mrs. Collins (p. 88), "in my own neighborhood [in Western New York] a man who was a Methodist class-leader and exhorter, and one who was esteemed a worthy citizen, who every few weeks gave his wife a beating with a horsewhip. He said it was necessary in order to keep her in subjection, and because she scolded so much." On page 108, Prof. Timothy Walker's 'Introduction to American Law' (probably the second edition, of 1844) is cited to this effect: "In Ohio, but hardly anywhere else, is she [the wife] allowed to make a will, if haply she has anything to dispose of." Miss Anthony, at the State Teachers' Convention held at Troy in 1856, made a report as chairman of a committee on co-education. "The President, Mr. Hazeltine, of New York, congratulating Miss Anthony on her address, said: 'As much as I am compelled to admire your rhetoric and logic, the matter and manner of your address and its delivery, I would rather follow a daughter of mine to her grave than to have her deliver such an address before such an assembly" (p. 515).

Mrs. Stanton's relations with Miss Anthony, as narrated by herself, are among the amusing features of this history. In regard to so important an event as their first acquaintance, however, there is a censurable error of detail, for it is antedated by three years, if we may trust the statement that Mr. George Thompson was at Mrs. Stanton's home at the time (1851, instead of 1848). The pranks of this writer's "savages," as she calls her boys, are thought worthy of a foot-note filling half a page. But her colleague, Mrs. Gage, affords rather more entertainment in the chapter on "Preceding Causes" of the suffrage movement, among which Harriet Martineau, "Eliza Lynn, an Irish lady," and Catharine II. of Russia are enumerated in what must be called a screaming juxtaposition (p. 34). On p. 37 we are told that "in ancient Egypt the medical profession was in the hands of women, to which we may attribute that country's almost entire exemption from infantile diseases, a fact which recent discoveries fully authenticate." And a little further on there is a wonderful perversion of fact and confusion of times in a sentence which we quote literally:

> "Lady Montague's discovery [!] of a check to the small-pox, Madam Boivin's discovery of the hidden cause of certain hemorrhages, Madam de Coudray's invention of the manikin, are among the notable steps which opened the way to the modern Elizabeth Blackwell, Harriot K. Hunt, Clemence S. Lozier, Ann Preston, Hannah Longshore, Marie Jackson, Laura Ross Wolcott, Marie Zakrzewska, and Mary Putnam Jacobi, who are some of the earlier [!] distinguished American examples of woman's skill in the healing art."

The second volume of this work is somewhat vaguely announced to consist of "several chapters of contemporaneous history, . . . contributed by friends in the Old World"; but it is reasonable to expect that the history of the suffrage agitation in this country will be carried on from the year 1861 to the present time, and that we shall at least have an *ex-parte* narrative of the serious and unhealed breach in the ranks of the woman-suffragists, with its causes and results. Meantime, we regret the taste which, under the rubric "Woman in Newspapers," permits mention, among serious and reputable journals conducted by women, of "*Woodhull and Claflin's Weekly*, an erratic [perhaps erotic was intended] paper, advocating many new ideas."

RAWLINSON'S ANCIENT EGYPT.—II.

History of Ancient Egypt. By George Rawlinson, M. A. In two volumes. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1881. 8vo, pp. xx.–554, xiii.–567.

A POPULAR history is necessarily controlled in the treatment of its subject both by its limited space and by the character of its public. It is not expected that such a history should go into long discussions of the sources or disquisitions on abstract or disputed questions that can have interest only for specialists in history or philosophy; and we feel that Professor Rawlinson, so far, shows good sense when he says, in his chapter on the Egyptian religion, vol. i., p. 313, that he will avoid "mere speculation . . . as far as possible," and set forth "only those conclusions . . . with regard to which there is something like a general accord among the persons best acquainted with the Egyptian remains, whether sculptured or literary." But, in the first place, it seems to us that in fact, instead of avoiding speculation, he has only selected the topics on which to speculate, and that he has not always chosen wisely his "persons best acquainted" with the material in hand; his choice being, indeed, determined mainly by a writer's agreement with his own religious philosophy. In the second place, it would not be out of place, in a work that devotes over a hundred pages to the description of a religion, to try to go beneath the surface, seize its spirit, and infuse life into the dry and queer details of its pantheon, its worship, and its ceremonies. There is a mean between barren speculation and dull literalness; we wish we could say that our author had found it.

The external details of the cultus are given by Rawlinson at sufficient length, and, with some important exceptions, satisfactorily. We have the names, titles, and figures of the several deities, the ideas they are supposed to represent, and the places and ceremonies of their worship; the general features of the cultus, the hymns, sacrifices, and festivals are described—the self-glorification of the worshipper and the absence of a deep sense of sin being especially insisted on—and there is some discussion of the worship of animals and of ancestors. The constitution of the priestly class is described in the chapter on "Manners and Customs" (i., 433–442), as well as the process of embalming the dead (510–514); the account of the literature (vol. i., chap. 5) includes various religious books, with an outline of the contents of the "Ritual of the Dead"; and in the second volume the varying aspects of the religious life and cultus are noted from period to period. The real, practical religion of the primitive period, says Rawlinson (ii., 39), was worship of ancestors. It would seem that from the first there lay at the root of the Egyptian religion the belief in a future life and of happiness or misery beyond the grave, and in these early times the Ritual of the Dead had its origin. Alongside of this worship, however, existed also that of the reigning monarch. In succeeding periods we see an expansion of the pantheon and a progress towards unification of the local cults. Under or before the XII. dynasty (about B. C. 2,000) Amen is elevated to the headship of the pantheon, and some centuries later a curious religious revolution is effected by Amen-hotep IV., who establishes the worship of the sun's disk as the state religion, a position that it enjoys only for a couple of reigns, after which the old religion is restored. With the conquest of the Hyksos, Set comes to the front, and with their expulsion he falls, and thenceforward we have to trace only the continued elaboration of polytheism and the formulation of the various doctrines of religion, the power of the priesthood increasing as the virility of the nation diminishes. This constant regard to the historical development of the religion is a valuable feature of the book.

The omissions which we have noted in this part of Rawlinson's discussion, and which seem to us important, relate to the constitution and future of the soul, and to myths and legends. Of all peoples of antiquity the Egyptians dwelt most on the future life, and made the most earnest efforts to represent to themselves the anatomy of the immortal part of man. Maspero has made some valuable contributions to this subject in the *Journal Asiatique* for 1880. Rawlinson does not refer to him, or to Le Page Renouf's Hibbert Lectures, and seems not to have con-

sulted the latest authorities on Egyptian religion —his principal guides are Wilkinson, Bunsen, and Lenormant. The opinions on the future life held by the most ancient of civilized nations (so the Egyptians are, unless the Chinese may dispute with them the precedence) are not merely matters of curious enquiry, but furnish important material for a general history of religious thought. Rawlinson has passed these over lightly. He has nothing to say of the ceremonies of interment, or of the fortunes of the soul after it leaves the body, or of the deification of the dead man and his identification with Osiris (he barely mentions in a foot-note that every dead man was called an Osiris). Yet these things are at least as interesting in our times as processes of embalming and processions of the sacred animals. He contents himself with commonplace remarks, appropriate to the ordinary religious newspaper, and makes no effort to find out what were the deeper problems that the Egyptian religious consciousness was trying to solve. Granted that the subject is a difficult one, and that further light from the monuments is much to be desired, yet a historian who writes for the general public of to-day would do well to examine carefully points of the inner religious life in which all men are interested.

There are similar omissions in the mythical and legendary material. The Osiris legends are given in part, but not those relating to Horus and Ra. The latter, which tell how the first men revolted against the god, and how he destroyed them, have enough points of connection with similar myths among other nations to give them a peculiar interest. To examine these would not be to indulge in useless speculation, but to help us to an understanding of the earliest cosmogonical and religious ideas of the Egyptians. In the interpretation of myths there is room for considerable difference of opinion. One thing, however, seems to us to be clear, that in the original form of such stories we are not to look for refined ethical and religious ideas—these are the additions of later times. When Rawlinson says (i., 359) that "the truth seems to be that little more was aimed at in the Osirid legends than to teach and illustrate the perpetual opposition and conflict between good and evil," he is confounding the earlier and later forms of the myth. His remark that "the ideas of an incarnate god, a suffering god, a god who dies and is restored to life again [Osiris], . . . the connection of evil with the form of the serpent [Apepi], and the ultimate bruising of the serpent's head by the Divine benefactor," all found in the Osiris myth, "may be echoes from the far past of that primeval revelation which God vouchsafed to the human race, or may be merely thoughts natural to man, arising out of the constitution of his mind and its broodings upon God and nature" is undoubtedly true—for how should such ideas come to man, except from his own soul, or from a Divine revelation?—but it does not advance the solution of the question one jot. It is a mere helpless statement of an obvious dilemma, beyond which the author seems to be afraid to go.

The general remarks with which the chapter on religion opens are lacking in chronological discrimination. Rawlinson calls attention in his second volume, as we have said, to the changes that took place from time to time in the outward form of the religion, but the fundamental ideas he here comprehends under one chronological head as if they had been always the same. This can hardly have been the case—there must have been a progress, which, though it may be difficult to trace, must nevertheless be kept in view. The distinction between the exoteric and esoteric faiths, to which he first refers, is doubtless well founded, and has existed in all religions. It is possible, however, to exaggerate it, by unduly magnifying the grossness of the popular belief on the one side, and the purity of the creed of the initiated on the other. The people were probably more or less familiar with the Ritual (or Book) of the Dead, which certainly taught doctrines very different from gross polytheism. On the other hand, while there seems no reason to doubt that the creed of the priests and other instructed persons was far purer than that of the people (as was the case, also, with the Hindu priests and bards, and the Hebrew prophets), it may be doubted whether it can properly be called a system of "strict monotheism." In the sacred hymns there often appears a sort of henotheistic doctrine; the position of supreme, omnipotent Deity being assigned to one god or another, according to the feeling of the worshipper. An illustration of this henotheism may fairly be found in the Hymn to the Nile ('Records of the Past,' iv., 107), of the time of the XIX. dynasty, in which the Nile-god is identified with Num, and is put into the same category with Amen, Ra and Ptah, while he is called "creator of all good things," and it is said of him that "he is not beheld, he is not adored in sanctuaries, his abode is not known, there is no building that can contain him"; further on he is identified with Ptah, the demiurge, and with Kabes, and it is declared that his name is unknown in heaven; that he does not manifest his forms; that mortals and the cycle of gods extol him. Here we have the belief in a great, all-controlling Presence, manifesting itself in various forms—such a half-pantheistic henotheism as is found in the Veda, but not the strict monotheism of modern thought. How far back this scheme of faith goes, and what its historical relation to the national polytheism is, it may not be possible now to determine from the Egyptian literary remains. The question does not belong to Egypt alone, but comes up in the history of every highly developed ethnic religion, and is to be solved not by *a priori* reasoning, but by the widest comparison of all the known facts. The purest monotheism of ancient times, that of the Hebrews, seems to have sprung out of polytheism: the history of the movement has been preserved in the national records. In Egypt there is no such history in our possession. Elevated religious conceptions go back to almost the remotest antiquity of the nation, and we have at present no means of deciding whether, as some facts in the religious life of other peoples would suggest, there was at first a dim, unreflecting consciousness of one power in the universe, which developed into polytheism, out of which then the desire for unity in phenomena led at last to a more or less pure reflective monotheism.

Rawlinson's view of the Egyptian religion seems to be that it was originally a pure monotheism, the various members of the pantheon being merely personified attributes or aspects of the One, and that the duller feeling of the people converted these personifications into deities. He has no sympathy with the theory of a phenomenal, polytheistic origin of the gods; he prefers to find in their names the expression of refined religious ideas. Thus Amen is, according to him, the "hidden" god, the mysterious, inscrutable, supreme deity; Kneph is the divine "spirit," as in Genesis i., 2, and then the creator, especially of mankind; Ptah is the "opener," the manifester of the hidden Amen, the demiurge; Osiris was perhaps originally a personification of the divine goodness, and afterwards came to be regarded as a form of the sun of the lower world. He, however, admits (i., 342) that a large part of the Egyptian religion was connected with the worship of the sun. His definitions of the names above given appear to us to contradict all that we know of the origin of such names elsewhere. Whatever high ideas may be attached to them in later times, it is commonly, we may say universally, found that the original signification relates to some simple physical thing. It is mere speculation to assign to the names of these Egyptian deities meanings that are in sharp contrast with the great body of facts. In the Egyptian scheme itself the large number of names that obviously refer to the sun and moon at least suggest the propriety of looking for a similar origin for those whose signification is less obvious. We may hope that the growth of the Egyptian dictionaries will clear up many such points that are now obscure. For the rest, it must be borne in mind that the purity and loftiness of any system of religion are not diminished by the fact that it has grown to greatness from small beginnings. If it be shown that Egypt started from polytheism, it will not be the less true that she developed a system of faith and morals that is worthy of the profoundest admiration.

The Egyptian worship of ancestors has not been satisfactorily studied, and our author adds nothing to our knowledge of its nature (i., 423). That the dead were exalted to a quasi-divinity, and yet had continued need of the supports of earthly life, he thinks self-contradictory, but consoles himself with the reflection that the Egyptians were not a logical people, and that their entire conception of the condition of the dead was "strange, abnormal, and irrational." The same illogicalness is found in the Roman parentalia, and among the Chinese. One is at a loss to know what "irrational" means when applied to views of the future life, and would gladly learn what nation it is that has worked out the rational view. As to the origin of the animal worship, Rawlinson mentions the two theories that it grew out of fetishism and that it was a product of the Egyptian exaggerated symbolism. A third theory, held by some writers, is that it came in part from accidental identity or similarity of names. Thus, according to Renouf, Tot or Tehuti signifies both "measurer" and "ibis"—he is the moon-god, and the ibis is sacred to him; and Seb means the earth-god and a goose. Possibly we have to take all three modes of origination into account.

In conclusion, while we accord to Rawlinson's work the praise of clearness and judiciousness as a compilation of the more obvious material of Egyptian history, we cannot credit it with the higher qualities of candor, breadth, and thoroughness. It is an interesting, neatly arranged, superficial, sometimes prejudiced, account of the old Egyptian life. It cannot be said to be an addition to the scientific literature of the subject. In fact, the author did not mean to offer any such scientific contribution, but only a readable second-hand digest of the facts, under the guidance of English good sense. We are glad to have a readable book for the general public, while we regret the narrowness that is often misleading and always benumbing.

COLVIN'S LANDOR.

Walter Savage Landor. By Sidney Colvin. [English Men of Letters.] New York: Harper & Brothers. 1881.

"Few men have ever impressed their peers so much, or the general public so little, as Walter Savage Landor." This is the first sentence of Prof. Colvin's book, which nevertheless makes no serious attempt to explain this discrepancy, whereas such an endeavor is at this date, we take it, the strict and very nearly the exclusive business of a book about Landor. Professor Colvin does indeed devote a page of his "Conclusion" to the causes of Landor's "scant popularity," which, he says, "are not difficult to discern." They are, in brief, his discursiveness and voluminousness, "imperfections of a great master," which impede the reader's efforts to get at his real

excellences; the universal rather than specific nature of his "thoughts" ("he ranged apart from the passions or the tempests of the hour"); and the fact that, in his own phrase, "he 'walked along the far eastern uplands, meditating and remembering,' and to the far eastern uplands those who would walk with him must brace themselves to mount." But this is no explanation at all of the fact, which Professor Colvin is compelled to chronicle, that "true Landorians may at present be counted on the fingers." To have given any other explanation, however, would have been fatal to enthusiastic panegyric, and quite inconsistent with the view of Landor here presented, according to which he is made to figure as one of the most important of English writers, in some qualities a rival of Shakspere, a master of style, a worker in marble, "in English prose, an artist comparable with the highest in their respective spheres; with Milton in English verse, or with Handel in music." Professor Colvin is never tired of grandiose epithets in characterizing this prose. He speaks of "clause upon clause of towering eloquence," of Landor's "outdoing" Plato "with a passage of splendid rhetoric on the nothingness and restlessness of human power as compared with the gentlest of the elements, the air"; and the recurrence of "massive" is almost fatiguing. The thought with which this massive prose is freighted is dignified in the same way and to the same degree. Landor is compared, "for power and compression, for incisive strength and imaginative breadth together, in general reflections," as well as "for the combination of conciseness with splendor in their utterance," to Pascal. "Such an anthology" of his detached sayings and sentences "as the literature of France itself could hardly surpass" might easily be made. He is "a great creative master of historic sentiment and of the human heart." The 'Imaginary Conversations' are remarkable for "the extraordinary richness, the originality of the reflections, and meditative depth and insight." "The mansions of his mind are so various, and the riches stored up in them so vast, that," etc., etc.

In short, Professor Colvin agrees cordially with the implication of Landor's own deliverance: "I shall dine late, but the dining-room will be well lighted, the guests few and select." In other words, he thinks Landor's "peers" entirely right about him, and "the general public" entirely wrong. It is the view of the latter that he attempts to assign causes for, and the general public—in this case all but a few persons who "may be counted on the fingers"—at least would undoubtedly have preferred an explanation of the magniloquence of the Landorians' panegyrics. In a popular work it may be justly said, too, that this line would have been the better one to take. As it is, the majority of Professor Colvin's readers who know Landor at all will, we do not doubt, maintain that he has misconceived the reasons of their neglect of his favorite. The real reasons of it, they would probably contend, are not wholly unintelligent. Landor lived long enough for Mr. Swinburne to make an especial pilgrimage to Italy to see him, but he was essentially of the generation of Coleridge and Wordsworth and a part of the English literary movement at the beginning of the century. He shared in greater or less degree in its excellences, and illustrated admirably the emotional rather than intellectual impulse that marked it. Byron might have called him, as justly as he called Southey, "the only existing entire man of letters"; but this phrase then meant, or was at any rate then employed to characterize, a certain amateurishness which neither before nor since that time has existed in conjunction with so much erudition and even genius. Certainly the amateur quality is conspicuous in Landor; and it has ceased to excite the admiration of the general public as it once did. Instead of interesting himself in "the passions or the tempests of the hour" (the hour being the French Revolution period, and his views being those of the Whig aristocracy which drove Burke into the arms of the Tories), as Byron did, or occupying himself with purely imaginative poetry, like Wordsworth and Shelley, or meditating intellectual problems with Coleridge, he threw himself into "letters," and excelled Southey mainly by the measure of genius which energy as distinguished from industry implies. He was an admirable scholar; he had a passion for books, and he lived, as Professor Colvin says, "among the heroic figures of the past." But this attitude of mind has come to have something indisputably old-fashioned about it. The only contemporary analogue of it is pedantry, and Landor was anything but a pedant, for an ingenuous pedant is a contradiction in terms. Yet the very conception of his chief work, the 'Imaginary Conversations,' is the conception of a bookish amateur. It was not wholly original, but, considering the scale on which he carried it out, it may be called Landor's own, and it is extremely characteristic. To the "general public" of the present day it cannot but seem less than deeply serious; and indeed it falls as a conception rather into the category of G. P. R. James's works than into those of Scott, whose tact in making his historical personages subordinate characters was unimpeachably happy. Landor himself thought Scott might have envied James's 'Mary of Burgundy,' just as he thought Southey a greater poet than Wordsworth or Shelley. His historical figures are not very real, as Prof. Colvin admits; and so all that can win for their 'Conversations' the admiration of any one who knows his Plutarch well, and is no longer filled with emotion at the thought that Pericles and Aurelian were as much human beings as his next-door neighbors, is the "wise and beautiful thoughts" on things in general which they contain, and the marble prose in which they are carved.

Both of these are a little old-fashioned too. Prof. Colvin assures us that Landor ranged not only "among the heroic figures of the past," but among "the permanent facts and experiences of life"; and that here he is comparable to Pascal. This must, of course, remain a matter of opinion. But the general public will remain sceptical until Landor's wise and beautiful thoughts are extricated from the mass of prosing in which his biographer acknowledges that they lie embedded. At present it is possible they lose from having to be picked out and sought for; but it is a great mistake on Professor Colvin's part not to have given his readers, who he assumes cannot know Landor, a few instances of these nuggets that suggest Pascal. Nothing would have been so convincing as some "detached sentence" that would match, for example, with this: "What is nature? Perhaps a first habit, as habit is a second nature." Prof. Colvin contents himself with saying: "The two volumes ('Pericles and Aspasia') are perhaps the richest mine which English prose literature contains of noble and unused quotations"—a remark which is only valuable to an undergraduate engaged on a "theme," and leaves "the general public" cold. On pages 160, 161, and 162, however, he does quote a long piece of sustained imaginativeness—Petrarch's allegory in the 'Pentameron,' of which he praises "the deep consolatory wisdom," besides calling it "an example unmatched in literature of the union of Greek purity of outline with Florentine piquancy of sentiment." The reader must judge for himself. It is eminently Landorian, and it is Landor at his very best. The time is long past, we suspect, when such imaginings, pretty and gravely pleasant as this unquestionably is, appeared to more persons than "could be counted on the fingers" "deep consolatory wisdom" of an especially novel order. Perhaps our palates are become jaded; perhaps George Eliot's "wise and beautiful sayings" have spoiled some tastes for Landor's. Goethe, at least, has been widely translated since the 'Pentameron' was written; and a desire for substantiality accompanies the modern impatience with the commonplace closely enough to make Professor Colvin's announcement, that those who would walk with Landor "must brace themselves to mount," seem suspicious. Full of emotions and emotional speculation about "the permanent facts and experiences of life" (at least about those within definite limits) Landor undoubtedly was; full of ideas about them he as certainly was not.

And these emotions he cast in a form which we have been bold enough to call old-fashioned, because it really seems as if what is known as "poetic prose," and writers who are known as "prose poets," were getting out of date. The more any "general public" that includes every one but Landorians reflects upon such matters, the more deeply it becomes convinced that the excellences of prose are not those of poetry, and that the more "poetic" prose is, the more unsatisfactorily evident is the prose handicap upon what suggests the need of expression in poetry. There is clearly no rule to be laid down even for an author "equally at home in prose or verse," as Professor Colvin truly says Landor was, but one feels the lack of fitness in Landor's prose expression often, as one feels it in Mr. Ruskin's. Prose often will not serve his purpose. A sense of trammelled effort is inevitably apparent. Persons who note this in Mr. Ruskin fail to note it in Landor because of that "Greek purity of outline" which Professor Colvin speaks of. But even that serves only for a time, and before long the attempt—which, as we were saying, could not be made nowadays without pedantry—to create the anomaly of the union of "Greek purity of outline with Florentine piquancy of sentiment" becomes inexpressibly wearisome. Landor was perpetually making that attempt. He admired the former quality immensely and sought to attain it by the greatest carefulness and containment of diction. But let any one compare the letters of his 'Pericles' with any translation of the Funeral Oration over the victims of the Peloponnesian War, or his 'Plato and Diogenes' with any translation of the 'Apology' or 'Phædo,' for example, and the difference between the purity of outline of Greek prose and the result of an endeavor to give severe expression to "Florentine piquancy of sentiment" will readily appear. No amount of culture, pure and simple, can overcome it; thought and style are too intimately connected. "The best skeleton type of a Landorian sentence," says Professor Colvin, "is that on Lord Byron: 'I had avoided him; I had slighted him; he knew it; he did not love me; he could not.' No conjunctions, no transitions; each statement made by itself, and their connection left to be discerned by the reader." One could not have a better illustration of a style even the idiosyncrasy of which is old-fashioned.

Finally, Landor fails to win admirers (or at least readers) at the present day, because his personality, the picturesqueness of which is at the bottom of the admiration for him of his "peers," we suspect, is of a kind that has ceased to be attractive to persons who care greatly for Greek purity of outline—intellectually attractive, that is to say. Nor has it anything like the force of

Byron's to captivate those who delight in "Florentine piquancy of sentiment." Indeed, it does not appear in his writings with any sharp distinctness, except in the tenderer and gentler passages, where it is admirable and charming—as in some of his portraits of women—but here it is not potent enough, and these passages are not numerous enough, to win a *clientèle*. Outside of his writings he must remain chiefly interesting to those who knew him, many of whom loved him devotedly, it is not difficult to see why. Nothing could be better than the biographical part of Professor Colvin's book, but it does no more than the critical portion to interest deeply the great non-Landorian general public in its subject, who was too plain a case to stimulate the modern spirit of curiosity. He was, says a recent reviewer, "the typical British Squire or John Bull beneath a very thick enamel of culture."

TYLOR'S ANTHROPOLOGY.

Anthropology: an Introduction to the History of Man and Civilization. By Edward B. Tylor. With illustrations. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881. 12mo, pp. xv.–448.

Mr. Tylor has produced just such a book as was to be expected from him—clear, sensible, well reasoned, and more systematic in substance than in form. Perhaps it might better have been called an Introduction to Anthropology, since it everywhere strives rather to lay out the particular subject under treatment, trace its outlines, put the student at the right point for contemplating and investigating it, argue down his prejudices, and win his favor for its scientific aspect, than to state exactly what is known and what is unknown about it. With regard to certain subjects, indeed, as the age of man and the divisions and relations of races, the former mode of discussion is decidedly preferable, and the chapters upon them are admirable, and must win general and nearly complete approval. As to some others, we should have liked a distincter and more confident style of teaching.

The author begins with the great fundamental question of the antiquity of the human race, showing how race differences, with languages and the other elements of civilization, join in demanding that lengthened existence of man on the earth which is most unequivocally evidenced by the remains of art in geologically ancient formations; then is taken up our relation, physical and intellectual, to the lower animals; and the account of races, in the third chapter, finishes the contemplation of man on the side of his nature and endowments. Mr. Tylor favors the doctrine of development, and with it, of course, the unity of human origin, and a difference only of degree between the gifts of man and of his inferiors; but his tone is nowhere dogmatic or controversial; he writes as one realizing how much all can agree about, and how useless it is to quarrel upon such points, which more knowledge will by and by settle peacefully. The rest of the work is devoted to explaining man's gradual acquisition of the means and elements of his culture, by way of answer to the fundamental question, as stated in the first sentence of the first chapter: "How mankind came to be as they are, and to live as they do." That is to say, By what steps have human beings, starting with nothing but capacities, arrived at possession of the accumulated and constantly improving products of the exercise of those faculties, in the form of institutions, which go down, not by nature and inheritance, but by tradition and teaching? That man has in all things actually worked his way up from a state of destitution is the more or less clearly indicated theory underlying the whole exposition. It is, of course, the only scientifically defensible theory, and no more controverted by the circumstance that some races and communities have retrograded in civilization than the doctrine that all wealth comes by accumulation of the fruits of labor is shaken by the fact that numerous individuals fall from wealth into poverty.

The results of culture are treated under the heads of language (with an appended chapter on the art of writing), the arts of life, the arts of pleasure, science (or advanced and regulated knowledge), the spirit world (an ill-fitting name for philosophy and religion), history and mythology (better in inverted order), and society and its organization. The author does not quite see clearly that language absolutely belongs in the same class with the rest, as the first and most fundamental of them, and that the vexed question of the relation of language and race is thus at once and completely solved; but his treatment of language in general is far superior in soundness and good sense to that of his favorite authorities, being only here and there warped or rendered superficial by his trust in them. In a work of the scope and method of this, it should not, for example, have failed to be pointed out that the original occasion and primary purpose of language-making is communication. But if something is wanting here, there is, we think, positive error in the account of the genesis of ethnic religions. These have grown out of the theories which men formed for themselves respecting the world about them and the forces that move it, to which forces, by the necessities of untrained thought, are attributed a mode of action and a form like those of human beings. A belief in the continuance of man's existence after death, and in the share taken by disembodied human souls in the processes of nature, is an element now of greater and now of less importance, in these primitive philosophies; but it is far from having the fundamental importance which here, as in others of the author's works, is arrogated to it. And a religion is a body of connected beliefs and practices growing out of the views taken of the powers of nature in their relations to men. Thus, as compared with a philosophy, a religion is something posterior and derived, although, as being the practical side of philosophy, it comes often to outgrow and overshadow the latter, even to making it seem historically subordinate. This is the only acceptable anthropological basis for the history of development of the world's religions in general.

The point most open to criticism perhaps in Mr. Tylor's volume is the illustrations of race varieties, in the third chapter. They are faulty especially in this, that they include a great deal more than is meant as illustration, and hence give the illustrative part on so small a scale that it is only imperfectly to be appreciated and partially to be trusted. The text and its descriptions call for heads alone; but we have full-length figures, and even groups, and dress, and weapons, and habitations, and scenery, with heads of course often of a size fairly to be called minute. And the contrast of big Patagonian and little Bushman, on page 58, is quite spoiled by the latter seeming distinctly further off, and therefore perhaps in reality as big as the other. The point is one hardly worth the attempt to illustrate by picture, unless the two individuals could have been taken together on one plate.

It was doubtless too much to expect that the still current (though now rather tolerated than favored) terms "Stone Age," "Bronze Age," and so on, should have been rejected in this volume; yet Mr. Tylor would have earned the gratitude of his readers by casting them out. Never, surely, was a greater disservice done to the nomenclature of a science than when these terms were borrowed from the Scandinavian antiquarians, in whose use, as applied to a certain limited district, they had a degree of propriety, and were generalized as fitting all Europe and the world at large. The word "Age" indicates a chronological period. No one would tolerate such expressions as the Savage Age, the Barbarous Age, the Age of Civilization; yet they would be every whit as defensible as the others. "Stage" is the word wanted instead. There are, it may be said, three natural stages in the development of instrument-making: first, that of use of the unmodified products of nature—sticks and unwrought stones, and the like—which leave behind no sign of their using (the stage being thus comparable to the Azoic Age in geologic record); then that of natural products modified in form for use—wrought and shapen clubs and stones and bones; and, finally, that of materials derived from nature by an artificial process of change or reduction, especially metals. The first two have, without question, succeeded one another in the independent history of every race; the third, as is the case generally with the higher developments of civilization, rather arises at certain points, under specially favoring circumstances, and is spread by communication to other races. Each of the last two stages has its well-marked sub-divisions, more or less clearly recognized in practice, though wont to be given, as "Ages," a false aspect, which deceives many writers and still more readers. Mr. Tylor shows his usual cautious good sense in declining to recognize the "Bronze Age" as anything more than an accidental and limited factor in the series.

While this volume, then, is in no sense a great work, it is a very good and serviceable one. It does not bring new knowledge, nor does it give old knowledge such new aspects and relations as charm and enlighten those to whom that knowledge is familiar; its sphere is that of popularization, and in this it is unusually successful. Its author shows here the same ability as in his other works to pass over the delicate and offensive parts of his theme without even letting it appear that he passes them over, and his chapters will bear being read aloud, as they stand, in any company. The volume will doubtless receive the wide circulation which it well deserves, and will exercise a marked and useful influence on the general views respecting the subjects of which it treats.

Goethe's Briefe an die Gräfin Auguste zu Stolberg. Zweite Auflage, mit Einleitung und Anmerkungen. Leipzig: Brockhaus. 1881.

As the years roll on, our knowledge of the youthful Goethe, in becoming clearer, seems only to intensify our admiration. All his writings of the ante-Weimar period have a charm of their own, undiminished by the splendor of his prime. Since the appearance of Hirzel's 'Der Junge Goethe,' nothing will better illustrate this than the present collection of letters. It lets us into the arcana of the poet's tumultuous heart during his first great crisis. These letters were, it is true, published in 1839 in the *Urania*; but the earlier edition has long been out of print. The present editor, Arndt, has collated the originals anew, and has also supplied an introduction and very full notes, which leave nothing to be desired.

The intercourse between the poet and the countess reads more like romance than sober fact. Auguste zu Stolberg was not merely a countess: she was a *Reichsgräfin*. She appears to have been from childhood an enthusiast for literature and literary men. Among her early favorites were Klopstock and the Göttingen

Bund. Soon after the publication of 'Werther' her brothers made the acquaintance of the author, and it was through them that she sent her first letter, withholding her name. But the veil of anonymity was soon lifted. Goethe's first two letters, January and February, 1775, are addressed to "The Dear Unknown." But No. 3, evidently written early in March, is addressed to "Dear Augusta"; and in No. 4, March 25, the confidential *Du* slips in. The poet writes as frankly as if to a sister, speaks of the petty affairs of life, of meals and dress, and all the trials of his engagement with Lili. He pours forth his lover's joys and woes into the ears of a patient listener, four years his junior. Franker and heartier letters were probably never penned than those numbered 7 and 8. Yet, written by a Goethe, they are free from anything maudlin. After reading them we can better appreciate the spirit of many a passage in the first part of 'Faust.' The correspondence was continued after Goethe's removal to Weimar, but died out in 1782, without any apparent reason; perhaps the numerous distractions of Goethe's court life were to blame. In 1822 it was suddenly revived for a moment. The countess, now the aged widow of Count Bernstorff, writes to the friend of her youth, recalls the bright hopes of the past, the loss of her parents, brothers, child, and husband; reminds him of his own sorrows and triumphs, and beseeches him to take comfort in the thought of a better hereafter. A letter so pure in sentiment, so graceful in expression, we have seldom if ever read. It comes straight from the heart of a noble woman. Goethe's reply, powerful as it undoubtedly is, seems cold and constrained in comparison.

Is it possible for us of the present day to enter into the spirit of the eighteenth century? We prate glibly of the old régime, its exploded notions, its deep-rooted prejudices. Yet here was a young plebeian, known only as a writer of dramas and stories, treated like a brother by the youthful daughter of one of the oldest and proudest families of Germany. And the two knew each other only by letter; they never met face to face.

Among the Americans. By George Jacob Holyoake. London: T. H. Roberts & Co.; Chicago: Belford, Clarke & Co. 1881.

Mr. Holyoake, who lately spent some little time in this country, has collected into a pamphlet the sketchy memoranda, suggested by what he saw here, which he contributed on his return home to the *Co-operative News.* "These pages," he tells us in his preface, "are the story of nearly four months' travel; and, if I had been in America four years, I should not think myself competent to write a 'book about America.' Only an ex-President could write that in a complete way." His fifteen chapters, which he modestly calls "a mere fireside story of what interested me," are entirely unpretending; but, as being the production of a penetrating and impartial observer of men and things, they lose nothing of value on that account. Nor is the author's good-nature less conspicuous than his shrewdness and freedom from prejudice. In short, alike as regards intelligence, temper, and an expansive charity, he is, within certain limits, an excellent sample of a traveller at his best.

Open Mr. Holyoake's pages where we may, there is a certainty of coming upon something or other worth reading, and that expressed with telling directness, or else with a dash of quiet pleasantry. For instance: "The Irish, whose charm is perplexingness, do not suffer that quality to deteriorate in America. They submit to the Church, but rebel against secular government. They submit to ecclesiastical authority abjectly, and resist the nobler authority of reason foolishly. Having been so long oppressed and deceived, they suspect nobody so much as those who try to serve them." "Lineal Americans," according to our complimentary critic, "are mostly as quick as four-eyed people, and seem to see at the back of their heads." And here, again, we get our full due, if not a little more: "American Christians are braver-minded than English. They believe in spite of irreverent humor. They can laugh at droll aspects of the thing they like. We think ridicule kills piety. The religion of the nation does not stand upon the connection of the church with the state, but upon conviction, which is braver." With some exaggeration, he has it that the terms "east," "west," and the like, are "never heard" in England; and he accounts for the alleged fact by urging that England is a small country, and has no room for the points of the compass. Referring to the popular national habit of estimating humanity, like pigs and turkeys, by pounds avoirdupois, he says, though not quite hitting the mark: "Weight, I observed, is, somehow, an element of rhetoric in the American mind." Wholly original, we surmise, is his apology for being a smoker—namely, that he would avoid pretence of perfection. Occasionally he delivers himself of a sterling apophthegm. Here is one: "It is only the few who see that a little truth makes you wealthier than ten times the amount of error." Another, equally good and none the less so for its jocoseness of form, is that "simplicity and truth seem shabbiness by the side of the profuseness of error and the opulence of delusion."

Though he freely mentions by name the various persons at whose hands he received courtesy or hospitable entertainment, the author does so without ostentation, and in a way that can give no offence. For everybody almost that he speaks of he has a good word; and he even finds excuses for the interviewers, to whom he was something of an enigma, and for the reporters, who audaciously invented speeches for him. Long and honorably distinguished for his labors and writings as a co-operationist, he devotes, as was to be expected, a good deal of space to his favorite subject. To this, however, as to every other topic which he handles, he has a happy knack of imparting an attractive freshness. Especially for the sake of his compatriots it may be regretted that a visitor of his alert discernment and cordial good-will should not have extended his brief sojourn among us, and brought within the scope of his scrutiny and commentation an ampler area, not to speak of the less superficial aspects of our broad and multifarious fatherland.

Elementary German. An Outline of the Grammar, with Exercises, Conversations, and Readings. By C. P. Otis, Ph.D. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1881.

It would not be an easy or a pleasant task to look over and compare all the methods for learning German published in the English language. Every teacher seems to have learned by personal experience a trick or two which enables him to communicate a knowledge of certain peculiarities of the language more quickly than by the ordinary methods. There would be no harm in this if the teacher did not forthwith deem it necessary to write a new grammar in which his trick becomes the centre of gravity around which everything is made to revolve. The result of using such a grammar is usually this, that the pupil finds himself after a time able to converse quite fluently as long as every-day phrases are used, although he is unable to write a complicated sentence correctly in the new language; or, on the other hand, he may know every rule of the grammar in its proper place in the book and yet be unable to make an instantaneous application of it in conversation. Mr. Otis's aim in preparing his manual was to combine the advantages of the grammatical and the oral methods while avoiding the extremes of each. He has succeeded admirably, and we have met with no book which has seemed to us better adapted for elementary instruction in this difficult language, in high schools or private classes. The introduction of the verb at an earlier, and of the subjunctive mood at a later lesson than is customary, makes the task of the pupil more interesting, and prevents that discouragement which often succeeds an early introduction to the difficulties of the subjunctive. The conversation-exercises which follow each lesson have been made easy by making the question suggest the answer.

The difficult question as to what orthography should be adopted has been solved by simply retaining the old style. Much confusion exists in this matter just at present in Germany, where each State and each newspaper seems to have its own orthography. We should have advised Mr. Otis, however, to adopt at least a few of the improvements which leading German papers like the *Kölnische Zeitung* and the *Schwäbische Mercur* of Stuttgart have adopted, such as dropping the *h* where it is superfluous, and also the *t* in the combination *tz*—changes which will soon prevail everywhere as instances of the survival of the fittest. In selecting the type for his book Mr. Otis has been less conservative. Excepting some extracts in German prose and poetry in the latter part of the book, everything is printed in Roman type. The reason for so doing was to avoid putting an extra burden on the pupil at the outset. Another still more urgent reason for it might have been given. We practical Americans ought to be the last to encourage the Germans in their obstinate adherence to their ugly, sight-destroying, monastic type. Even in Germany, however, most scientific works are now published in Roman type. A recent newspaper item, indeed, states that the German type has found a new defender in Bismarck, whose private secretary the other day returned to the publisher a book forwarded to the Prince, on the ground that he had no time to read German books printed with Roman letters. The story is almost too silly to be true, but if it is true the result will hardly be that German books will cease being printed in Roman type, but only that they will cease being sent to Bismarck.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bugge, Prof. S. Studien über die Entstehung der nordischen Götter- und Heldensagen. Part 1. New York: B. Westermann & Co.

Carey, Annie. School-Girls; or, Life at Montagu Hall. New York: Cassell & Co. $1.25.

Ebers, Prof. G. Egypt. Parts 13, 14, 15. New York: Cassell & Co. 75 cents each.

Fyke, C. A. American Juvenile Speaker and Songster. Cincinnati: J. W. Helmick. 40 cents.

Grey, S. Gospel according to Satan. New York: James Pott & Co. 90 cents.

La Jonquière, Prof. A. de. Histoire de l'Empire Ottoman. New York: F. W. Christern.

Lord, Rev. J. Points of History, for Schools and Colleges. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.25.

Morley, Prof. H. Sketches of Longer Works in English Verse and Prose. New York: Cassell & Co. $5.

Rémusat, P. de. Letters of Madame de Rémusat to her Husband & Son. New York: Harper & Bros.—The same: D. Appleton & Co.

Sauveur, L. Contes Merveilleux. New York: F. W. Christern.

Science for All. Parts 26-29. New York: Cassell & Co. 50 cents each.

Smith, F. Story of the English Jacobins. New York: Cassell & Co. 25 cents.

Thackeray, Miss. Madame de Sévigné. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.

Wentworth, Prof. G. A. Elements of Algebra. Boston: Ginn & Heath. $1.45.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 8, 1881.

The Week.

THE President's safe removal to Long Branch has diffused a sense of relief all over the country. If he now rapidly and steadily improves under the new conditions, it will in the minds of many seem to convey a sort of reflection on the judgment of the doctors, inasmuch as he was undoubtedly as movable five weeks ago as he is now, and has during that long period been languishing in a climate which even the very strong and well can hardly support with impunity. But it is well to remember, in this case as in so many others, the superiority of "hindsight" to "foresight." The possibility of moving him with safety never has been quite clear to anybody. It was not clear even on Wednesday morning, and there are, in the treatment of the sick as in other things, many steps of which the wisdom becomes plain only when they become unavoidable. A great load of responsibility has been put on the physicians, and they have borne it, on the whole, so well that we must not find fault with them, even if it now appears that there was some responsibility which they might have taken, but shrank from taking. The circumstances attending the removal made it in some ways one of the most pathetic incidents of recent history. It was probably watched from near and far with more sympathy and anxiety than have ever followed a sick man's carriage. The great crowds which assembled to see the train pass were impressive by their very silence and decorum, and almost as impressive were the minute and skilful provisions for the President's safety and comfort which the railroad company was able to make. No sovereign has ever had more, we might say has ever had so much, done for him, or has ever had such material resources to draw on for protection against all harm and all incommodity. More than this, no sovereign has ever, when surrounded by loyal precautions, had such assurance as President Garfield must have had, that the whole people demanded all that was done for him, demanded all that could be done for him, and would not have been content with anything less. In fact, the journey was a thing to be remembered, as a sign that in the coming world elected rulers are to have a very efficient and satisfactory substitute for the old loyalty; that "most votes" will, in short, surround a Chief Magistrate with as much respect and devotion as descent has ever done.

A Washington despatch of Friday to the New York *Times*, on the question of Presidential disability, says, speaking of the extent to which the public service has suffered from the President's illness: "If the public interests really demanded an executive signature, the papers might be taken to him now and would be. His absence from the executive office has not yet been as long as when President Hayes visited the Pacific coast, when no public interests suffered. One Cabinet officer, in speaking of this matter to-day, said that if he had half an hour in which to talk with the President he could transact all needed business with him in one minute." This is strictly true. The amount of imperative and important business to which in ordinary times the President has to attend, when Congress is not in session, is exceedingly small. There is not the least reason for supposing that any public interest has suffered from the President's confinement during the last two months. But we may go further than this and say that the necessary duties of the President since March last have not gone beyond a few appointments and the framing and signing of two or three treaties, in the whole of which there was probably not over a week's work to a man as familiar with public affairs and public men as General Garfield was when he took office. Nevertheless, as every reader of the newspapers knows, he was, until he went away to Long Branch with Mrs. Garfield, overwhelmed with work, which followed him even to his wife's sick bed, and constituted a draught on his nervous force such as even a strong man could not bear with impunity. It was work which began when he rose in the morning, and ended only when he retired for the night, and work of the most harassing and exhausting kind. But it was wholly unnecessary work. It was not work imposed on him by the Constitution or the laws. It contributed nothing to the improvement of the administration or of any other public interest. It did not tend to promote the public welfare in any manner whatever.

Now in what did this work consist? What was it? Simply the work of listening to arguments in favor of giving some hundreds of small offices, which were not vacant, to a few thousand insignificant and obscure persons who had discovered that they were unable to make a decent livelihood in any of the ordinary pursuits of active American life. It was to this class—one of the least important and the least worthy of the community—that he made the tremendous sacrifice of health and strength to which all the newspapers called attention during his first four months of office. Let us add that, had Guiteau not struck him down, he would have been kept busy in the same manner all summer, if he had remained in or near Washington. So that the business which has suffered most from the tragedy is not, after all, the legitimate business of the Government. It is a business for which it is the solemn duty of the country to insist that all Presidents shall be permanently disabled, and disabled with a disability which no Vice-President can make good.

Mr. Robeson has given a *Tribune* reporter his views on the inability question. As to the meaning of the term he says: "Whenever an officer meets a duty, the performance of which is actually or legally required of him, and he is unable to perform it, at the time when its performance is required of him, then an inability exists." On the other hand: "So long as the President is able intelligently to desire his Cabinet officers to discharge the duties which they are authorized by law to perform as his representatives, and so long as he is able affirmatively to desire that no other policy be pursued than that which is being followed out, then no inability will arise until some actual duty is presented which the Cabinet is not able to perform"; which is undoubtedly very true, but comes to little more than saying that inability to exercise the duties of his office consists in a want of ability to perform them. As to the constitutional method of deciding when a case of inability has arisen, Mr. Robeson thinks that there is no question that Congress, under its general authority to make laws carrying into execution powers vested in any officer of the Government, may legislate on the subject; but he thinks that while it may pass a law with regard to future cases of inability, it cannot judicially determine whether in a given case inability has arisen, because its functions under the Constitution are legislative and not judicial.

But this distinction has no bearing on the case at all. Congress, if it has the power to make a law on the subject, may pass a special just as well as a general statute, and while it cannot hold an inquest or arrive at any judicial conclusion itself, it can pass a law directing how and by whom an enquiry shall be made, and there is no reason why such a law should not apply to the present as well as to any future case. In the absence of legislation, Mr. Robeson thinks that the Vice-President should decide the question, upon the general principle that when the law imposes a duty upon any person to be performed in a certain contingency, he is to decide when that contingency occurs; but he does not inform us of any case in which this principle has been applied to offices, nor does he, as we should expect a jurist who displays such a tenderness for the distinction between judicial and other functions to do, refer to the bearing upon the matter of the still older principle of law, that no man shall be judge in his own case. Mr. Robeson thinks that if the President himself should declare his inability, this would be satisfactory evidence of the fact, or if the Cabinet and attending physicians should certify the fact, the Vice-President might act upon it. But, as we have before now had occasion to point out, if the Vice-President is really the judge of the matter, he is not restricted to any particular kind of evidence. He may decide it by reading the *Herald* despatches, or by an interview with Dr. Hammond, and, if Mr. Robeson's theory is correct, his decision would be final.

Mr. Evarts has been interviewed on his return from Europe by several reporters of the morning papers as to the results of the International Monetary Conference. His account, if we understand it rightly, does not seem very encouraging. To the *Herald* reporter he said

that the Conference "forced two conclusions on the minds of most of its members: that gold and silver, by being made in their relative capacity mediums of exchange, can add materially to the interests and convenience of commerce, and that by a proper understanding between the different governments the bi-metallic standard can be made to adjust itself easily and profitably to all concerned." This is not quite clear, because gold and silver are now "in their relative capacity" mediums of exchange in all European countries, the silver trouble consisting in the fact that the "relative capacity" differs in different countries. Moreover, the Conference, as we supposed, was held for the purpose of bringing about "the proper understanding" between the various governments. If it has not succeeded in bringing it about, its labors have been very like those of a man who should say that he had made an important step towards the purchase of a certain horse, for he had obtained from the owner a promise to sell him if they could agree on the price. Mr. Evarts also told the *World* reporter that through the Conference "foreign powers were made aware that there was nothing selfish on our part in the silver movement, that we were really working for the general good," and that "we expect a large and increasing share in the commerce and trade of the world." We are greatly afraid, however, that these truths were not borne in on the minds of the delegates without exciting a certain amount of secret mirth. An American silver man "working for the general good" would be to the European eye as diverting a spectacle as an American who was afraid people would doubt his desire for an "increasing share" in whatever trade was going. However, nobody has any right to blame Mr. Evarts or the Conference for not accomplishing more, for the simple reason that they had to deal with a subject so strongly appealing to the selfishness of every nation concerned that, where interests are not clearly identical, each looks out for its own. In fact, the object and the proper object of the Conference was to ascertain the best mode of promoting selfish interests without damage to others. It was not a philanthropic gathering in any sense.

We suggested the other day that Lieutenant Flipper, in considering what might be done to free himself from the difficult position in which embezzlement of public moneys had placed him, had apparently overlooked the case of Cadet Whittaker. If on the discovery of his peculations he had at once boldly denounced the whole affair as a military conspiracy to injure his race and prevent negroes from entering the army, he might at least have secured a protracted enquiry; and this would have given time for the manufacture of all sorts of theories, to say nothing of testimony which might have been of the greatest possible use to him. It might not have led to his acquittal, but it would at least have given him a national reputation and made him a representative man, and at the end of it the lecture field would have been open to him with the certainty of profitable employment. But by "giving himself away," just as a white officer might under the circumstances, he has become an ordinary embezzler, differing from other embezzlers merely in having a black skin. His friends now see that a mistake was made, and according to the latest despatches want him to come forward and denounce his fellow-officers for their attack upon him, and be "vindicated." But it is too late, for he has returned the money.

It seems to be now all but certain that Hartmann, who has been figuring here as a Nihilist and assassin of the most truculent type, and whom many enemies of assassination among us were eager to surrender to Russia, law or no law, is an impostor. Russia does not want him, having enough of the genuine conspirators. If it be true that Hartmann has been playing on our horror of murder to get himself some notoriety, it will serve as a useful warning against being too much troubled by the very numerous sham cut-throats and incendiaries who are now blowing up ships and condemning kings and prime ministers to death—in the newspapers. As we said a day or two ago, the passion for notoriety seems to be one of the most powerful motives of the age. Men will commit murder in order to procure it, but if they can procure it by simply accusing themselves of murder, or by threatening murder, they will be satisfied, because real bloodthirstiness is not common.

Among the most important changes introduced by the new Code of Criminal Procedure, which went into effect on Thursday, are those relating to the preliminary examination of persons charged with crime. These examinations have hitherto been entirely public. The new Code provides (sections 203-205) that the magistrate before whom the prisoner is brought must, "*upon the request of the defendant,*" exclude from the examination every person except the clerk of the magistrate, the prosecutor and his counsel, the Attorney-General, the District Attorney of the county, the defendant and his counsel, and the officer having the defendant in custody"; that the testimony of the witnesses must be taken down in writing, and that these depositions and the statement of the accused person, if any, also made in writing, must be kept private, and must not be inspected "by any person except a judge of a court having jurisdiction of the offence, the Attorney-General, the District Attorney of the county, and the defendant and his counsel." There is, it seems, some difference of opinion among the police justices in this city as to the precise meaning of these provisions, and a great unwillingness to comply strictly with them, one justice being reported to have said that there was nothing in the language of the Code to prevent his communicating with the reporters after the examination was over anything he saw fit to tell them about the case.

It is the press, of course, that is most affected by the changes, and there can hardly be a doubt that the clauses were intended to enable persons arrested for crime to "keep their names out of the papers." This is shown by the fact that the private examination is only to be had at the request of the defendant. There seems to be no reason why the prosecutor, or the county or the State should not have the same privilege. Cases continually arise in which the interest of the public would be greatly promoted by a private examination, but the Code does not allow it to be demanded by any one except the defendant. The true way would be to give the magistrate a discretion to make the examination private or public, but for the fact that the class of men who generally sit as magistrates, particularly in large cities, where most arrests are made, is not such that the public would willingly see them trusted with such a discretion. What sort of a notion of their duties many of them have may be inferred by the remark we have referred to above. A judge who sees no reason why he should not give "items" to reporters, with regard to a matter directed to be strictly private by the Legislature, is hardly likely to be a good man to repose any sort of "discretion" in.

The New York money market became decidedly "easier" for borrowers late in the week on account of the large arrivals of foreign specie and the extraordinary disbursements of the Treasury for 5 per cent. bonds redeemed. The foreign gold receipts were sufficient during the week to raise the total since the beginning of August to $8,377,349 against $12,869,243 in the corresponding time a year ago. The improved condition of the loan market was only slightly reflected in the weekly statement of the banks, which is a statement of average condition for the week instead of actual condition at the close of the week. The Bank of England and other leading European banks are using their influence to check the flow of gold to this country, as they have much less to spare than a year ago. Whether they will be able to keep our gold imports from August to January 1st next below $25,000,000 is very doubtful; but it is not expected that as much will be imported as a year ago. The public debt was reduced during the month of August $14,181,221, making $24,259,244 for the first two months of the fiscal year. The surplus revenues of the Treasury continue large, and it is expected that, during the autumn, bond purchases will be resumed, either of the 4 per cent. bonds or of the extended 5 per cents, which now bear 3½ per cent. No apparent progress has been made towards a settlement of the railroad war; the tonnage of the roads continues large, and there is every indication that the present volume of mercantile transactions throughout the country was never exceeded at this season. Our cereal crops have been injured by the prevailing drouth, while the harvests of Great Britain have been reduced by heavy rains. Speculation in grain has, however, subsided here during the week, and the price of wheat and corn has reacted. The Stock Exchange markets were very dull, but in the latter part of the week prices recovered the decline of the first half and advanced somewhat more. The market

for silver bullion was very dull, and the price in London closed at 51¼d. per ounce. The bullion value here of the 412½-grain silver dollar at the close was $0.8662.

The report of the receivers of the Manhattan Railway shows that the net earnings of the elevated railways are not sufficient to pay the stipulated interest on bonds and dividends on stock of the New York and Metropolitan Elevated Railways—the deficiency during the past two years having been $727,318. No account is made here of the city's claim for taxes. The deficiency, including disputed taxes, is upwards of $1,400,000, being something more than $700,000 per year. The capital stock of the Manhattan Company, $13,000,000, the report adds, was divided between the New York and Metropolitan companies, or their stockholders, as a consideration of the leases, no money having been paid for it. This showing is an ample justification of the proceedings instituted by the Attorney-General to put the company in liquidation. If there be any means by which the victims of this gigantic confidence game—the outside buyers of Manhattan stock—can be helped to recover their money, we trust they will be brought in requisition. It is to be feared, however, that the law furnishes no remedy for the misfortunes of those who buy "water" knowing it to be water, and who expect it to turn into milk through the chemical action of Wall Street.

The Cornell crew have again been making a sad exhibition of themselves, in disregard of a very judicious telegram from Ithaca which met them on their landing, requesting them to say nothing more about their Shinkel scandal. They have said a good deal more, and apparently enough to show that Shinkel was, after all, as a gentleman not greatly inferior to his company. They confess that they went abroad with no guarantees as to his character, apparently thinking it sufficient that he was a fine athlete, and being able to live in his society very comfortably. When they began to suspect him, they went to work to convict him very much in the style of sharpers who thought one of their fellows was "going back on them." Two of them, who apparently slept in the same room with him, lay awake with the view of searching his clothing after he had gone asleep; but he was too smart for them, and took his pocket-book to bed with him. They say now that he sold all the races, and made much money by it, and that he is afraid to come home, and will probably stay in London. The moral of it all is, that when a college crew goes abroad to row matches the moral character of its members is even more important than their muscle.

A Conservative Fair Trader has carried the North Durham election in England also; and this second triumph of the new idea is exciting a flutter in the Liberal ranks. There has been a similar triumph in Cambridgeshire on much the same issue. The Liberals are, in fact, very likely to lose on it every seat that may fall vacant in such of the counties as they wrested from the Conservatives in 1878 by small majorities. There could not be a more striking illustration of the sore need of an issue or "cry" in which the Conservative party now finds itself than Sir Stafford Northcote's admission that he is in favor of free trade if it is reciprocated, inasmuch as he has hitherto been a free trader without conditions, and in all economical matters an old pupil of Mr. Gladstone's.

We have once or twice spoken of the failure of the British "Fair Traders," as they call themselves, to produce any definite plan for bringing "fair trade" about. Sir Edward Sullivan, one of the leaders of the movement, has, however, made a suggestion in the last *Nineteenth Century*, on which the London *Economist* comments eagerly as the first substantial basis for discussion the new party has yet furnished. Sir Edward's plan is to put five shillings per quarter on the wheat imported into Great Britain, which he says would bring £6,250,000 into the Treasury, and thus "relieve other sources of taxation," such as the income tax. This of itself, however, would not help either the British farmer or the manufacturer. It would bring some money into the Treasury from a new source, but to serve the purposes of the Fair Traders it would have to frighten the Americans into changing their tariff. But there is no reason why it should. The American wheat would still be sold in England at the old rate. The consumers would pay a little more for it, but that would not trouble the American farmers. It would not enable British farmers to compete with them, or make it possible for British farmers to grow wheat enough for the home demand. In fact the Americans would not need to trouble themselves in the least about it. It would increase the cost of production to the English manufacturer, and thus make it more difficult for him to get access to the American market, or in other words make the American manufacturer easier in his mind than ever. The *Economist* suggests a more excellent way, which is that the British Government should pay the British farmer a bounty on the wheat he raises.

What is, perhaps, most comic about the "Fair Trade" movement is that our Pennsylvanians do not like it. The great and fundamental doctrine of the Pennsylvanian political economy is that each nation should think of itself as alone in the world, and so legislate in fiscal matters as to make it, as far as climate and soil will permit, self-sufficing. Anybody who does not believe this is apt not to find himself comfortable in Pennsylvania. But it would now appear that this is not, after all, one of the great central truths of the universe. On the contrary, it is liable to modifications, or rather, as the Catholic theologians say, it is a truth which should be economized in its applications. It is clearly not applicable to Great Britain, because it would there lead to the loss of a very important market for American produce. Now, what causes loss to American producers cannot be a truth of the universe, but only local truth.

We do not believe, however, they have yet fully realized the bearing of the Fair-Trade agitation on American interests, and we therefore beg their attention to one or two very important facts. In the year 1879–80 the United States exported to all parts of the world merchandise to the value of $823,946,353, 83 per cent. of which consisted of agricultural products. Of this, $459,406,475 (reckoning the pound sterling at five dollars), or considerably more than one-half, went to Great Britain. In the same year the United States exported wheat to the value of $190,546,305, and of this enormous quantity Great Britain took $97,752,110 worth, or again more than one-half. We might go through the remainder of the list of eatables—83 per cent. of our exports—with the same result. Great Britain is in fact not simply our best market, but by far our best market. Nothing that any one foreign nation could do would disturb our industry and derange our finances so much as a serious modification of her tariff in the direction of protection to her farmers.

It is reported by cable as a rumor that Mr. Kurd von Schloezer, the Minister of the German Empire to the United States, is likely to be appointed German Ambassador to the Vatican. The fact that he has been recently sent there on an extraordinary mission of a very important and delicate nature, gives color to the rumor. It shows that he possesses the confidence of Prince Bismarck in a high degree, and it would seem natural, if a German Ambassador is to be sent to the Vatican at all, that the extraordinary envoy who was first entrusted with the negotiations resulting in a renewal of regular diplomatic intercourse with the Pope, should have the place. Mr. von Schloezer is known in this country, after ten years' residence, as a man of great sagacity, of wide information, of rare keenness as an observer, of enlightened views, and of untiring industry. Added to these qualities, the overflowing cheerfulness of his character has made him, probably, in the best sense, the most popular Minister Germany ever had here, and while his friends will congratulate him upon his promotion, his recall from this country will be widely and sincerely regretted.

Affairs are not going well with the French in Tunis. The Arabs continue to resist and reinforcements to go out, and the money to disappear, and the climate to be unhealthy, and the heat unbearable, and the Arab horsemen difficult to catch. General Corréard gave them, as he reported, a severe thrashing lately, at Sourki, killing six hundred with a loss of only thirty to himself. But somehow, when the fighting was over, it was not the Arabs but the French who retreated, and the Bey's troops, who were near by, refused to take any part in the affair. There are numerous signs already that the French public begins to repent of its bargain and wishes itself out of a venture which is likely to swallow up much money and many men. The Ministers evidently looked for this reaction when they pushed on the election so as to take the vote before the pale cast of thought had begun to show itself on the treaty.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

THE week has been an uneventful one, the President continuing to "hold his own" beyond doubt, but not visibly improving. On the 30th ultimo still another incision was made in the parotid gland, which led to a considerable increase in the frequency of the pulse, and it was discovered that the ball had moved downward, which proved of course that it had not become encysted, but was regarded by the physicians as increasing the probability of its removal. On the 31st the pulse went down to ninety-five degrees, the parotid swelling sensibly diminished, and, in view of the advent of September, the question of removal was again discussed, Dr. Hamilton having this time more support among his associates. On Thursday, the only change was a rise of the pulse, which alarmed no one. The Friday bulletins reported no change at all. On Saturday, removal to Long Branch was determined upon, the President having gained slightly during the day. The plan of a sea trip on the *Tallapoosa* was abandoned after discussion and an inspection of the quarters that could be made use of. On Sunday a little more fever was observable, and the President vomited twice, which, however, was owing to an accumulation of phlegm rather than to serious gastric disturbance. Monday was the hottest day of the season; and the heat, together with the anticipation of removal, had a slightly unfavorable effect. The evening bulletin gave the pulse as 108, the temperature as 99.8, and the respiration as 18, and announced the removal on the morrow.

The President was removed from the White House to Long Branch, or rather Elberon, on Tuesday morning. Every preparation for the journey was completed by Monday night, and shortly after sunrise the President's bed was placed on a stretcher, specially made for it, and the whole taken down stairs by Doctors Bliss, Boynton, and Reyburn, and Colonels Rockwell, Corbin, and Swaim. These gentlemen placed it in the large express van which had been prepared for its reception, and taking it on their knees supported it thus while the van was slowly driven to the train at the terminus of the new track across Pennsylvania avenue, the President opening his eyes but twice as two slight jolts occurred. The train reached, the horses were taken out and the van backed up to the car by soldiers, and the stretcher transferred to the bed provided for its transit. The party left the White House at 5:55 A. M., the train started at 6:20, and reached the cottage of Mr. C. G. Francklyn, which had been placed at the President's disposal, at 1:10, after a perfectly successful trip.

The War Department received news on Saturday of the massacre, by White Mountain Apaches in Arizona, of General Carr and his entire command, consisting of five officers and sixty-three men, besides the commander, all belonging to the Sixth Cavalry. Later intelligence, however, failed to confirm the rumor, and on Monday General McDowell transmitted General Carr's official report of the engagement thus magnified into a terrible disaster. Under orders to arrest an Indian "medicine man" who had been stirring up strife, General Carr marched from Fort Apache on Monday, the 29th ultimo, with six officers, seventy-nine soldiers, and twenty-three Indian scouts. The next day he reached the village of the "doctor" and arrested him peaceably. As the troops were making camp, however, the scouts and many other Indians fired on them and stampeded their horses. The "doctor" was immediately killed, and the Indians driven off after a severe fight. A forced return march to Fort Apache was then made, and immediately after the arrival of the troops the post was attacked, but the assailants were repulsed. The loss is: Killed, Captain Hentig and ten privates; wounded, First Lieutenant C. G. Gordon, one sergeant, and one private. Forty-five horses and ten mules are killed, wounded, or missing. The treachery of the scouts is said to be unexampled, Indians employed by the Government having hitherto always proved faithful. Monday's despatches presaged a general rising of the Apache nation.

The reduction in the public debt for August is over $14,000,000, and for the two months ending on Thursday, $24,250,000. The August reduction has only been exceeded twice since March, 1877.

Reports of the damage and discomfort created by long-continued drought come from New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Kentucky, New York, and Canada. In Richmond, Virginia, there has been great suffering from lack of water, and at Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, and in the surrounding neighborhood a scarcity of water that is almost a famine is reported. The suburbs of New York are many of them badly off from the same cause. In northern New York and Canada, forest fires have burned over large districts.

Later reports from the South estimate the damage done in Savannah by the recent cyclone at $1,500,000. Most of the South Carolina rice plantations were submerged. Details as to the loss of life and personal injuries are extremely distressing, though the total is not greater than at first conjectured.

It appears from a letter written to Washington by his attorney that Lieutenant Flipper was short in his accounts to the amount of $300, part of which was found in the possession of his servant and the remainder of which was made up by some citizens of Fort Davis and by Colonel Shafter of Flipper's regiment, who contributed $100. The conspiracy "theory" has already been broached, but the "general sentiment" at Washington among colored people is reported to be one of indignation against Flipper.

Captain Howgate, the accused ex-Signal Service disbursing officer, failed to keep an engagement with his bondsmen on Thursday, and has not since been heard from. The bondsmen will, if he does not return, lose the amount of the bail—$40,000—inasmuch as an indemnity bond executed in their favor by Howgate was not filed, owing to some mishap, till after the Government had attached the property of the accused.

At a meeting of the Canal Board at Albany on the 30th ultimo, State Engineer Seymour presented an opinion upon the question of restoring west-bound tolls. Such a restoration he regarded as "a policy which proposes to destroy the business and tolls of the canals, ruin the 50,000 persons connected with them, and the $20,000,000 of property invested in them, this season, for fear that possibly they may meet with some disaster in 1882." Superintendent Dutcher and Comptroller Wadsworth, the committee appointed to investigate the propriety of adopting the proposition referred to, reported adversely to any reimposition during the present season. Their report was accepted and its recommendation adopted.

The receivers of the Manhattan Elevated Railway Company, ex-Judge John F. Dillon and Mr. A. L. Hopkins, rendered their annual report on Monday, which was filed in the County Clerk's Office in Albany. The capital stock of the company is reported to be $13,000,000, all paid for leases, no money having been paid on account of the stock itself. $175,000 are needed for necessary repairs, though the road is said by engineers employed by the receivers to be in better condition than when first operated. The total earnings are given as $10,541,769 65, and the total disbursements as $10,455,749 98, leaving $86,019 67 cash on hand. An "immense deficiency" is reported between liabilities and assets. Judge Westbrook ordered the repairs recommended.

The Cincinnati Southern Railroad has been leased for twenty-five years to Mr. Frederic Wolfe, of this city, who is believed to represent the Messrs. Erlanger, for about $1,750,000 a year, the lessee agreeing to stock the road and keep it in perfect repair. The five next highest bidders have endeavored fruitlessly to find some irregularity in the lease, which is considered a good one for the lessee as well as for the city.

The Coroner's Jury in the case of Jennie Cramer, a young girl found dead, but not drowned, in the water at New Haven some weeks ago, rendered a verdict on Saturday holding James Malley, jr., "criminally responsible," and Walter Malley and Blanche Douglass "morally responsible," for the death of the deceased. The three persons referred to were variously intimate with the dead girl and had been seen with her shortly before her body was found. The post-mortem examination, which "did not reveal the cause or manner of death," in the words of the examiner, and the chemical examination, which discovered enough arsenic "to indicate a probably fatal dose," furnish all the additional evidence upon which the verdict of the jury is based, so far as yet appears. The Malleys and Blanche Douglass have been for some time in jail, and the Malleys were arraigned for murder on Monday.

The New York Republican State Committee met at the Fifth Avenue Hotel on the 31st ultimo, selected October 5 as the time, and this city as the place for holding the next State Convention, and, in the absence of Vice-President Arthur, chose ex-Senator Thomas C. Platt as chairman *pro. tem.*

The Tammany General Committee met for the first time in several months on Friday evening last. Mr. Augustus Schell was absent, Mr. Grady, "the silver-tongued orator of the Fourth ward," made a speech; resolutions against monopolies and expressing appropriate sentiments in regard to the attempted murder of the President were passed, but the event of the evening was the oration of Mr. Kelly himself. Mr. Kelly poked fun at the Committee of One Hundred of the New York County Democracy, which he called a "conglomeration"; paid his respects to a treacherous Democratic press; said he "should like to see" the Tammany Hall Democracy kept out of a regular convention of the party—which is now the most interesting problem of speculation in Democratic circles—and disclaimed once more all responsibility for the defeat of General Hancock last fall. The Irving Hall faction met the evening before and resolved that "harmony" was the most important object of Democratic endeavor at present.

The Cornell crew, except Shinkel, arrived from Europe on Monday in the steamer *Spain*, and although they were met at Quarantine by a telegram from Ithaca desiring them to say nothing to reporters of the scandal, they were met at the same time by the reporters themselves and persuaded to talk freely. Commodore Chase said that after the first two or three days at Vienna Shinkel "kept away" from his comrades and was "always talking about his want of money and saying he had none." At the same time suspicions were first aroused by his fainting in the boat, "for which there was absolutely no reason" so far as has ever appeared. Some time afterwards the crew were informed by "a gentleman" that Shinkel had received 1,500 florins to sell them out. Then they "began to investigate," and found, by searching his trunk, that Shinkel "had bought a diamond," and heard that he had been trying to buy a draft on America. They said nothing then, but after getting to London informed Shinkel of their discoveries, and asked to search him. This he declined to permit, and they "at once concluded he was guilty," and "told the Associated Press that afternoon." Mr. Allen, one of the crew, added that, suspecting his clothes were to be searched one night, Shinkel took his pocket-book to bed with him. The accused is still in London.

The deaths of Lorenzo Delmonico, the head of the famous house of New York restaurateurs, at Sharon Springs, N. Y.; of ex-Congress-

man Hendrick B. Wright, at Wilkesbarre, Pa., and of Wm. L. Hanscom, ex-Chief of the Construction Bureau of the U. S. Navy, at Malden, Mass., occurred during the week.

FOREIGN.

Mr. John Dillon's withdrawal from agitation on the ground that the Land Bill will suit his countrymen too well to make agitation on any important scale possible, is regarded in England as convincing testimony to the value of that measure. The *Pall Mall Gazette* observes that Mr. Dillon's speech is the "strongest possible confirmation of the soundness of the Government policy." The Ballymena Tenant-Right Association has protested against Mr. Parnell's attempt to force a Land League candidate on the people of Tyrone. Mr. John Givan, appointed Assistant Commissioner under the Land Act, is said to be a pronounced partisan of tenant right, and his appointment to be "viewed with alarm" accordingly, by landlords. A large meeting of tenant farmers and others at Saintfield, County Down, on the 29th ultimo, expressed great satisfaction with the bill. The Bishop of Meath has written to Mr. Parnell that the bill ought to have a fair trial, though it is very incomplete, and he recommends the rejection of the Whig candidate at Tyrone to "teach Mr. Gladstone a lesson." In the North of Ireland numerous bonfires were lighted on Saturday night as a mark of gratitude to Mr. Gladstone. Two "suspects" have been released "on parole," and Mr. Lowell has written to Earl Granville asking for a medical examination in the case of Mr. Walsh, the alleged American, who has now been six months in prison. The members of the Irish Parliamentary party are arranging for a testimonial to Mr. Joseph Cowen, M. P. for Newcastle, for his opposition to the Coercion Bill. The Dublin Corporation has resolved to further peasant proprietary by the sale of their agricultural property to occupying tenants, "whenever compatible with the interests of rate-payers."

A riot began on Sunday in Limerick, arising from "insulting remarks" made by some soldiers about the Pope. The police fired upon a stone-throwing crowd and wounded fifteen persons (Limerick despatch), several of them dangerously. On Monday the state of affairs was scarcely better. Soldiers were stoned and charged the mob, who, after dispersing once, armed themselves and "attempted to decoy the police from the barracks," but "the stratagem failed," and serious bloodshed was avoided. Reinforcements were expected to arrive on the following day.

At the annual meeting in Dublin, on Thursday, of the Property Defense Association, it was determined to "put the organization on a permanent basis for three years," in the words of the despatch. The society has at present 120 men doing duty as "caretakers," and 160 engaged in saving crops.

The election in North Lincolnshire for the vacancy in the House of Commons caused by the death of Mr. Laycock, Liberal, resulted last week in the return of the Right Hon. James Lowther, Conservative, by a vote of 4,200 to 3,729 for the Liberal candidate. In North Durham, Sir George Elliott was elected to the seat of the late Mr. Joicey, Liberal, by a vote of 6,606 to 4,954 for his Liberal opponent. In both instances the canvass had been conducted mainly upon the tariff issue, the Conservative cry being for "Fair Trade"—a course reprehended by the *Standard*, by the way. Sir George Elliott's election is chiefly attributed to his "coquetting" with the Irish, who, to the number of 1,000 in this district, voted against the Liberal candidate upon Mr. Parnell's advice. The Marquis of Blandford has within the week assumed and withdrawn from the Liberal candidature for Cambridgeshire.

Mr. Bradlaugh has issued another proclamation to the English people, expressing an intention of going again to the House of Commons at the next session of Parliament, and asking protection against unlawful violence—at the hands of the House itself, apparently.

The Court of Inquiry into the *Doterel* explosion, which has been sitting at Plymouth, England, has rendered its decision acquitting the captain and officers of all blame for the disaster, and expressing its opinion that the first explosion was caused by gas in the coal bunkers into which a light had probably been introduced, and that the second was the result of the first.

A London despatch from Cape Town reports the wreck of the Union Company's steamship *Teuton* near Quoin Point on the 30th ult. Of the 147 passengers but 12, and of the 80 officers and crew but 23, were saved, though it is not certain that these figures are precisely accurate. The captain was lost. The vessel struck on a rock, floated off, and in three hours sank, owing to the collapse of the bulkhead dividing the injured compartment from that next to it.

It is announced that Gambetta's acceptance of the Premiership, which is now being demanded by almost the entire Left, will be conditional on the fusion of the different Republican groups, except, of course, the Irreconcilables. The London *Times's* Paris correspondent says that President Grévy will wait till M. Jules Ferry encounters a hostile vote in the Chamber before offering the Premiership to Gambetta. Speaking at a banquet on Sunday night, the latter expressed doubt as to the expediency of reopening the question of electoral reform immediately upon the assembling of the new Chamber, but thought it should be simply postponed, not abandoned, a fresh appeal to the country being unadvisable now. A reference to Sedan, which, he said, could have been wiped out if France had had "more steadfast hearts, more virtue, patriotism, independence, and disdain for material enjoyments," received the usual applause.

The supplementary elections in France on Sunday, held in those districts in which there was no declared result a fortnight before, resulted in the success of fifty-six Republicans of various shades, three Royalists, and five Bonapartists. The Republicans gain ten and lose two seats. Marseilles, Besançon, and Lyons returned Irreconcilables. Tony Révillon, Gambetta's Belleville opponent, defeated M. Sicks, Gambettist, and Maret, another Intransigeant, was successful in the other Parisian district which voted over again. The new Chamber will stand as follows: Republicans, 459; Bonapartists, 47; Monarchists, 41.

General Corréard's column was attacked last week near Sourki by a large force of Arabs, who were driven back with, according to his report, six hundred killed and wounded, the French having but fifteen killed and twenty wounded. A Marseilles despatch reports the immediate preparation of five large transport ships for North Africa. An army corps now forming will be sent half to Tunis and half to Algeria. More forest fires are reported in Algeria, twelve hundred hectares of woods being on fire near Algiers alone on the 29th ultimo, and two hundred thousand acres having been burnt over in the whole district. Hammamet has been occupied by the French without opposition. A concentration of Arabs for the defence of Kairouan is forming.

The German elections are to take place on October 27. In Berlin three Anti-Semitic candidates are running, one of them being Herr Stöcker, whose chances of election, though he is opposed by Professor Virchow, are esteemed good. The Guelph party of Hanover have issued a manifesto to the body of German electors begging for the restoration of the ancient monarchy of Hanover, and protesting against the "Prussianizing" of Germany.

Dr. Korum, the new Bishop of Treves, whose appointment is believed to argue the abandonment by Prince Bismarck of his anti-Catholic policy, was presented to the Emperor at Berlin on the 31st ultimo. He will be installed at Strassburg on the 9th instant. The *Germania* newspaper denies that he has an official mission from the Pope to the Chancellor, and declares that he holds the same views as the other Catholic bishops in regard to the abolition of the May laws.

A St. Petersburg despatch of the 31st ultimo, to the *Herald*, says: "The Hartmann who has visited you in America is a fraud. The real Hartmann is known to have been elsewhere throughout your country." The authority for this intelligence is "a high dignitary whose name you will easily guess" from the context to be General Ignatieff, but nothing is given to elucidate the despatch itself. The London *Standard* has a report that Hartmann has offered to turn informer on condition of being amnestied, which has so far been denied neither by the Hartmann who has visited us nor by him who is elsewhere throughout the country.

The St. Petersburg Nihilist organ has reappeared after a silence of three months. General Ignatieff, it is rumored, is to be made Vice-Chancellor of the Empire, Count Shuvaloff succeeding him as Minister of the Interior. The Czar and the Emperor William are expected to meet during the German military manœuvres at Konitz this week. The Vienna *Neue Freie Presse* says that the Emperor went to the Hanover manœuvres last week by a different route from that first intended, through fear of Socialist attacks on his life.

A St. Petersburg despatch, dated the 3d instant, says that by the terms of a Russo-Chinese convention, just signed, China has agreed to permit telegraph wires to be run across the Empire, and that Russia has already entrusted the work to the Danish company which laid down the Russian wires, and which is really a Russian corporation.

The funeral of Pietro Cossa, the Italian dramatic poet, at Naples, on Saturday, was attended by popular demonstrations and marked by the presence of representatives of the Cabinet and the Chamber.

An International Geographical Congress and Exhibition opened at Venice on the 1st instant. Russia, France, Italy, and Sweden are large exhibitors. England is poorly represented, but the Indian Government sends what is described as a "splendid collection" of maps.

A movement has been set on foot by a number of Englishmen and Germans, according to a Constantinople correspondent, to obtain from the Porte a grant of land in Syria for Jews who desire to emigrate from countries where they are suffering persecution, and a delegate is now at Constantinople endeavoring to secure the approval of the Porte. The Sultan is believed to favor the scheme, which will be recognized as Mr. Laurence Oliphant's.

The Sultan's dismissal of the Financial Administrator at Bayazid, in Armenia, is accepted in England as the firsts fruits of the gentle pressure Lord Dufferin is exercising upon the Porte in behalf of the reforms guaranteed by the Treaty of Berlin.

The census of India, just completed, shows a population of 252,500,000.

Ayub Khan issued a proclamation on the 31st ultimo, announcing that he no longer intended to fight the Amir, but was about to attack the British; and accordingly he invited all persons having weapons belonging to the Government to consider them their own provided they would join his standard at once. He is sending as much cash to Herat as he can get hold of, and apparently desires to collect there rifles also; and it is expected that he will retreat thither as soon as the Amir gets within fighting distance. Herat he can defend almost indefinitely, while hoping for another revolution at Kabul. Meantime the popularity of the Amir is said to be constantly increasing, and deservedly so.

THE INABILITY QUESTION.

THE uncertain though improving chances of the President's recovery necessarily give a renewed importance to the discussion of the "inability" clause of the Constitution. At the best, he must remain for some weeks or even months—probably until the time fixed for the assembling of Congress—in a very helpless condition, and one which will make it impossible for him to discharge as a well man could the duties of his office. The Constitution provides that, in case of the removal from office of the President, or of his death, resignation, "or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President." The questions presented by this clause, so far as it bears upon the present condition of affairs, are first, what "inability" means, and second, who is to decide when it arises.

In the consideration of these questions we have no precedents to guide us, and we must rely chiefly upon common sense and the plain language of the clause itself. The word "inability" is coupled in the Constitution with three terms, each of which imports an absolute extinction of the capacity to discharge executive functions. Inability, on the other hand, may be either permanent or temporary. If, for example, a President should by a paralytic stroke actually be deprived of his mind, there could be no question that a case contemplated by the Constitution had arisen. If, on the other hand, he were to have an attack of fever which produced delirium, he would undoubtedly be temporarily deprived of the power to discharge the duties of his office, but we can hardly imagine that in such a case the framers of the Constitution intended that the Vice-President should take his place. The chief objection to such an interpretation is that, as a temporary inability of this kind may be removed, and then may return, the result might be an official see-saw between the two officers, which would not only be very ridiculous, but might actually make it difficult to know from month to month who was President—a situation of affairs to the last degree prejudicial to the repose and welfare of the country. If there is one thing that the experience of all nations teaches about the executive head of a Government it is that there must be no sort of doubt as to who he is, and we may be very sure that the framers of the Constitution knew this just as well as we do.

Between the two cases that we have just supposed there may be a third kind of inability, which is neither evidently permanent, nor evidently temporary, which may last a long time, and the probable extent and duration of which may be very difficult or impossible to ascertain. Such is actually the case which has now arisen. All that we know about the President is that he has been lying for some time nearly at the point of death, and that he must in any event remain a very sick man for a long time to come. He has, we believe, in the course of the last two months signed some documents which were imperatively needed, and has probably now and then consulted with members of his Cabinet; but beyond this we know little or nothing. Under these circumstances, has a case of "inability" arisen? Here again we find ourselves confronted by a difficulty quite as great as that of determining what "inability" is. The Constitution does not provide any means of ascertaining when a case of inability has arisen. It is silent upon the subject.

The reason of its silence does not seem to us to be hard to guess, the moment we appreciate, as everybody must now appreciate, the impossibility of defining in advance what extent of physical or mental disease or disability will actually make a change in the head of the Government necessary. This is not a matter of common notoriety, like death or removal, but is one about which it may be very difficult to get any but conflicting testimony, and one as to which much of it will be pretty sure to be warped by interest and party bearing. To attempt to define in advance what "inability" should vacate the office was impossible. The framers of the Constitution saw clearly enough that the whole question was surrounded with difficulties, and therefore, while carefully providing against such a possibility as now confronts us, they wisely left each case to be settled upon its own merits, according to the circumstances. Substantially they said, If the President cannot perform his duties, the Vice-President shall; but whether and when any given Vice-President shall be substituted for any given President, you must determine for yourselves.

The legal interviews published during the past week on the subject of the President's inability show only one thing clearly—that at the present time there is no common agreement among the lawyers upon what ought to be done. Mr. Robeson as well as Mr. Brewster, formerly Attorney-General of Pennsylvania, are positive that the decision of the inability question lies with the Vice-President. Indeed, Mr. Brewster is so confident that the Vice-President is the only person who can decide it that he thinks, even if the President should certify to Mr. Arthur his own inability to act, and request him to take his place, this would not be conclusive, but would be merely "evidence" on the subject for him to consider. Mr. Shellabarger agrees with them as to the right of decision being with the Vice-President, but admits the possibility of a new complication arising, after a decision by him, through *quo warranto* or *mandamus* proceedings, on the ground that the matter had been incorrectly decided, and that the courts have power to review the decision. Mr. Brewster thinks that in such a case the Supreme Court would "oust him instantly." Senator Hoar, on the other hand, thinks that the framers of the Constitution by the use of the word "inability" meant nothing short of permanent disability, and that not only ought the Vice-President not to think of assuming the office, but "newspapers and public men ought not to discuss it"; while Governor Long comes to the conclusion that "neither the President, Vice-President, Cabinet, nor Congress" is "specially charged" with authority to decide.

All this diversity of opinion shows incontestably that no decision arrived at under the present circumstances would be accepted as conclusive, or would be generally satisfactory to the public. Mr. Arthur, if he came in now, except in the case of the President's asking him to do so, would always be thought by a very large number of people to have come in wrongfully and needlessly, and any doubt as to his right to the office would embitter opposition to him to such an extent as seriously to cripple and embarrass his administration. The mere suggestion of a *quo warranto* case over the Presidency, about which Mr. Brewster jauntily lays down the law, as if such a thing were an every-day matter, is enough to open people's eyes to the danger of a wrong decision. For it must be remembered that in political difficulties of this kind the danger not only arises from the probability of a particular step being taken, but from the alarm and anxiety caused by the public discussion of its possibility as well. To most people who will stop to think about it there is something extremely ludicrous in the idea of a President *de jure*, ousted for inability by the Vice-President, bringing *quo warranto* in a United States Circuit Court (for, *pace* Mr. Brewster, the Supreme Court certainly has no original jurisdiction of such a suit) to test the question of his right to the office; but most people are so affected by unreasoning fears that they do not stop to weigh probabilities, and if a large body of them felt that the matter had been wrongly decided, we may be sure that we should have plenty of such talk, and that such talk would do a vast deal to disturb the repose of the country and impair its prosperity.

Under these circumstances the undisputed fact that Congress has power to legislate upon the subject becomes of the extremest importance. Upon this point there seems to be a perfect unanimity of opinion; and indeed the language of the Constitution is too plain to admit of question. It expressly gives to Congress the power to make all laws necessary to carry into execution "the foregoing powers and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any department *or officer* thereof" (Art. 2, sec. 8). The act of March 1, 1792, passed only five years after the adoption of the Constitution, and in part by men who had helped to frame it, contains in one of its clauses an instance of an exercise of this power. It provides that "the only evidence of a refusal to accept, or of a resignation of, the office of President or Vice-President shall be an instrument in writing declaring the same and subscribed by the person refusing to accept or resigning, as the case may be, and delivered into the office of the Secretary of State." Nobody has ever doubted that this was valid legislation, and if Congress can declare what the evidence of resignation shall be, it can of course also declare what the evidence of inability shall be.

A settlement of the matter by Congress would have the great advantage that it would necessitate a full public discussion of the facts of the case, and of the law bearing upon them, with an opportunity for all parties and factions to present their arguments and state their views; that the interval of time before the meeting of Congress would be sufficient to prepare the country for a calm consideration of the matter, and that it would also very likely settle the practical question of Mr. Garfield's

disability so that there could be no room for difference of opinion about it. Congress is very unlikely to approach the subject in a factious spirit, while it is only too evident that many of the arguments now put forward with regard to it are the product of thinly disguised partisanship. It has been suggested that the President should himself call an extra session of Congress to consider his own "inability"; but we may be very sure that if he is able to call an extra session of Congress, he is able to decide the question of inability himself; and notwithstanding Mr. Brewster's ingenious distinction between inviting the Vice-President to take his place, and laying before him evidence that he ought to do so, it may be presumed that when Mr. Garfield makes up his mind that he is unable to perform his duties, the country will be perfectly satisfied that such is the fact. If he himself sees no reason for this, we do not think the country will be content with anything short of a dispassionate consideration of the matter by the body which, under the Constitution, has, beyond the possibility of dispute, full power to act.

THE ANGLO-FRENCH COMMERCIAL TREATY.

THE attitude of the principal countries of Europe with reference to international trade just now presents features of unusual interest. Germany, after a long and beneficial experience of free trade, has reverted to protection. The new policy was foisted upon her as one part of a political manœuvre, being the resultant of several forces contending together in the empire, no one of which was penetrated with any special views on the subject of foreign commercial intercourse. The deciding force was the landed interest, which wanted protection against the cheap food of Russia and the United States. But it is of little consequence how Germany came to be turned backward. She must be counted for the present among the nations who think that something can be gained by producing an artificial scarcity of goods in their own markets. The noticeable thing in Bismarck's commercial *coup* is that the mass of the German people seem at this moment to have no opinions on the subject of free trade and protection, and are not likely to have any until they are pinched in their pockets, and not even then until they find out what pinches them. Of course the manufacturers were too smart to allow a tax to be put upon grain without a corresponding duty in favor of their own products. But the bulk of the population, upon whom these taxes fall, heeded nothing of what was going on, and it will probably be some years before they find out what has happened to them.

The situation in France is, in some respects, similar. The commercial treaty with England being near its end, the manufacturers, who have found British competition inconvenient, have obtained the ear of the public authorities, as any class can do in a free government, provided the mass of the people are indifferent to the issue involved. By offering the agriculturists protection against the wheat-growers and pork-packers of the United States they have obtained the same boon for themselves as against the spinners and weavers of Great Britain. It is curious to notice, however, with what shame-facedness they went about it. The commercial treaty with England had been productive of great benefits to France, and had come to be recognized in a general way as one of the important things of life. It would be dangerous to attack it in front, to deny its advantages, or to intimate a purpose not to renew it. So the manufacturers proposed a change in the method of levying duties from *ad valorem* to specific rates, protection being more easily concealed under the latter device. When the negotiations for the new treaty were opened it was found that more time would be required to unravel the tangled skein of specific duties than had been allowed by the French authorities—that is, the old treaty would expire before the new one could be arranged. The negotiations were suspended temporarily, and the English Government asked for an extension of the existing treaty in order to make the necessary examination of the French general tariff and its bearings upon British manufactures. The reply of Mr. Tirard, the Minister of Commerce and Agriculture, was a papal *non possumus*—the Government had no power to grant an extension. It is really a matter of dispute at Paris whether the Government has such power or not. The weight of opinion seems to be that if the Government desired to extend the treaty temporarily, it had the power to do so; if not, not.

The conviction having forced itself upon the English public that they have been trifled with, there has been a complete change of sentiment respecting the treaty, to the no small surprise and chagrin of the French authorities. The latter desired to humor the protectionists and to favor them as much as possible, but to make some kind of a treaty which would satisfy the nation that the *entente cordiale* between the two great powers of Western Europe was undisturbed. England has taken the position that she will not enter into a treaty which she does not fully understand, and that if time cannot be allowed her to solve the puzzle of specific duties, she will take her chances under the French general tariff. She has also indicated, through the leading organs of public opinion, that she will not enter into a new treaty which is less favorable than the old one. Moreover, the party of free trade, pure and simple, have improved the occasion to attack all commercial treaties, including the one with France which is just now expiring, on the ground that they put England in a false position, and give the cue to the reciprocitarians and "fair-traders" to demand retaliatory duties against countries which maintain hostile tariffs against Great Britain. Earl Grey commenced this battle some two years ago, when the preliminaries of treaty renewal with France were on foot. He made an assault upon the principle of the treaty which was simply overwhelming from the English point of view. Time has now proved that the theory upon which Cobden and Chevalier proceeded—namely, that the benefits of free trade would become so obvious in the course of twenty years that neither country would again consent to artificial restrictions upon commerce—was altogether faulty. In fact, the contrary has been proved. It has been proved, and not for the first time, that when a country is prosperous, whether its prosperity be due to free trade or anything else, the public become quite indifferent to tariffs and are in the best possible mood to become the prey of combinations of special interests. It is only when a pinch comes that people begin to enquire what they are paying in the way of bounties to the protected classes.

It does not appear that the commercial treaty cut any figure in the recent French elections, but since the negotiations have been dropped by England the Ministry have awakened to the fact that they have made a political blunder. The complaint made to the Paris correspondent of the *Economist* by a high official against the current of English opinion strikes us as extremely whimsical. France, he said, had done nothing worse than Germany had previously done; why then should England be more irritated against the one than against the other? Obviously because Germany has made no false pretences. If France had said in the beginning that for reasons satisfactory to herself she preferred not to renew the treaty, or that she did not choose to favor one nation more than another in matters of trade, she would have preserved her moral status, and given no ground for complaint in any quarter. Her course throughout has been that of a country desiring and intending to do one thing, but keeping up a show of intending to do something else. She overestimated the eagerness of England for a new treaty, and now that she has found her mistake she is in a new perplexity, which, coming on the heels of other complications, will make the Ministry of Foreign Affairs for some time to come no sinecure. It is not to be supposed that the failure of the commercial treaty will change England's foreign policy, which rests upon other considerations; but the partiality which she has entertained for France during the past two decades, and which was manifested in so decided a manner in the year 1875, when France was believed to be menaced with attack by Germany, has apparently been sacrificed to the greed of a few manufacturers.

GERMANY AND ROME.

OUR Berlin correspondent, who has excellent sources of information and is by no means a blind admirer of Prince Bismarck, presents, in his letter on another page, a view of the German Chancellor's negotiations with the Vatican which is not altogether in accord with the first impressions produced by recent cable despatches. The question is whether the ultramontane press in Germany, whose utterances were telegraphed as news a few days ago, was right in predicting the complete abandonment by the Imperial Government of all the principles involved in the Falk laws, or whether it attributed to those negotiations a significance more in accord with the demands and wishes of its party than with Prince Bismarck's intentions. While no clear judgment will be possible until the final result is known, the selection for the conduct of the negotiations of so skilful and liberal a diplomat as

Dr. von Schloezer would seem to indicate that no absolute surrender to the Vatican is intended. If it were, a mere commonplace envoy with a great aristocratic name would have better answered the purpose. Our correspondent has probably good reason for saying that "the Government has never shown any intent or purpose to do away with the principles of the Falk laws," and that "Bismarck has always treated the conflict with Rome as a matter of foreign policy, and will not give it up without gaining some real advantages." Prince Bismarck has frequently surprised the world by bluntly avowing his purposes, and he may have done so this time when in one of his evening conversations last winter he said: "We want peace with the Church; we want a chance to enforce mildly or wholly suspend the laws which protect the State against the encroachments of the Church. We want to hang up our arms in the fencing-room, but we do not want to give them away. We believe that we shall have peace, but the time may return when we shall need the arms again." This can be interpreted as meaning that the Church is to be put upon its good behavior; that if it behaves well the laws so distasteful to it will remain suspended, but that, if it makes itself troublesome, the old weapons are still in the arsenal as ready for use as ever.

Whether this policy will produce lastingly harmonious relations between the Church and the German Empire, only time can show. But the advantages Prince Bismarck may expect to gain by it in the pursuit of other political objects are obvious enough. The great leading thought of Bismarck during the more important part of his career has been to bring about and consolidate the unity of Germany in an imperial form. To this end he employed every means and used the aid of every political party that could serve him. He went through a bitter "constitutional conflict," and made himself the most unpopular man in Germany, to prepare Prussia for the Austrian war of 1866. He allied himself with the Liberal party, which represented the National sentiment. When, during and after the French war, the Catholic Church showed a spirit hostile to the national unification of Germany under the leadership of Prussia, he began his campaign against Church influence by bringing it more stringently under the control of the State. This was the famous "Kulturkampf," which resulted in the Falk laws. In carrying on this struggle he still had to lean upon the Liberal party as his natural ally. Then he thought it necessary to strengthen the hands of the Imperial Government in a fiscal as well as military point of view, and the demands of the Liberals for the observance of constitutional principles grew irksome to him. It became one of his principal aims to reduce Parliamentary influence upon the management of affairs to the narrowest possible limits. He thereupon snubbed the Liberals in a most demonstrative manner, and formed a new and congenial alliance with the "Conservative" interests. To make peace with the Catholic Church must have appeared to him thenceforward desirable, for a Conservative majority could scarcely in any other way be obtained. Some of his economical measures designed to win the favor of the manufacturing and the agricultural interests may to a certain extent be attributed to the same line of policy.

But it is probable that the German Chancellor has still other considerations in view. A considerable majority of the population of the two provinces acquired by conquest from France, Alsace and Lorraine, is strongly Catholic. At this moment the prevailing tendency in the French Republic is adverse to the traditional pretensions of the Church. The establishment of friendly relations between the Vatican and the German Empire may, therefore, be thought well calculated to turn the Church influence in the conquered provinces in favor of Germany, and to facilitate their assimilation with the Empire. The selection of Dr. Korum, an Alsatian, for the important post of Archbishop of Treves seems to have been made by Bismarck himself with this view. But this is not all. The relations between the Vatican and the kingdom of Italy are strained in the extreme. This circumstance is well calculated to make the Pope desirous of making peace with Germany, while on the other hand such a peace would enable Germany to appear in the complications between Italy and the Pope as the friend of both parties. It is not at all unlikely that in view of these things Bismarck may hope to obtain important concessions from the Pope, and that the Pope may be inclined to make them for the purpose of propitiating the influence of so great a power. It seems reasonable to assume, therefore, that with this new stroke of policy the German Chancellor had the following objects in view: to obtain a strong Conservative majority in the Reichstag, which would help him to carry his economical measures and the desired limitations of parliamentary influence in the management of affairs—and it is reported that the Vatican has already instructed the Catholic (Centre) party in Germany to support in the impending elections the Conservative candidates whenever it cannot hope to elect one of its own men; to turn the influence of the Church in the conquered provinces in favor of the German Empire, and thereby to offset the lingering French sympathies; to take advantage of the serious complications between the Vatican and the Italian kingdom to the end of obtaining concessions from the Pope, and of establishing German influence as that of a "mutual friend" between the Pope and the Italian Government and people; and lastly, by merely suspending the operation of the Falk laws instead of entirely abrogating them, and thus holding them *in terrorem* over the Church, to put the latter upon its good behavior under circumstances favorable to the Empire. How far the Chancellor may accomplish all this without giving up the important principles so strenuously asserted in the "Kulturkampf" remains to be seen.

These may be very clever movements on the political chessboard, and they may succeed in accordance with the Chancellor's wishes. But the worst feature of that success will be that it must necessarily be attended with a serious political reaction in Germany, which in fact has already been going on for some time, and, aside from its immediate effects, must in the long run draw very dangerous consequences after it. Bismarck's system of government, or rather the manner in which he carries on the government of the German Empire, is of its own kind and cannot survive him. He is a man of commanding genius, of the most powerful will, and has in addition to these natural qualities the tremendous advantage of having rendered to his country the greatest and most conspicuous services, sometimes in direct opposition to the current opinion of the day. More than any other statesman of our times he has impressed his countrymen, or at least a very large number of them, with the belief that the state cannot do without him. He can say to his opponents: "There was a time when I did great things for the country against your will, because I knew what was to be done, and you did not." And they will have to admit that in some instances it was so. He applies the same reasoning to the objects he wants to accomplish now; these objects may be ever so wrong, yet it cannot be denied that the argument with which he demands compliance with his wishes has a sort of overawing plausibility. Thus he rules the German Parliament and the nation not by the bold absolutism of brute force, but by a sort of intellectual autocracy which is strengthened by the authority derived from his extraordinary successes. This may go on in a measure, and other successes may be achieved as long as he is Chancellor, or at least as long as he retains his mental vigor, but what will he leave behind him? His rule has stunted parliamentary institutions. He has not permitted any parliamentary party to become acquainted with the exercise and the responsibilities of power; he has not only thus prevented the development of parliamentary methods of government, but studiously discredited them with a large number of his countrymen. When he leaves the scene, as he must some day, no parliamentary force will be there to take the helm as he drops it. The country will look for some successor to him to step into his place, and it is said that he has a younger statesman in training for that purpose. But no man can fill that place and carry on the government as he did; for even if the successor did possess a genius and will similar to his, he would not have that overpowering authority which is derived only from such services as Bismarck has rendered. Bismarck was able to use and snub one party after another, lose their confidence, and yet awe them into acquiescence by pointing out the instances in which, as all now admit, he understood things better than they, and served the country in spite of them. No successor can do that. He will be apt to succumb to the attacks of political parties, for the tendency of the times is so strongly in the direction of constitutional government that the German Empire will not be able to resist it. But those political parties will, owing to Bismarck's methods, not be educated for the duties of government, and, until they become so, nobody can tell how the really good things accomplished by Bismarck will endure the confusion.

DELMONICO'S.

No one can read the published notices of the life of Delmonico without perceiving that the public interest to which they appeal is something more than the ordinary curiosity about the details of the career of a successful restaurant manager. There is in them a tone of grateful remembrance and regret which implies a general consciousness of obligation, a sense that Delmonico did something for New York that no one else would have done; that he was a public benefactor. It was not merely that he had the biggest establishment of its kind in the world, nor that he made a great amount of money out of it, but that he had by his life conferred a positive benefit upon the community, had helped to make the city take its place among the half-dozen capitals of the modern world, and left it, in the department to which he had devoted himself, more enlightened and civilized, and, we may fairly say, more happy than he found it. The story told of his failure in business, of his determination to sell it for the benefit of his creditors, and their unanimous refusal to let it go into the market, illustrates a sort of sentiment which is not common in business relations. It would probably have stood a much severer test than this; no one who knows New York can doubt that if it were ever a question between the final closing of Delmonico's and a subscription of money to enable it to go on, the funds would readily be contributed for the purpose.

Of course this feeling may be ascribed to the materialism of a carnal-minded community; but this is a very incomplete view of the subject. New York is undoubtedly a city devoted almost exclusively to material interests. It cannot be denied that it has produced very little art, or literature, or science. Its great men are merchants, or bankers, or brokers, or "operators," or railroad men. The amusements of New York are to a very slight degree intellectual. The tone of its society is far from serious. In all these respects it may be called a headquarters of materialism. But there are different kinds of materialism. Materialism may be refined and it may be coarse, and the natural tendency of Anglo-Saxon materialism all over the world is towards unrefinement. Left to himself in a new country, with the pursuit of wealth before him as the one great object of life, the Anglo-Saxon's tendency is to make his materialism as bald and aggressive as he can. Everything that interferes with money-getting seems to be so much waste, and he consequently abandons it as useless. There is nothing which seems so essentially wasted to him as time and thought spent on eating and drinking. What would have been the fate of the table in America if we had been left to ourselves it is difficult and unpleasant, too, to imagine; we may get some faint idea of what was probably in store for us by reflecting upon the results actually produced in this department of life by a purely national development down to a generation ago. The habit of "perpendicular" drinking at bars seemed at one time destined to supersede altogether, as it still does in most of the newer parts of the country, the custom of drinking wine at table—undoubtedly owing to the fact that it takes up less time and interferes less with the despatch of business; and in the same way, the main thing kept in view in eating was neither to make a dinner agreeable to the palate nor to foster its social and humanizing influences, but to dispose of the greatest number of dishes in the shortest possible time. In the hotel dinner of a generation ago, with its multitude of simultaneously and silently devoured dishes washed down with ice-water, the typical national meal seemed to have been organized. The silence was an essential feature of it; for conversation also took up time and caused delay in getting back to work. Foreigners who came over here thirty or forty years ago saw this condition of things with something like horror, and wondered, if this was the first stage in the development of national gastronomic customs, what the last would be. Probably if we had gone on, meals in common would have been abandoned, and we should have fed and drunk in solitude, merely to satisfy the appetite when it became pressing—a practice which Epicurus thought it wise to warn his followers against two thousand years ago.

It was obviously idle to hope, in this state of affairs, for any reform from within. Although when the first Delmonico came to this country it was a reformatory period, and the air was full of "movements" of all kinds, no American was found to interest himself in gastronomic reform. Philanthropists took up the cause of the slave; literary men insisted on the creation of a national school of poetry and a national school of fiction. Architects began to ask why we had no American architecture, sculptors why we had no American statues, and musical reformers loudly called for an immediate development of the American ear and voice; but amid the general awakening of the country to the fact that it must elevate all its standards, not a voice was raised in the cause of the American stomach. This may have been partly from a crude idea that the devotion of any attention to such matters would have been a concession to materialism itself, but probably a still more fundamental reason was that the country had sunk so low in everything relating to the art of eating and drinking that it did not contain in itself the means of effecting an improvement. In fact, in that part of the country of which the reformatory spirit had taken the strongest hold, the love of intellectual things seemed to threaten in combination with the other causes we have mentioned to produce a novel and peculiarly American type of asceticism, based partly on the feeling that all time devoted to the table must be subtracted from that dedicated to spiritual improvement, and confirmed by the reflection that all money spent on the table makes a man so much out of pocket.

It was at this time and under these circumstances that the first Delmonico came to this country, and engaged in the beneficent work which his descendants are still carrying on. Their restaurant has in the last fifty years become one of the "institutions" of the city, a thing perfect of its kind, and at the same time peculiar to New York. It has become a place not merely to dine at, but a place to talk about, to take foreigners to, something to be proud of, something which we feel makes the city attractive the world over.

It was the mission of the Delmonicos to establish a little oasis of civilization in the vast gastronomic waste which America at the time of their arrival presented. The art to which they devoted their attention was a humble one, but it had in the country to which they owed it been brought to a very high state of perfection. Pretty much all the world knows about the table it has derived from France. Other countries have their national dishes and their national wines, but the art of cookery and the art of combining the results of cookery harmoniously are French. Why the Delmonicos should have selected New York as the field of their operations we do not know. Most likely it was from a shrewd calculation that the commercial capital of a country must also be its gastronomic capital. The enormous transient population of New York furnishes a *clientèle* for restaurants such as no other city affords. If the Delmonicos had gone to Boston or Philadelphia, they would inevitably have failed miserably.

The most remarkable thing about the Delmonicos to our mind is that their own standard should never have been lowered by the depraved national tendencies which we have been considering. They have instead educated their public to their own standard, and considering that their public embraces not only all the people of refined tastes in the city, but hosts of eminent politicians, sporting men, and "boys" as well, whose natural tendency is towards rapid and inconsiderate feeding and perpendicular drinking, this is a very remarkable fact. It must have originally required a very far-sighted instinct on the subject to induce them to believe that they could succeed. Like all reformers, they must have had a good deal of faith. It is curious even now to notice how essentially foreign the whole management is. If you go from any New York hotel kept on "the American plan" to Delmonico's, you seem to have passed from one country into another. Not only the *menu*, but the waiters, the handwriting of the *addition*, the decorations, the comic papers in the café, all are foreign. There is even an air of cheerful hilarity among the people at the tables which is in singular contrast with the solemnity which you have left behind you. If any one wishes to get a still more effective contrast, he has only to take any railroad out of the city, and after travelling a few miles endeavor to dine as his life in New York has accustomed him to do. He will find that he has got into an entirely different civilization, a land in which eating and drinking are looked upon not as an important part of the social economy of life, but simply as the consumption of sufficient nutriment to prevent the waste of tissue.

The national incapacity to do anything with or for the table still seems, notwithstanding Delmonico's influence, to be as pronounced as ever. Even the host of smaller cheap restaurants, which furnish a dinner at a fixed price, and which have become a marked feature of life in New York since the war, are all carried on by foreigners for our benefit. The public seem to know the difference between the bad and the good, but if left to themselves they have not the capacity to develop or even to imitate. Fortunately, the best traditions on the subject have been kept alive in New York by a long line of foreign benefactors, at whose head the Delmonicos have always stood.

THE CELTIC LANGUAGES.

A CURIOUS and interesting enquiry into the Celtic languages of the British Isles has been made by Mr. Ravenstein, and the results published in the journal of the Statistical Society of London. But a very brief outline of these results can be given. Of the two great branches of the Celtic languages there are spoken at the present time in various parts of Britain three of the northern or Gaelic, and of the southern, or Cymraeg, the Welsh is the only representative, as Cornish is extinct. Up to the beginning of the sixteenth century Cornish was spoken as far as the Tamar; but the Reformation led to its extinction, as it also led to the extinction of Celtic in Strathclyde. In 1791, according to Sir Henry Jenner, in all Cornwall there was but one person able to speak Cornish, though at the beginning of that century the language was common in twenty-three parishes.

When the geographical position of these languages is marked out, it will be found that the

districts in which the native languages predominate lie furthest removed from contact with English influences. At the beginning of the present century there were few counties in Ireland in which the old language had entirely died out. Now the Irish-speaking counties lie almost wholly in the western part of the island, and their population is not so dense as in the more fertile eastern or English-speaking districts. There is one curious exception to this distribution. In a small district near Louth, there is still a large Irish-speaking population. In times not very remote it is probable that it was connected with the western counties by a belt of Irish-speaking districts; but this belt was first broken through by the great highway which joins Armagh to Longford, and the little patch near Louth is all that remains to mark its existence, and the next census will probably show that the language is extinct in the east of Ireland. Another curious exception, no longer existing, was a small district in Antrim, where as late as 1851 the dialect spoken was identical with that in use in Kintyre, Scotland—a result produced by the constant intercourse maintained between the two places. In Scotland the extreme northern point, or the northern half of Caithness, together with the Orkney and Shetland Islands, is English, and the Gaelic-speaking portion of its population is maintained only by immigration from the Highlands. Thus the strongly Gaelic counties are encroached upon by English both from the north and from the south, and are confined to the western part of Scotland, and include the numerous islands on the west, which have but little contact with the English. It is in these islands that Gaelic will doubtless linger the longest. "The Gaels, like their kinsmen in Ireland and Wales, have been driven into the hills, or where they remained in the more fertile lowlands they have become amalgamated with the intruding Saxon." The Welsh districts all lie in the west, but there are two English peninsulas in the south—Carmarthenshire and Pembrokeshire—which are surrounded by strongly Welsh districts. It is said that when Arnulf de Montgomery conquered the country he brought some English settlers with him.

"In these early days southern Pembrokeshire was known as 'Little England,' and although the King's writ did not then run in Wales, it was duly acknowledged in this 'Anglia trans-Wallina.' The present English inhabitants may no doubt claim descent from these early settlers, but they have perpetually been receiving reinforcements, and the dialect they speak is said to resemble that of Somersetshire. Of course there has been some intermixture between the two races, but down to the present day they differ not only in language, but also physically."

It is not difficult to discover the causes of the decay of the native languages. They are disused among the educated classes. English is the language of business, and all the remunerative walks of life are open only to such as speak the English language. Highways and railroads, or whatever opens up the country to intercourse with foreigners, and commerce and trade, bring with them influences so strong as to destroy the local element among the natives. But it is in the system of national schools that the most destructive agent to these languages is to be found. In Ireland it is proved that the Irish language predominates only in those districts where, from some reason, the proper supply of schools is wanting, and the same could be said of Scotland and Wales. In all three the government is English, the pulpit is largely English, and the schools almost wholly English. But there are some causes of decay, peculiar to each country, which are worthy of a short notice. In Ireland, migration is an important factor of change. The general course of this migration is from the western to the eastern counties, the places of the emigrants from the east being supplied by emigrants from the west, where the Irish language prevails, and where the local element in the population is strongest. In their new situations they and their children learn English, and all traces of their native language disappear in two or three generations. Migration exercises a minor influence in the other countries; there is a constant flow of Welsh from Radnorshire into England, and of Scots from the Highlands to England, while natives of England settle in these districts. In Scotland, the Gaelic language is fast dying out in those counties which have been opened up by railways and are thus exposed to the inroads of tourists and sportsmen. For a considerable number of years graziers from Ayrshire and Lanarkshire have leased large holdings in the Highlands, bringing with them their Saxon servants. While these strangers settle in their new homes, the old inhabitants go elsewhere to seek their fortunes.

Of the three languages Welsh is that which promises to survive the longest, though it is rapidly disappearing when brought into direct contact with English. There is an important Welsh literature, which is even now said to be on the increase, and there are newspapers and periodicals in Welsh. "The Welshman may market in English, but he prefers his religion in a Welsh garb, gives a preference to Welsh reading, and cultivates Welsh at his fireside." The strenuous efforts to preserve these languages by the formation of societies, or by founding professorships in universities, can have little effect in staying their extinction, for the destructive agencies coming from a higher and more progressive civilization will be in no wise diminished in number or in strength; and it is but a matter of time before the Gaelic languages will be known only to the curious and the philologists, and will take their place in the long list of dead languages.

Some curious facts were brought out in the course of this investigation. For instance, the statistics collected showed that in Ireland the language loses ground at a slightly more rapid rate among the female than among the male population. But when the relative proportions in the two sexes able to speak both Irish and English were compared, the number of females was smaller than that of males. This is accounted for by the fact that young Irish women who migrate, soon forget their native tongue; while their sisters who remain at home and lead a life of greater seclusion than the men, retain it all the more tenaciously. "Hence I do not hesitate to say it is woman who will have the last word in Irish, as she had it in Cornish, and is supposed to have it in all languages." Wherever the Gaelic and Saxon have met, Saxon has won. The Gael learns English readily and is very proud of his accomplishment. When he wishes to be exceptionally severe, he says: "May you never speak correct English." The native languages, as might be expected, have the strongest hold on the older portion of the population; and it is no infrequent occurrence to hear a child, addressed by his parent in Irish or Gaelic, answer in English, and that too in districts where these languages are spoken by a very large proportion of the population. They are coming into disfavor with the younger generation, who, in all places which have some contact with the outer world, give English the preference.

THE RESULTS OF THE SESSION.

LONDON, August 20, 1881.

THE session now drawing to its close has been by far the longest of late years and in many ways the most tedious and dismal. Of all the lamentable and monotonous subjects English statesmen have to deal with, Ireland is the most lamentable, and this session has been entirely spent upon Ireland. The first three months were occupied in passing the two bills which conferred upon the Government exceptional and extra-constitutional powers for repressing agrarian outrages in that country, an operation so much delayed by the pertinacious obstruction of Mr. Parnell and his friends that it would probably never have been completed but for the introduction of the "rules of urgency," under which an extraordinary authority was committed to the Speaker. Nothing could have been more wearisome than the debates of those three months, for the Irish members of to-day have greatly declined from the reputation which Irish orators won in the days of Grattan, Curran, and Plunket. They are bold, ready, and sharp, but seldom eloquent, and totally devoid of humor. When this disagreeable business had been finished the Land Law Bill was brought in and it has covered the whole sky ever since. May, June, July, and half of August have been spent on this one measure, which became peculiarly irksome to the English and Scotch members, not only because very few of them understood its intricacies, but also because, while they were obliged to give a close attendance in order to vote, they were not permitted to speak. When it became clear that all the time of the House would be taken up by this bill, English members, and especially of course Liberal members, refrained from joining in the discussion lest they should delay its progress, and left the talking to the Government and the Irish members. The consequence is that there have been very few opportunities for private members to come out, and with one or two exceptions the only oratorical events of the year have been Mr. Gladstone's speeches.

A more serious result of the same cause has been the complete suspension of legislation for England and Scotland. One of the chief complaints levelled against Lord Beaconsfield's government was that it had neglected domestic reforms. Great things were therefore expected from the Liberal Ministry in this direction; and last year some troublesome questions, such as the quarrel about Dissenters' burials, and the liability of employers for injuries suffered by a workman from the negligence of a fellow-workman, were dealt with. But this year nothing whatever has been done. Bills were brought in to check corrupt practices at elections, to prevent the river floods which have become so serious an evil in central England, to amend that crying scandal, our Bankruptcy law, to improve the administration of charitable trusts, and to effect many other greatly needed changes in the law, but all had, sooner or later, to be dropped as the debates on the Irish Land Bill lengthened out. The case of Scotland was a particularly hard one. Scotland has long been the stronghold of the Liberal party. It was distinguished by its loyalty to Mr. Gladstone during the struggle over the Eastern question, when Lord Beaconsfield was carrying everything before him. Out of all the members whom it sends up to Westminster, only seven are Tories. It was therefore entitled to be specially considered, and to have time set apart for the measures which its people desire. But not a single Scotch bill of the least consequence has been passed either last session or this. Nothing but the personal enthusiasm which Mr. Gladstone inspires in Scotland prevents a mutiny there.

A further result has been the stoppage of discussion on foreign and colonial affairs. There was only one short debate during the whole session on the East—which three years ago occupied people's minds to the exclusion of every other

subject—one on Afghanistan, one on the Transvaal peace. This also is a misfortune, because, although things may go on smoothly for the moment in those regions, it is always wholesome for our governors abroad and our Foreign Office to feel that they are being watched; and it is impossible for public opinion at home to exercise an efficient control over foreign or colonial policy when it turns in that direction only by fits and starts, for in such cases it is necessarily ill-informed and liable to be misled. Our errors and misfortunes in the conduct of Eastern and Afghan affairs from 1876 to 1879 were very largely due to the fact that hardly anybody had been watching the progress of events among the Turks or on the Indian frontier for the twenty years preceding. In the lack of knowledge, crude views of material interest and heated sentiment had it all their own way. Nor was there anything to choose, in point of ignorance, between the two great political parties.

These are some of the reasons why there is no great sense of pleasure, though of course there is a certain sense of relief, in getting rid of the Irish land question. We have spent a whole year over it, and a year's time can ill be spared to Britain. But there is another reason. Nobody pretends to think that the Irish question is settled. The Parnellite party declare openly that it is only beginning, and, not to say that they will of course try to make good their predictions, our past experience of Irish difficulties holds out no great hope of peace. To a large section of the Irish people, every concession, as it appears to have been extorted by fear, constitutes a ground for further agitation. Boons have this year been granted which nobody expected two years ago. Who can tell that continued vigor on the part of the Land League, or some similar organization, may not in a few years more compel submission to demands to which England now closes her ear? It is therefore very natural that those Irishmen who honestly believe that nothing but legislative separation from Great Britain will really cure the evils of Ireland, should be encouraged to persevere in the courses of the last few sessions. It is true that the Land Bill if, as is probable, it ameliorates the condition of the tenant farmer, will deprive the agitators of some of their leverage. The appeal to material interest may not be so strong. But the sense of victory, the sense of having baffled the English Government by the Land League system, of having frightened the English by dynamite plots, of having extorted a Land Bill from the House of Lords as well as the House of Commons, will be an immense encouragement to keep the organization on foot and go on fanning the passion for national existence, not to add that so complicated a piece of machinery as the Land Bill cannot be expected to work quite smoothly, and may be thrown out of gear by a succession of bad harvests.

There is so much force in this that I am inclined to set down as one among the results of the present session an increase in the despondency with which thoughtful Englishmen regard our relation to Ireland. One begins to hear people ask you, almost under their breath, "If we are always to be on these terms with the Irish, if our business is to be always interrupted by them and our troops always employed in keeping order among them, what shall we have to come to? Is it worth our while to keep them? Would it be any such great harm to let them have a Parliament of their own, or even to let them go altogether? They don't add to our wealth or our strength; is it quite impossible that they should be cut adrift, and taught by the difficulty they would have in getting on alone that they will sooner or later have to come back to us?" I do not mean that people of consequence in England, any persons whose ability or experience makes their opinions worth regarding, have given public expression to such ideas, or have even adopted them in their own minds. I mean only that talk like this is in the air, and witnesses to the gravity which the Irish problem has assumed in the minds of men quite out of sympathy with the Irish national party. One more result of the last eight months' wranglings remains to be noticed, and for it we may be thought to owe some thanks to the Parnellite party. All the Liberal majority (with one or two trifling exceptions), and a large part of the Tory minority, are now convinced that our Parliamentary procedure requires speedy and sweeping amendments. At the dinner given to the Ministry by the Lord Mayor of London some three weeks ago, the three principal ministers present, Mr. Gladstone, Mr. Bright, and Lord Hartington, all took up this subject, and all expressed themselves with great decision upon it. Mr. Bright, in particular, declared that the old machine wanted much more than oiling, it wanted repairing; and from a person known to be so conservative of ancient parliamentary forms and usages as he is, these words mean a good deal. The Government notoriously intend at the beginning of next session to bring forward proposals for the improvement of our parliamentary rules and usages so as to overcome the two evils which have proved so serious this session.

The first of these evils is obstruction properly so called—that is to say, the employment of the forms of the House to prolong debate unnecessarily and prevent a division from being taken. To deal with this, something much more regular and systematic will be needed than the rude device of arming the Speaker with dictatorial powers, to which recourse was had this session. His office would become too powerful, and difficult to administer with impartiality, besides which this dictatorship can under the present sessional rule be conferred only by a large majority in a full House, so that no use could be made of it except when, as happened last spring, nearly the whole House was united against a small minority. Hence the expectation is that we shall have proposals for the establishment of the *clôture*, or what you call the previous question, with probably also some limitation placed on the power of moving the adjournment of the House, and moving, when in committee, to report progress. Other minor alterations of the same kind I pass over, though some will no doubt be needed, while yet it is not likely that any attempt will be made to fix a limit of length for speeches. The second evil is one more difficult to deal with, though it excites less bitterness of feeling. It is the fact that while Parliament is engaged upon one large measure, all its energy is absorbed by that one, and no progress can be made with others, even when they raise comparatively little controversy. This year, for example, nothing could be done with the Bankruptcy Bill, a measure as to which there is no party feeling, but only a national wish to see its provisions minutely and thoroughly criticised. An idea is afloat that to enable such subjects to be considered side by side with others of a more distinctly party character, an attempt will be made to revive the system of grand committees which existed in the seventeenth century, or to imitate the system of bureaux which now prevails in the legislative body of France. Thus various sections of the House, chosen with regard to their special knowledge, would be employed at the same time in discussing and getting into shape various measures, and the work of legislative reform would be greatly accelerated.

Whatever be done, it is clear enough that something must be done not only to get rid of the constantly recurring blocks and deadlocks of the last few years, but also to redeem the credit of Parliament itself. The last few sessions have seriously injured its prestige in the country. It has got to be considered as a place of "scenes," a place to give newspapers a theme for sensational descriptions; a place whence the ancient dignity and moderation, good feeling and good sense that were supposed to raise the House of Commons above the representative assemblies of other countries, are fast departing. It is all very well to tell the people that the discreditable incidents and offensive language which move their contempt proceed from a few people only, and that it is a scrupulous respect for the rights of minorities which causes endless delays and the loss of good measures. They will not stop to make fine distinctions; they think that what the House permits it in a fashion sanctions; they are in danger of losing respect for it as a whole. As it is the centre of our whole system of government, on whose excellence and authority the working of all the rest of the machine depends, a diminution of its weight and moral influence in the country would be a very serious misfortune, and indeed a misfortune for representative government all over the world. In the presence of such a danger it is to be hoped that a fair consideration will be given to any plans for reforming the inner part of Parliament which the Ministry may bring forward. But the spirit of party is extremely strong at present, and as the Conservatives, being in a minority now, and seeing that they are more frequently than not in a minority, may expect that any new rules will press more heavily on them than on the Liberals, it is only natural to expect a good deal of opposition from them to such rules. Thus a large part of the next session may be absorbed by discussions about procedure, and the crop of legislation prove not greatly larger than that over whose poverty we are now mourning. Y.

GAMBETTA AT BELLEVILLE.

PARIS, August 19, 1881.

THE electoral campaign is drawing to a close, and there never was a more quiet one, all over the country. In many places where Monarchists were elected four years ago, or where they had a large minority of votes, their candidates have quietly withdrawn from the contest. The Republicans have had it all their own way. There was, a month ago, a beginning of hostilities between the Ministerialists—those who follow M. Grévy and M. Jules Ferry—and the friends and admirers of Gambetta; but a sort of truce has been made between these groups of the Republican party. The President of the Council has, in his speeches in the Department of the Vosges, extended the olive-branch to Gambetta, and Gambetta has seized it, and praised in his paper, the *République Française*, the services rendered to the Republican cause by M. Ferry. As for the great body of the electors, they quietly accept the *status quo*, as it is their disposition to do in all circumstances; they turn a deaf ear to the accusations of the Monarchical press and to the insults heaped by the *Intransigeant* on the Opportunists.

I hardly understand why Gambetta criticised this word "opportunism" in one of his late speeches. He denies being the father of it, and finds the word ill-constructed. But surely, if the word is barbarous, the thing is eminently suited to the temper of a progressive but conservative country. Every progress should have its hour; the best things must be done at the opportune time. At the present moment the Conservatives

are learning this to their cost. There is much truth in all their criticism about the prodigality of the Republican Government, the perpetual inflation of the budget, the artificial impulse given to the building of railroads, the distant and costly expeditions to Tunis; but their criticisms are found inopportune, because the country instinctively feels that the Conservatives have lost the power by their own fault and weakness, and they are just now utterly incapable of forming a Government of their own. The situation in many respects is exactly what it was under the Empire: there were a few men, like Thiers and Prévost-Paradol, who constantly pointed out the faults of Napoleon III., but universal suffrage remained faithful to the last to the man whom it had chosen in 1849. Napoleon III. fell under the blows of fate, not under the blows of France. There is a place, however, where the natural spirit of obedience of the French people does not exist, where it is even replaced by a spirit of perpetual insubordination. Paris is this place; it is the restless brain of a quiet body, the nervous centre which every stimulant can move and irritate. Gambetta has just had a disagreeable experience of it.

After the rejection of the *scrutin de liste*, he chose to remain faithful to the electoral college which had first returned him to the Corps Législatif under the Empire. Belleville was the pedestal on which he had jumped as a young man full of vigor and ardor, and he would not loose the tie which bound him to this heart of the Parisian Democracy. He had entered political life with what is still called his Belleville programme; he determined to remain simply the deputy from Belleville. The increase of population in that quarter had forced the Chamber to cut Belleville into two districts; Gambetta offered himself as candidate in both, and promised to present himself before the electors in both wards. The first meeting at Belleville was quiet. Only fifteen hundred people had been admitted, and they by ticket, and Gambetta was allowed to pronounce amid great silence a very long speech. He dwelt chiefly on the changes which he had found it necessary to make in his first Belleville platform. For instance, this programme, signed under the Empire, contained an article on the abolition of permanent armies. The Empire was then plunging constantly into war. The Empire, meantime, had fallen; but France had lost two of her ancient provinces. Gambetta had no difficulty in showing that the abolition of permanent armies was now a dream of the past, and that the stern reality obliged France to remain constantly under arms. He went so far in the expression of his sentiments as to cause the official papers of Berlin to denounce his appeals to the sentiment of revenge. The speech was marked by a general sense of responsibility; Gambetta spoke like a man who feels that he can grasp the power whenever he likes. It was noticed that he avoided the old phrases against Clericalism; he feels perhaps that enough has been done by M Jules Ferry against the Catholic Church. The weak part of his programme was the attack on the Senate and the demand for a revision of the Constitution. In a country like France, so little accustomed to Republican institutions, the Constitution ought not to be treated like an ordinary law which can be tinkered at pleasure; the people ought to be taught to look upon the Constitution as something durable and permanent, which can only be altered with much difficulty and under the pressure of an absolute necessity. A few weeks ago Gambetta defended at Cahors the constitution of the Second Chamber; now he shows his ill-humor against the Senators because they rejected his pet *scrutin de liste*. He does not propose to abolish the Senate—the contradiction would be too great; but he would do away with the *inamovibles*—the life-senators—and change the mode of election of the members of the Upper Chamber. The game is not worth the candle; the object in view is not proportionate to the evil which would be done if the Constitution came to be regarded as a mere bit of paper—a rag constantly torn and mended. As it is, very few Frenchmen have ever read its text; it cannot be found in any bookseller's shop; it is a sort of political unknown quantity.

Two days ago Gambetta returned to Belleville for the second time, and arrangements were made in order that he should be able to speak before ten thousand people. A wooden building of large size, used as a depot, was prepared. At the given time, though the rain had been falling all day, and continued to fall, thousands of workingmen congregated in the distant quarter where Gambetta was expected. Those only who had tickets sent out by Gambetta's committee were admitted, but it is said that false ones had been made. At any rate, when Gambetta made his appearance the meeting had a decidedly hostile attitude. The struggle began when the president and other officers were nominated; and when Gambetta began his address his voice was completely drowned in a tempest of hisses, of interruptions. He stood for a time like a gladiator in the circus, in the midst of wild beasts. He looked defiant, shook his fist, called the interrupters "drunken slaves." He told them that the time would come when he would return and hunt them in their "infamous dens." It is probable that these insults, which appeared in print the next morning in the *République Française*, were never heard by those to whom they were addressed; otherwise, the meeting might have ended in a tragical manner. After a few vain attempts Gambetta was obliged to retire.

Of course, his friends and his papers say that there was only a group of interrupters, a few hundred men who overruled the will of a few thousands. It is difficult to form a correct opinion on the subject; the elections will show how many at Belleville have remained faithful to their deputy, and how many consider him a traitor to their cause. Their cause, it is idle to deny, is merely the Commune. In the interruptions which made the meeting impossible, the name of Gambetta was constantly associated with the name of General Gallifet. This young general is known to be now living on intimate terms with Gambetta. In 1871 he was one of the sternest officers who had to repress the Commune; his name inspires Belleville with dread and terror. Gambetta took no part in the events of the Commune; he retired to Spain during the terrible months of the siege and of the capture of Paris by the army of Versailles. He never openly condemned the Commune; he has among his most confidential friends Ranc, who was for a little while a member of the Commune, and who was in exile until the general amnesty. But this is not enough for Belleville. Belleville would not even give a moment's hearing to its deputy.

It is perhaps fortunate that this scene should have taken place. The majority of the electors will probably give their votes to Gambetta, and he has been spared the necessity of making to fervent and revolutionary Belleville some imprudent promises. If he is returned deputy, which is almost certain, at least in one of the two wards of Belleville, his hands will be more free. The "drunken slaves" who have insulted and hissed him have also delivered him. He is free from their bondage. May he understand it, and consider himself completely independent of an odious and detestable minority.

HAS BISMARCK "GONE TO CANOSSA"?

BERLIN, August 18, 1881.

THE Pope's appointment of a new Roman Catholic bishop for the Diocese of Treves is the great event of the week, and has created an excitement all over Germany. The negotiations were kept so secret that even the leaders of the party of the Centre were not initiated into the plan. If the fact had not leaked out through the indiscretion of a correspondent of the Augsburg *Gazette*, the public would probably not have become aware of it until after the installation of the new bishop. The way in which the result has been reached is not yet elucidated. So much only is certain, that Bismarck has treated directly with the Papal See, and that after having come to terms with it, he sent Herr von Gossler, the Minister of Public Worship, to Strassburg to confer with the new appointee. It is of course idle talk that the Minister acted on his own risk and responsibility. Herr von Gossler is but a tool in the Chancellor's hands. Belonging to a Lutheran orthodox family of the "noblesse de robe," nephew of the well-known Adelheid Mühler, the ambitious wife of a late minister of the same department, inexperienced and stiff, he attends to all political orders with that ardent subservience which distinguishes the Prussian civil officer, and which feels itself rewarded by a condescending smile from its superiors. Thus Gossler's journey was laid out for him, and it is Bismarck, not his innocent, unoffending Minister, who represents the party of the first part. Who, then, is the party of the second part? Dr. Felix Korum, a member of the chapter of Strassburg, is, as his adversary in the Augsburg *Gazette* says, a native of Alsace, and was educated by the Jesuits at Innsbruck in Tyrol. Although young (born in 1840), and not of superior talent, he was soon promoted to his high clerical position. After 1870 he sided with the ultra-French party, declared to a young German priest that his countrymen had nothing to do with Alsace, and was of course the sworn enemy of the so-called Falk laws.

Treves has been selected as the first experiment for renewing amicable relations with the Church because the chapter of this diocese, several months ago, with the consent of the Government, chose an administrator of the bishopric. The Prussian Government, however, did not confirm the person chosen for this office, Herr de Lorenzi, as that gentleman had on all occasions shown himself their bitterest enemy. From this state of affairs new difficulties arose, the negotiations with Rome became even more complicated, and both parties were driven into a blind alley out of which it was not easy to find escape. A renunciation of Lorenzi, and the subsequent election of another administrator, would have looked like an acknowledgment of the Falk laws on the part of the Catholic Church; while, on the other hand, an appeal of the Pope to Lorenzi to consider himself the duly-elected administrator and to perform all official acts, would have led to new conflicts. In order to avoid them and to find a compromise on which both parties could agree, Herr de Lorenzi had first to be put aside. Thus a possible quarrel about the administrator was avoided and superseded by the election of a new bishop, Herr Korum. The Treves chapter, having assigned its right of election to the Pope, was not suspected of having submitted to the Government; the Pope was free in his dispositions, and could, irrespective of former transactions, concur with the Government on a candidate suitable to both parties. On August 10 Korum was consecrated as bishop in Rome.

If it were not already known, this fact would prove that the German Government is as eager to do away with the *Kulturkampf* as the Pa-

pal See. It is therefore to be presumed that both have made substantial concessions, and that Berlin and Rome have evidently been led by more than personal interests and have taken into consideration the whole political situation. A new bishop merely would not have changed the state of affairs. Whether Bismarck is a better diplomatist than Leo XIII., or *vice versa*, both men are too shrewd not to make concessions before settling the terms on which they will bury the war-hatchet. I believe that both parties have yielded some of their former demands. Prussia may have dispensed the bishops from taking the oath, and Rome may have conceded the duty of the bishops to inform the Prussian Government of the nomination of their subordinates to clerical offices (*Anzeige-Pflicht*). Thus much is certain: both the contracting parties are striving for peace.

According to party affiliations, public opinion here is divided between fear and distrust on one side, and hope and joy on the other. Our Liberals suspect the Government of a foul peace, and apprehend that Rome once more has triumphed over Germany, as for the last sixty years it has always done in its frictions, conflicts, and battles with Prussia. The appointment of Herren von Puttkammer and Gossler, it is true, as successors of Minister Falk justifies to a certain degree the suspicion of a reactionary policy in the management of church and school matters; but in its present state the conflict with Rome is of a rather foreign character, and for the present I do not believe that Bismarck has become doughfaced. It was he who proposed Korum as bishop, and not Rome. He may be mistaken about the character of his candidate, but a possible mistake in the judgment of a character does not imply the sacrifice of a principle. The extent of the concessions only can decide the merits of the case, and as long as we do not know them we cannot correctly judge of the bearing of the measure. When after years of dissensions so important an act as the appointment of this new bishop takes place, the nation has a right to know who has carried his point; but in this respect Bismarck knows no consideration. If the Liberals were right, the concession of Prussia would amount to an abandonment of the Falk laws. The Ultramontanes demand this sacrifice, but the official and officious German press has declared, and still declares, it impossible to comply with it. Thus far it has been right. The Government has never shown any intent or purpose to do away with the principles of the Falk laws. Bismarck himself has always treated the conflict with Rome as a matter of foreign policy, and will not give it up without gaining some real advantages. Years ago he said he would have to make peace with Rome itself directly, and not with the Centre, and added that this peace would not weaken or humiliate the power of the Government. In one of his last evening-conversations during the winter session of the Reichstag the Chancellor said: "We want peace with the Church; we want a chance to enforce mildly or wholly suspend the laws which protect the state against the encroachments of the Church. We want to hang up our arms in the fencing-room, but we do not want to give them away. We believe that we shall have peace, but the time may soon return when we shall need the arms again."

When Bismarck says that he does not intend to go to Canossa we may believe him, for he knows very well that by so doing he would not only destroy his prestige among thirty millions of Protestant Germans, but also lose his authority in questions of foreign policy. Leo XIII., more than two years ago, acknowledged the above-mentioned duty (*Anzeige-Pflicht*) in principle, and Rome has acknowledged it in its relations with other Protestant Governments. If the Pope now orders his bishops to comply with it, the principal cause of trouble is removed. Bismarck is then in fact the winning party, and can hang up his arms. The present threatening complications of Rome with Italy and France make it desirable for her to meet Germany half way. † † †

AN AWKWARD PRECEDENT FOR THE MONROE DOCTRINE.

CAIRO, August 5, 1881.

THAT the United States has any purely political designs in the Mediterranean in general, or in Egypt in particular, would be a proposition too absurd to notice, were it not for the fact that for the past two years our consuls and judges in Egypt have persistently opposed England and France, who, by the unanimous decision of the five great European Powers, are firmly established as the joint controllers of Egypt. If we are to live up to the Monroe Doctrine, we must take good care not to assume any responsibilities in the Mediterranean which may involve us in other men's quarrels, or justly give offence to any foreign state. Nevertheless, it was only last year that our Consul-General warmly opposed the Law of Liquidation, and, after it had been accepted by all the Powers, refused to give in his adherence until forced to do so by cable instructions from Washington, obtained by representations made to the Secretary of State from London and Paris. Upon this occasion the United States played the rôle of obstructionist, and, much to the delight of the "unspeakable" Turk, delayed for some six weeks the efforts to introduce order into Egyptian finance. But the most significant fact was that the United States stood alone and diametrically opposed to the united voice of Europe upon a question concerning the internal affairs of Egypt, and which in no way involved the interests of the life or property of any American citizen—the sole American claim, that of the Messrs. Remington, having been previously most liberally settled by Sir Charles Wilson and M. de Blignières, and the money, some £70,000, paid in in gold at the United States Consulate upon the distinct understanding that the United States would assent to the Law of Liquidation.

This rather chauvinistic act of our Consul-General has never been forgiven by the English and French authorities in Egypt, nor by Riaz Pasha, the Egyptian Premier, and his colleagues. By a singular coincidence this Consul-General is now nominated by the United States Government for the position of Judge of the International Tribunals in Egypt, and his nomination is warmly pressed by the Secretary of State on the ground of the "great and important interests" of the United States in Egypt. As the salary (£1,200 per annum) is paid by Egypt, as the service rendered is rendered to Egypt, and as it is a matter of common notoriety that the ex-Consul-General is not on the best personal terms with the Egyptian Ministers and Comptrollers, it is quite probable that this nomination will not receive the necessary approval of the authorities, although, had not the applicant already, as Consul-General, taken a *parti pris* against the *nouveau régime*, a better nomination could scarcely have been made. The result is that negotiations are now being carried on at London and Paris that will probably prevent the present International Commission for Judicial Reform in Egypt from ever resuming its sessions. Moreover, the better opinion is that the Cabinets of Berlin, St. Petersburg, and Vienna—in compensation for increased influence in other parts of the Ottoman Empire and in the Danubian Principalities—are quite prepared to accord to England and France the exclusive right of providing Egypt with judges.

The United States is at present placed in a somewhat false position in the Levant because our representatives have never yet accepted as an accomplished fact what all the European powers have long ago frankly acknowledged—namely, the Anglo-French protectorate in Egypt. The clique of irreconcilable pashas who, as occasion may require, figure under the name of the "Old Turk Party," or of the "Egypt-for-the-Egyptians Party," and who are imbued with that kind of "patriotism" so forcibly defined by Samuel Johnson, make "American Intervention" one of their war cries against the *status quo*. The capital which this obstructionist party makes of such despatches as the following, which I cut from the *Phare d'Alexandrie* of August 1, may readily be imagined:

"NEW YORK, 9 juillet, 1881.

"INTERVENTION AMÉRICAINE DANS LA MÉDITERRANÉE.—La criminelle catastrophe survenue à Washington a suspendu l'exécution des mesures curatrices que le Gouvernement américain était décidé à prendre en vue des graves événements qui se passent dans la Méditerranée. L'éclosion de ces événements n'a pas surpris les hommes politiques actuels de Washington; car leurs prédécesseurs au pouvoir avaient déjà envoyé, il y a dix-huit mois, le Général Noyes, Ministre américain à Paris, visiter sous prétexte de voyage de santé, non-seulement l'Égypte, mais encore la côte de la Tripolitaine et autres États barbaresques. Le Gouvernement de Washington avait ses raisons de se douter des événements qui allaient surgir dans le bassin méditerranéen, où le commerce américain a de grands intérêts que l'on allait protéger d'une manière efficace, si la tragédie de Washington ne fût pas survenue."

It is quite unnecessary to add that Mr. Noyes's mission was undertaken solely to obtain information with a view to the extension of American trade and commerce in the Mediterranean. Curiously enough, the same journal makes a stirring appeal to the French Government to "intervene" in Mexico and to protect the "Colonie Française du Mexique" from the baneful effects of United States encroachment and predominance. This interference of ours in other men's quarrels in the Mediterranean furnishes an awkward precedent, which will surely be made use of whenever the Panama canal becomes a reality.

Correspondence.

THE PRICE OF FAME.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The paragraph which appeared in the *Nation* of August 25, in reference to "a new American industry," recalls to my mind a letter addressed some months ago by an enterprising citizen of the Union to an eminent judge of the Supreme Court of Nova Scotia. As the letter created a good deal of amusement at the time, and has a direct bearing upon the subject of your paragraph, and shows with what facility fame may be achieved by those who desire it, I send you the following copy:

"I called at your house about two months ago, but did not find you at home. I have written up Sir William Young, Judges Desbarres, Ritchie, Macdonald, James, Morse, and Johnstone (father and son), and from eighty to one hundred other persons in Nova Scotia, for a biographical work on Quebec and the Maritime Provinces. *All the persons whose names I have given have ordered a copy of the book* (price $25), with one exception, and that order I expect to-morrow.

"I leave on Saturday morning. If you would like a sketch and a copy of the book, please let

me know by Thursday P. M. Governor Archibald, Sir William Young, Judge Desbarres, and several others have ordered plates made, which order is optional with parties.

"Unless I hear from you I shall take it for granted you will not be *written up*."

As the letter was made public by the judge to whom it was addressed, the gentlemen who were being "written up" at $25 per head (plates extra) found themselves famous sooner than they anticipated, and in a way that they did not appreciate. M. G.

HALIFAX, N. S., Aug. 30, 1881.

CITY GOVERNMENT IN MASSACHUSETTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your article of September 1, on "City Government in Massachusetts," does not state quite correctly the position assumed by the minority of the Newton Charter Commissioners in relation to the school government. A portion of the misapprehension is evidently due to a want of clearness in the report.

It was not proposed that a School Board should intervene betwixt the City Council and the Superintendent, but it was assumed that the School Board would be, or would include, the Superintendent. It was doubted whether one person would be able to do all the work of administration, and therefore the appointment of a School Board was assumed to be probable, as a plural superintendency. But all that is left, under the proposed charter, to be determined by the City Council.

It is not intended that the School Board, or the Superintendent, or anybody should be appointed by the Council, or be responsible to the Council, in the sense of liability to be removed by it. The head of the department, whether one person or a board, would be nominated by the Mayor, and might be removed by him "for the good of the service," the Council consenting. This phrase, "the good of the service," is made throughout both reports the basis of official tenure, and not "during good behavior."

Allow me a little space to speak of the reasons for prohibiting standing committees. No doubt your writer is correct in saying that "if these committees could be deprived of the power of *acting*, and given simply the power of *deliberating*, inspecting and reporting to the council itself, . . . they would serve a useful purpose"; and the majority report practically attempts to do just that; but the abuse of standing committees hereabout is very great, and, in the opinion of the minority, nothing short of prohibition would effect the result which you indicate to be desirable.

It is quite customary in Massachusetts city councils to pass orders that the committee on —— be instructed [or authorized] to do or construct this or that thing, and the frequency of such votes really constitutes the various standing committees heads of executive departments. The employment of contractors, workmen, etc., is a part of their "patronage." The minority cannot see how any evil could result from the absence of standing committees if their project were adopted. The heads of departments would do, and do well, a great portion of the work now done by committees, and there is no restriction upon special committees for any needed purpose.

The two reports of the Newton Commission have accomplished one good result in arousing discussion upon the matter of reform in municipal government, and I am quite sure that no member of the commission believes either or both reports to have exhausted all wisdom in dealing with the subject. F. J. P.

NEWTON, MASS., September 5, 1881.

Notes.

THE publishers' fall announcements of new books continue as follows:—J. R. Osgood & Co.: 'The Centennial History of the American Episcopal Church,' by William Stevens Perry, D.D., Bishop of Iowa, in two volumes 4to, illustrated; the last two volumes of the admirable 'Memorial History of Boston'; 'A Memorial History of the County of Hartford, Conn.,' 1631–1881, edited by Dr. J. Hammond Trumbull, in two volumes 4to, and Benvenuto da Imola's Latin Commentary on Dante, hitherto inedited, under the auspices of the Dante Society of Cambridge. The foregoing works will be published by subscription. In addition, the same house will bring out in the regular course of the trade 'Edwin Forrest,' by Lawrence Barrett, 'The Jeffersons,' by Wm. Winter, 'The Booths,' by Mrs. Asia Booth Clarke, and 'Charlotte Cushman,' by Mrs. Clement, in the illustrated "American-Actor Series," edited by Laurence Hutton; 'Genevieve Ward,' by Mrs. Gustafson; 'A Dictionary of the Stage,' by Townsend Percy; 'Famous Painters and Paintings' and 'Famous Sculptors and Sculpture,' by Mrs. Julia A. Shedd; 'Poets and Etchers,' with full-page plates; 'Parisian Art and Artists,' by Henry Bacon (enlarged from *Scribner's*); a translation of Gonse's 'Eugène Fromentin'; 'The Life of the Late Dr. William Rimmer,' by T. H. Bartlett; 'Original Portraits of Washington,' by Elizabeth Bryant Johnston; 'Ralph Waldo Emerson,' by George Willis Cooke; 'Walt Whitman's Complete Poems'; 'Songs and Lyrics,' by Ellen M. Hutchinson; 'The Poets and Poetry of Ireland,' by Alfred M. Williams; 'A Pickwickian Pilgrimage,' by J. R. G. Hassard; 'South Sea Sketches,' by Mrs. Madeleine Vinton Dahlgren; 'Japanese Episodes,' by Edward H. House; 'Events and Epochs in Religious History,' Lowell Lectures by Dr. James Freeman Clarke; 'Dr. Breen's Practice,' by W. D. Howells; 'Familiar Allusions,' by Wm. A. and C. G. Wheeler; 'Heavy Ordnance, as Invented and Improved in the U. S.,' by Gen. C. B. Norton; 'Modern Perspective,' by Prof. W. R. Ware; and the second volume of Shaler and Davis's 'Illustrations of the Earth's Surface.' Finally, separate mention deserves to be made of 'The Horse in Motion,' by Dr. J. D. B. Stillman, a work based upon the extraordinary revelations of instantaneous photography under the patronage of Mr. Leland Stanford, and illustrated with anatomical plates in chromo and otherwise.——Houghton, Mifflin & Co.: 'Memoir and Correspondence of James T. Fields'; a volume of 'Miscellaneous Essays,' by the late Prof. Diman; 'Longfellow's Poems of Sympathy,' edited by Miss C. F. Bates; a revised edition of Johnson's 'William Lloyd Garrison and his Times'; Björnson's 'Arne,' translated by Prof. Anderson; 'Country Byways,' by Miss Sara O. Jewett; 'A Home Idyl,' a volume of poems by J. T. Trowbridge; an illustrated edition of five of Bayard Taylor's most popular ballads; and 'The Children's Book,' a library of classic tales, by Horace E. Scudder.——Lee & Shepard: 'Young Americans in Japan,' by Edward Greey; 'Who Wrote It?' by Wm. A. and C. G. Wheeler; and 'Raleigh,' by Geo. M. Towle.——D. Lothrop & Co.: 'Beautiful Wild Flowers' and 'Beautiful Ferns,' by the Rev. A. B. Hervey, illustrated after water-color drawings by Isaac Sprague; 'Yellow Birds,' by Ernest Ingersoll; a second series of 'Our American Artists,' by S. G. W. Benjamin; 'The History of Spain,' by Prof. J. A. Harrison; 'The Story of Chief Joseph,' told in verse by Martha P. Lorne; a 'Young Folks' History of Boston,' by Hezekiah Butterworth; and 'A Family Flight'—through Europe, namely—by the Rev. E. E. Hale and Miss Susan Hale.——Harper & Bros. announce 'The Heart of the White Mountains,' already familiar to readers of their magazine, by Samuel Adams Drake, with Mr. Gibson's illustrations. They will also issue on the 9th instant 'The Yorktown Campaign,' by H. P. Johnston, of which the sterling quality may be predicted. It will be finely illustrated.——G. P. Putnam's Sons will publish Edmondo de Amicis's 'Spain and the Spaniards,' and Mr. Fraser Rae's 'Newfoundland to Manitoba.'——T. Whitaker will shortly have ready the Rev. C. A. Row's Bampton Lectures (1877), entitled 'Reasons for Believing in Christianity, Addressed to Busy People.'——John E. Potter & Co., Philadelphia, have in press 'The Artist and his Mission: a Study in Æsthetics,' by Prof. W. M. Reily, of Palatinate College.

—Ginn & Heath's Harvard edition of Shakspere in twenty volumes has reached vol. xviii., and their edition (also edited by the Rev. H. N. Hudson, Professor of Shakspere in Boston University), called "Annotated English Classics," has just had 'Othello' added to it.——The "Geoffrey Crayon" edition of Irving's works, now publishing by G. P. Putnam's Sons, is continued in the 'Spanish Papers,' which is fitly accompanied by an engraving of the author after the drawing by Wilkie at Seville in 1828.——It would seem as if the last aid to the scholarly use of the Revised Version of the New Testament had been furnished in the Clarendon Press edition of the original Greek text, into which the readings adopted by the revisers have been scrupulously incorporated (New York: T. Nelson & Sons). It cannot be denied, however, that symmetry calls for a corresponding edition to match the Revised Version in which the American Committee's preferred readings have the place of honor in the text.——As already promised, Mr. Paul Barron Watson's Bibliography of the Pre-Columbian Discoveries of America appears in the current *Library Journal*. It fills 18 pages, and is divided by nationalities mainly, as Discovery by the Chinese, the Northmen (who naturally have the lion's share), the Arabs, etc. Under the Welsh head, the references to Catlin might be increased.——The *Publishers' Weekly* for August 27 publishes an exhaustive index to its own articles and notes on Literary Property during nine years and nineteen volumes, by Thorvald Solberg. This is but a section of the bibliography which Mr. Solberg has undertaken.——The same journal gives lists of the forthcoming publications of the Geological Survey and of the Bureau of Ethnology, the former embracing chiefly mining reports of the highest value, and the latter grammars and dictionaries of the Klamath, Dakota, and Ponca languages; together with lists of the Hayden Survey reports, and of Wheeler's, and of publications authorized by Congress and the Departments, alphabetized. Here the most important entries are a revised edition of Hayden's Atlas of Colorado; a new volume of the Medical and Surgical History of the War; seven volumes of the Official Records of the War of the Rebellion; and the Acts of the Continental Congress. The prices are attached in most cases.——The Reference Lists of the Providence Public Library for the past three months have for their topics Abraham Lincoln, the Relation of Erasmus to his Time, Mme. de Staël, Comets, Deep-Sea Phenomena, the French in Tunis, Dean Stanley, the Centenary of Kant.——Macmillan & Co. have issued an important supplement to their regular catalogue, including not only their own publications, but also those of the Oxford Clarendon Press and the Cambridge University Press.——We have received from Richmond, Ky., a small pamphlet reprint of an

article on Cassius M. Clay, from the Nashville *American*. Mr. Clay is called "A Pioneer Emancipator," not undeservedly. His singular career is well worth studying. The *American* says: "No knight of the period of chivalry ever maintained his honor with more determined courage than he his opinions. . . . He had previously had a difficulty with Maj. Sam. F. Brown, of Fayette County, whom he literally cut to pieces with a bowie-knife."——We learn from the *Athenæum* that the third and concluding volume of Dickens's letters is in press, and that a newly-revised and cheap edition of Blader's 'Biography and Typography of William Caxton' is in preparation by Messrs. Trübner.——Westermann & Co. send us Part I. of a French edition (Baillière) of Brehm's 'Insects,' profusely and beautifully illustrated. The letter-press is none too attractive, whether because of the tax on paper or not we cannot judge.

—The first two numbers of a new weekly publication called *Fiction* have just appeared. As its name implies, it is to be devoted exclusively to fiction, all of which is to be original and of such a nature as never to give offense in the most scrupulous household. Each number contains instalments of two serials and one novelette, and never fewer than two complete short stories. All the stories in this number are anonymous, which we regard as a disadvantage in a periodical devoted to fiction, whatever may be said in favor of such a course in political and critical journals. So many mediocre stories are written every day that those who have time to read only first-rate stories, or those whose taste may differ from that of the editors, are desirous that the names of the authors should be printed as a signal of warning or attraction, as the case may be.

—Naworth Castle is the chief subject of the gossip, entitled "A Glimpse of the Cumberland Border," with which Miss Rose Kingsley begins the September *Lippincott's*, though she has a good deal to say of the wall at Birdoswald built by "the renowned Emperor Hadrian." More novel, though of hardly closer texture, is a paper of a similar nature, in which Mr. J. W. Davis describes Sylt, the largest of the North Frisian Islands off the coast of Schleswig at present, though "slowly but surely the encroaching sea, like a monster serpent, is tightening its coils about its helpless victim." Both papers gain something from the rather hap-hazard illustrations that accompany them, which is more than can be said of Dr. Oswald's chapter on "Bats" which follows, and which is in real need of pictorial elucidation. Sherwood Bonner's new serial, "The Valcours," opens well. The time is the present, of which some of the actors are not aware (the scene being Virginia), and the author has a good deal of humor—which elements afford a promising prospect. With the exception of Mrs. Champney's "A Pretty Kettle of Fish" (post-revolutionary bric-à-brac), the stories and sketches are stupid. A story like "Frant" is enough to taint an entire magazine. Marianna Gibbons collects an agreeable lot of anecdotes about Nantucket, the quaintest of all old places, now getting veneered with watering-place newness. Mr. Maurice Thompson writes about "The Haunts of the Grayling" for sportsmen, and Mr. Edward C. Bruce a chapter called "A Dish of Vegetables," which every one will find pleasant and instructive chat about garden products from a writer who admits that man cannot live on vegetables alone. Men have to eat meat occasionally, says Mr. Bruce: "Festivity is a moral need not otherwise to be fully met A perpetuity of beans is absurd."

—The *International Review* for September has an excellent table of contents, of which Mr. Henry Carter Adams's paper on "Payment of Public Debts" is perhaps the most noteworthy article. Mr. Adams argues, against the policy of a permanent public debt, that the State by payment will convert its creditors from "proprietors in an annuity" into holders of "free capital," to which they must turn their thought and labor if they would still receive an income from it; that the payment of the debt will not diminish the actual capital of the country, like the payment of a debt by a private person, but will release that amount of capital, which may then be turned to promoting the industries of the country; and, above all, that the great gain to the country will be "the attention and care of the previous bondholders" and the binding of "their interest to the present." Mr. John Codman contributes as good a defence as possible, no doubt, of "Mormonism," praising the industry and frugality of its devotees, the patience of the first settlers of Salt Lake City, their power of quickly converting into self-supporting citizens the most unpromising element of the foreign emigration, and their knowledge of and obedience to the precepts of the Bible. As to polygamy, the young people know its evils and can't be preached into it. The "Spain of To-day" of Mr. Wm. J. Armstrong reviews recent Spanish history from the abdication of 1868, with sketches of the leading men of the period. Some of "The Difficulties of Prison Reform" are found by Mr. A. S. Meyrick to be the general indifference of the public, State instead of General Government control, lack of a proper system of penitentiary statistics, sentimental regard for the criminal, and, more than all, political influence. Curiously enough, Mr. Meyrick disclaims a regard for civil-service reform elsewhere, while insisting on it where he has examined the grounds of its necessity. Rev. Charles F. Thwing gives statistics in regard to "The Endowment of Colleges," Mr. Wm. C. Langdon contributes an interesting biographical sketch of "Baron Bettino Ricasoli: the Italian Old-Catholic Statesman," and M. Auguste Laugel furnishes some extremely agreeable reading in the literary article of the number, though it is the first of two or more papers on Victor Hugo.

—Mr. Arthur Tilley, in the current number of *Macmillan's Magazine*, makes a careful examination of "Two Theories of Poetry," one of which, he says, is maintained by Mr. Matthew Arnold, and the other by Mr. Swinburne. The former holds, according to Mr. Tilley, that poetry should be serious, and that its function is "to be the mirror, not of one man's soul, but of the life of all men reflected through that soul," which is Mr. Tilley's expansion of the now celebrated phrase "a criticism of life." Mr. Swinburne, on the other hand, insists on "strong emotion, perfect workmanship, spontaneity—singing power is implied by the two latter." Mr. Tilley thinks Mr. Arnold would agree with this so far as it goes, but would insist in addition on "high qualities of mind and soul." Therefore, here is the difference between the two theories, Mr. Swinburne holding that "any emotion will suffice for poetry, provided it be deep enough to be sincere." The latter's ideal poet is "an impassioned rhapsodist, standing on a lofty sea-lashed rock, with his hair streaming to the wind, communing with the mighty forces of nature, and pouring forth wild musical words in praise of the eternal truths of liberty, fraternity, and equality." Mr. Arnold's is a different being, whose characteristics Mr. Tilley sets forth sympathetically, one of them being, we take it, the "possession of all his faculties," in familiar phrase. "On the whole," the essayist agrees with this, and more cordially, we infer from what follows, than his expression seems to indicate. But, as an English reviewer of his article severely says, he gives no new reasons for doing so, and perhaps the essay is mainly valuable because it recalls the fact that people do really differ about the "function" of poetry, as about everything else.

—To the ordinary reflecting person, we suppose, the notion is an odd one that there is a "school of criticism" which esteems poetry a mere equivalent for music—the music of the present, that is to say, which represents only emotions and images and stops short of ideas. It is, however, the fact, as every reader of the London *Academy*, for example, knows. Mr. Swinburne may be set one side, of course; he and Mr. Rossetti illustrate so well the beauty of form and its value in poetry that their insistence in prose upon its exclusive value need not count; but it is a curious circumstance, worth bearing in mind as one of the literary phenomena of the time in England, that critics of intelligence, who never have written and never could write a line of really Swinburnian form, are, possibly for that reason, convinced that poetry resides in form altogether. Nor is the belief due solely to the ambiguity of such an arbitrary term as "poetry," which some persons apparently use to express what they best like to hear read (say), though they are willing to admit there is something more important in literature; it is a distinctly held tenet that expression is independent of thought, though dependent on emotion, and that inspiration means sibylline contortions rather than clairvoyance first of all. We intend no speculation as to the causes of this phenomenon, which could only occur in people who, being inapt for it by nature, take their sensuousness so hard that they must make a credo of it; but it may be suggested in passing that the Swinburnian poetry is not altogether responsible, and that the vogue of Mr. Tennyson—so much greater than that of Mr. Browning, for example—and the frequent contrast between the value of his form and that of his inspiration, has had its influence in assisting the confusion of persons too serious to found any intellectual canon upon empty and exclusively sensuous minstrelsy. Another source is undoubtedly the widespread intellectual levity which experience shows to be perfectly consistent with the most serious temperaments. At first blush it certainly seems as if the only "two theories of poetry" possible were illustrated by Mr. Carlyle, who despised Homer when a young man and afterwards said that he read nothing else; or were to be respectively referred to the two periods during which St. Paul testifies that he thought differently, having in the second "put away" many cherished conceits of the first.

—Our forefathers have sometimes been unjustly credited with preterhuman foresight in choosing for our national holiday a date sure to be associated with fine weather. On the other hand, the proverbial heat of the Fourth of July is apt to be remembered against them to their disadvantage, as the cold of December 21 against the Pilgrims. In the diary of the meek and gentlemanly Tory, Thomas Vernon of Newport (just reprinted as No. 13 of the Rhode Island Historical Tracts, by Mr. Rider), the eve of July 4, 1776, in the town of Glocester, R. I., where he was then confined on parole, is set down as "the most remarkable cool that I ever knew in July, the wind continuing at northwest; I was very fearful there would be a frost in the night"; and the next day, the 4th itself, "a very clear, cool morning, the wind still continuing at northwest," so that raking hay in the afternoon was very tolerable. On the 5th there were

showers, "with thunder and sharp lightning and some hail." What is perhaps singular is that the great event of the 4th, the Declaration, passed unnoticed in the Diary, as if the news of it, when it arrived, made little impression on a neighborhood nevertheless intensely patriotic, and a household greatly given to reading the newspapers. Still the Diary is all but wholly personal, abounding in details of the weather, of each meal, walk, and nap—the noonday punch, the nightcap pudding-and-milk, the capricious civility of the women folk, the poor fare, so that for vegetables Vernon and his fellow exiles planted their own radishes, lettuce, and spinach immediately on their arrival. Alluding to the radishes, "I can't help observing," says he, "that not one of the family ever tasted or saw one before, but they liked them much." Some of the ex-postmaster's pastimes were "making a snuff-mill, our snuff being almost expended," and making powder-horns and horn tinder-boxes. Mr. Rider's notes are characteristically thorough and helpful, and he has added a borrowed chapter on the Vernon Family and Arms, and a contributed one on the genealogy of the family of Richard Greene, of Potowomut, a large farmer who entertained Vernon handsomely, living "in truly baronial style." The well-known Vernon house in Newport, so often pictured, was the residence of William Vernon, whose political sympathies were signally opposed to those of his brother Thomas.

—An architect who is going to put up an apartment house in this city announces that he intends to give it "an Indian name," as he thinks that "New Yorkers are tired of English names for their apartment houses." The difficulty of finding names not only for apartment houses, but for hotels, streets, new towns, and, above all, country places, has been for a good while a serious one; but for some reason Indian names, though an obvious resource, have made less headway than might have been expected. It is not because they are in themselves necessarily unpleasing to the ear. Many Indian languages furnish names full of liquids and smooth vowels (which is the only general euphonic test that can be applied), though, curiously enough, in Maine, where geographical Indian names have been retained to a marked degree, they are generally harsh and disagreeable to the ear. One reason, we presume, why the proprietors of hotels and apartment houses select English rather than Indian names is, that what they like to get is not so much a euphonically agreeable as a high-sounding name, which will dignify and ennoble their house. Such names as Westminster, Westmoreland, Buckingham, undoubtedly give a "guest," as he is pleasantly called in the language of hotels, a much greater sense of dignity and importance than he could possibly acquire by staying in the "Niagara," the "Minnehaha" or the "Cayuga." In Boston some complaint has been made because, in naming the streets in the new part of the city, the authorities have chosen several names associated in the mind of the reader of history with acts of a character far from noble or worthy of remembrance. But the indignation has been confined to a small number of old-fashioned persons, and most Bostonians, as they walk through Arlington, or Berkeley, or Clarendon street, or still more if they build houses in them, feel that their lives are made more "full" than they could be by such streets as Winter or Summer, or even Beacon.

—Professor Raphael Pumpelly has assumed charge of a novel enterprise in the interest of the Northern Pacific and Oregon Railway and Navigation Company's lines, now under one control. He has been charged with making a thorough survey of the territory tributary to these lines from the Pacific Ocean to Lake Superior, and from British America to the district tributary to the Union and Central Pacific lines. The work, which will be organized for a term of years, contemplates mapping the country "on a published scale of four miles to the inch," in order to show the geological structure, the distribution of minerals, of the different varieties of soils, of plants and animals, and the climatic conditions. For the thoroughness and high scientific quality of it the director's name is a guarantee, but he has also associated with him a number of trained men from the United States Geological Survey, including Mr. Wilson, the able topographer of the Fortieth Parallel Survey. The classification of the lands of the railroad companies according to their fertility and their mineral and timber resources, will, of course, furnish a rational guide to the extension of branches, and will have a wholesome effect in turning immigration into remunerative channels. The bulletin which the survey contemplates publishing will thus be eagerly consulted. Meantime, the Signal Service will welcome the new meteorological stations to be established in the pre-eminently weather-breeding sections of the Continent. In every way the country at large will profit by this nominally private enterprise, which anticipates the national exploration of the great northwest territory.

—The fourth volume of the 'Beiträge zur Entdeckungsgeschichte Afrika's,' published by D. Reimer in Berlin, contains the results of the observations made by Herr Otto Schütt during his travels in the southwestern valley of the Congo. A little more than a year ago Herr Schütt received an appointment from the Japanese Government, which prevented him from preparing for the press the contents of his African journal. This task was accordingly put in the hands of Herr Paul Lindenberg, who has executed it in a satisfactory manner, although of course he could not supply those little finishing touches based on reminiscences which the author doubtless would have added. Herr Schütt's primary object was to prepare accurate maps of the regions traversed, and this, as Dr. Kiepert has truly observed, requires the full attention and energies of the traveller to such a degree that the route-maps of botanists, zoölogists, missionaries, and other men who pursue other objects at the same time must be necessarily much less perfect. Especial value, therefore, attaches to the beautifully-printed maps appended to the volume. There are three of them, two of which illustrate Herr Schütt's route through the Congo valley, while the third comprehends his observations along the lower Quanza as well as Dr. H. von Barth's travels in the regions of the Bengo and Lucalla. These maps have had the benefit of being revised by Dr. Kiepert in accordance with hints from Herr Schütt. By the use of continuous and of dotted lines those river courses which came under Herr Schütt's personal observation are distinguished from those on which he merely reports by hearsay. From the fact that the preparation of an accurate map was Herr Schütt's principal aim, it must not be inferred, however, that the contents of his journal are of inferior interest. There are numerous valuable remarks relating to climatic conditions and to the flora and fauna of the regions traversed. The notes on the manners and customs of the natives, though they contain little that is absolutely new to anthropologists, yet, like all anthropological writings, constantly bear witness to the fact that truth is stranger than fiction. Like his predecessors, Herr Schütt suffered more annoyance from the difficulty of securing carriers, and of making them obey him, than from any other source. An amusing account is given of the curious custom called Quituch, by which a negro is entitled to demand compensation of another if he can prove that the other intended him any serious harm. One native, for example, says to another: "You resemble a person whom I formerly knew." The second replies: "Where is the man who, as you say, resembles me? You say he is not here? Fetch him to me! Impossable, you say? Then he is dead, and your wish is that I might die too. For this you must pay me so and so much." And pay he must. But now comes his turn. He says to his adversary: "You have taken such and such a sum of money from me. But it is all I have, and you therefore desired that I should die of starvation. I therefore demand of you double the sum I paid."

TAINE'S JACOBIN CONQUEST.—I.

Les Origines de la France Contemporaine. Par H. Taine, de l'Académie Française. La Révolution. Tome II. La Conquête Jacobine. Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern.

The Jacobin Conquest. By H. Taine. Translated by John Durand. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

TAINE'S 'Jacobin Conquest' strikes a deathblow at the Revolutionary tradition. Not a century has passed since the convocation of the States-General startled Europe with the opening of the Revolutionary drama, yet every intelligent student knows that the events of an astounding era are already hidden from view by clouds of misconception, of legend, and of mythical invention. That this is so is due to two causes: first, to the rapidity with which one fearful crisis followed another, so that contemporary observers were too much dazed by the shocks of a moral and political earthquake to note accurately the phenomena passing under their eyes; and, secondly, to the fact that when a new world emerged from the chaos caused by the destruction of the old order, all parties saw past events through the mist of their own interests, prejudices, and passions. To the Legitimists and the older Tories the murdered King and Queen were little less than saints, martyred by a nation of ruffians. To Imperialists all that was good in the Revolution was summed up in the achievements of Napoleon, while every one who opposed their hero was either a reactionist or a bloodthirsty Jacobin. The Republicans, again, found, according to their various shades of Republicanism, representatives and heroes in Lafayette, in the Girondists, in Danton, or (astounding as it seems to Englishmen) in Robespierre, and interpreted every transaction of the Revolution so as to vindicate their own principles and the character and foresight of their special idols. Nor did these opposing versions of history correct each other so much as might have been expected. The opinions of Royalists who refused to admit either that the *ancien régime* had any faults or that the Revolution achieved any good results, could not weigh with any cool critic; and the opinions of Imperialists or Republicans, though they might differ in many respects, almost inevitably rested upon certain common assumptions. They each and all considered the Revolution, and even the Revolutionary excesses, to have been the work of the whole French nation; they each supposed that all France was inspired with a sort of passionate enthusiasm; they all held that "greatness," if it were only greatness in crime, was, so to speak, the characteristic of all the men and parties who played a prominent part in the great melodrama which, however fearful some

of its scenes, however disastrous some of its calamities, was yet filled with the triumphs and the glory of France.

The Revolutionary era, in short, was, according to the Revolutionary tradition, an age of heroes. The meannesses, the pettinesses of human vanity and human self-interest, had, it was thought, little influence at a period of moral revival and of political exaltation. The horrors of the Reign of Terror might, it was felt, be the work of demons, but were too gigantic, too tragic, to be the result of the miserable petty passions which sway common men at common times. Moreover, as a matter of fact (and this is a point to which Taine hardly pays sufficient attention), the Revolution did triumph over stupendous dangers. How was it possible not to believe that the men who routed, or seemed to have routed, the allied forces of Europe were not leaders of Titanic power? Nor was this the belief only of Frenchmen concerned for the honor of their country. The author whose pictures give most Englishmen their only vivid impression of the scenes of the Revolution, shared in the main the belief in the truth of the Jacobin version of French history. Carlyle detected some special errors which were the fruit of imagination or mendacity. But, take it all in all, he accepted what we have termed the Revolutionary tradition. The whole movement seemed to him a tremendous protest against shams; the uprising of a whole people to assert, if not their belief in eternal truths, at least their resolution to have done with lies and falsities. He mocks at every idea that the crises of the conflict were to any extent the result of intrigue or contrivance. His bitterest sarcasms are aimed at what he pleases to consider the delusion of the Girondists, that their lives were in danger. He has no words of contempt too strong for the men who refused to grasp the blood-stained hands of Danton, and even uses expressions which suggest that the massacres of September were the result not of a plot, but of preternatural suspicion engendering insane panic. Everywhere he sees in the uprising of the people the influence if not of divine yet at least of demoniac inspiration. And the view of Carlyle has been dramatized, popularized, or vulgarized by Dickens in the 'Tale of Two Cities.' England and America, no less than France, have thus in the main adopted the Revolutionary tradition. Taine now comes forward, and not by the force of declamation (for he is neither an eloquent nor a striking writer), nor by the effect of original theories (for his speculative power is extremely limited, and his constant tendency is to mistake a platitude for a principle), but by the weight of accumulated facts which are certainly true as far as they go, and have not before been grouped together, shows that the accepted tradition is at the very best but a one-sided statement of the truth, and, like other traditions, involves so much perversion or concealment of undoubted facts that, if not an absolute myth, it is assuredly not to be taken as genuine and authentic history. On four main points at least every candid student who reads Taine with care must, in our judgment, admit that the legend requires revision.

First. It is assuredly not the case that France as a whole was at any period between 1789 and 1815 Republican in sentiment. We suspect Taine to be right in the assertion that Lafayette and Constitutionalists of his stamp were the genuine representatives of intelligent public opinion. But whether this was so or not is of course, to a certain extent, a matter of judgment, on which equally competent authorities will to the end of time be at variance. What is certain (for here we have to deal with ascertainable figures) is that a very small proportion of Frenchmen—far smaller than one has hitherto supposed—really took a part in moulding the destinies of their country. Nothing is more curious than the statistics, too long to quote, by which Taine shows that at each successive series of elections a smaller number of electors voted. The elections for the Legislative Assembly did not represent the country. The elections for the Constituent Assembly represented it still less. Large classes—nobles, priests, and others—were in many cases avowedly excluded from voting. In hundreds of cases the voting, not protected, it must be remembered, by the ballot, had hardly the appearance of freedom. The tyranny of local clubs, consisting of precisely the kind of men whom Mr. Forster calls "village ruffians," made the performance of civic duties by any one who did not share the opinions of such clubs a matter requiring great boldness and energetic civic virtues. But respectable Frenchmen towards the close of the eighteenth century were even more than at present deficient in individual initiative, and in the kind of political bravery which can only be acquired by training in the contests of political life. The Constitution, moreover, framed by the National Assembly was, as Taine points out, pre-eminently unsuitable to a nation not yet accustomed to the labors and responsibilities of freedom; for it required constant attendance at constantly repeated elections. Inhabitants of any of our great cities know well enough from experience what this means. Our rich merchants are not prone to sacrifice their business in order to attend primaries or conventions. But the laziest American citizen is, it may be safely assumed, tenfold more energetic in the discharge of political duties than was an ordinary French landowner or shopkeeper in 1791. Taine, indeed, explains with an elaboration which to Americans seems quite unnecessary how it was that well-to-do Frenchmen, finding the discharge of public services always irksome and constantly dangerous, practically retired from political life; and how it happened that the duties which rich men would not discharge were taken up by the loafers and scoundrels who found both pleasure and profit in the constant attendance at clubs which met and drank in taverns, and took care to place their members in every office worth holding. Nothing is more striking, indeed, in the whole of Taine's book than the curious details of this half-spontaneous, half-involuntary retreat of the well-to-do Frenchmen, who, with the majority of the nation on their side, constantly yielded to the pressure exercised by a minority who had the advantage of knowing what they wished for, and of perfect freedom from scruples as to the means by which they attained their ends.

Secondly. Taine makes clear to demonstration that the supposed enthusiasm for freedom on the part of the mass of Frenchmen had little or no existence. The *ancien régime* was, according to every account which can be trusted, detested by the country, and there was undoubtedly a great deal of fervent zeal roused in support of the National Assembly and its work; but Taine's facts make it, to say the least, highly probable that the majority of Frenchmen were satisfied with the triumphs achieved by that Assembly, and would have been glad to support the constitution which it had framed. But neither in this nor in any other matter did the majority ever succeed in having its own way. The 'Jacobin Conquest' is the history of the defeat of the nation by a minority which, if it did not consist wholly of the ruffians and scoundrels whom Taine is a good deal too ready to identify with the whole body of Revolutionists, certainly contained as large a number of rogues, blackguards, and jail-birds as ever made up the rank and file of a fanatical faction. For the proof of this we must refer our readers to Taine's details of the movement throughout France. At Avignon, at Marseilles, at Lyons, smugglers, bandits, convicts, pickpockets, and cutthroats undoubtedly did, however you explain the fact, ride for a time rough-shod over the judges, constables, and officers who generally send such gentry to the jail or the gallows, and the party who most freely used such associates won the victory. In spite of electoral pressure, the wish of France made itself heard in each Assembly. In the National Assembly, in the Legislative Assembly, in the Constituent itself, what was the moderate party of the hour—"the Right," to use the French expression—had the majority, and in each case the majority were defeated, though in the last struggle which Taine narrates—the contests between the Girondists and the Jacobins—the victorious minority, hated in Paris itself, did not number in the capital which was its stronghold more than ten thousand men. The Revolution illustrates the evils resulting from the government of minorities. The fact, whatever be its explanation, is well established and deserves attention.

Thirdly. The success of the minority was not the effect of some incomprehensible decree of fate or of any unaccountable or mysterious influences; it was, Taine at least contends, the result of combination, audacity, and intrigue. In this matter we are not defending, but stating, the conclusions of our author; but that, within certain limits, these conclusions are true we can scarcely doubt. He follows, in fact, an authority better than himself, and does little more than summarize the results of Ternaux's fragmentary work, which, had it been completed, would have made an invaluable monograph on the Reign of Terror. The transactions on which readers would do well to fix their attention are the massacres of September. The butchery and its effects in terrifying Paris are thus summarized by Taine:

"For six days and five nights the massacre went on without interruption. There were 171 murders at the Abbaye, 169 at La Force, 223 at the Châtelet, 328 at the Conciergerie, 73 at the Tower of St. Bernard, 120 at the Carmelites, 79 at St. Firmin, 170 at Bicêtre, 35 at La Salpêtrière. Among the slain were 250 priests, 3 bishops or archbishops, generals, magistrates, an ex-minister, a princess of the blood royal, persons bearing the most illustrious names in France. Side by side with these are victims of another class—a negro, women of the people, children from the streets, convicts, and paupers. There is not a man in Paris, great or small, who does not from this moment feel the knife at his own throat. The terror is the greater because the band of murderers is increased. Fournier, Lazowski, and Bécard, captains of assassins and robbers, have returned from Orleans with 15,000 cutthroats. On their way they have strangled M. de Brissac and M. Delessart, and 42 other prisoners accused of treason whom they have snatched from the courts. Then, to finish 'emulating the example of Paris,' they have killed 21 prisoners arrested on suspicion and taken from the prisons of Versailles. On their arrival at Paris, they are thanked by the Minister of Justice, congratulated by the Commune, and feasted and embraced by the sections. Every one knows that these villains are ready to begin their work anew."

The time for which the massacre lasted would, were other proof wanting, be fatal to the theory of its being an outburst of unpremeditated fury. But we now know what perhaps Carlyle did not when he wrote his history—details as to the sums which the murderers were paid, the way in which their work was done, the leaders who arranged the massacre, which throw a new light upon what will always remain the most disgraceful scene of the Revolution. The massacres were planned by the Minister of Justice. Danton boasted with undoubted truth that he was their author, and we know what was their

object. They were neither more nor less (as is distinctly shown by Ternaux) than a great electoral dodge. The object of the slaughter was to keep the Commune in power and to ensure the return of Jacobin members for Paris. This was its aim, and the aim was gained. The clearing of the prisons was Danton's *coup d'état*. He must bear the responsibility for his crime, shared, indeed, with the other Jacobins who, like Robespierre, advised acts which they had not the courage to perpetrate, as truly as Louis Napoleon must bear throughout all ages the responsibility for the crime of the 2d of December. The two *coups d'état* are worth bringing together; they were each meant to quell opposition by force of fear, and each, to the disgrace of France and Paris, succeeded.

Fourthly. The Revolutionists and the Terrorists perpetrated great crimes on a huge stage before the eyes of the whole civilized world. They were, further, the standard-bearers of democracy in a world-wide struggle, of which the tumults in Paris, and even the whole Revolution in France, formed only a small part. But they were not men of extraordinary capacity or far-seeing statesmen. The statesmanship of the Girondists, to whom, because of their many weaknesses, history has scarcely yet done full justice, may be measured by the fact that Brissot, Roland, and Madame Roland passed among them for great statesmen; the capacity of the Jacobins may also be measured by the fact that their chief, Robespierre, could never devise any better mode of dealing with opponents than sending them to the guillotine, and that the very names of the leaders of the faction would, with one exception, be now absolutely forgotten were it not for the atrocious crimes which have procured for a few of them an eternity of infamy. Who knows anything about Fournier, Lazowski, and Bécard? Who can tell us a single fact about Momoro, about Panis, Robert, Fréron, Legendre, or Collot-d'Herbois? Of Marat himself the world knows and cares to know nothing but the fact of his assassination and his insane thirst for blood, which makes even moderate men doubt whether in his case assassination was a crime. The one man who has any claim to the reputation of greatness is Danton. It is a little difficult to judge fairly even of his talents. That there was something in Danton which impressed those who came across him with a sense of force can admit of no doubt. Taine himself shows that, while he detests every part of Danton's policy, he has an admiration for his capacity as a ruler of men. "The head manager," he writes, "is of another sort and another cut. Danton is a real leader of men. His past history, his position in the Ministry, his popular cynicism, his manners and language, his power of initiative and of command, his ungoverned strength both of body and of mind, the physical ascendancy gained by his cold but absorbing will—all these qualities have fitted him for his terrible office." But, after all, his statesmanlike capacity remains problematical. How could any man endowed with foresight have failed to see that the massacres of September were a fatal blunder? How came it that a true leader of men, unhampered by scruples, was caught off his guard and fell a victim to the cowardice and cunning of Robespierre?

McCLELLAN'S PENINSULAR CAMPAIGN.

The Peninsular Campaign of General McClellan in 1862. Papers read before the Military Historical Society of Massachusetts in 1876, 1877, 1878, and 1880. Printed by the Society. Vol. I. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1881.

THE nature of this book is to some extent peculiar. It consists of papers of unequal length and unequal merit, prepared either by committees or by single members of the Society, and read before it at various times between 1876 and 1880. Taken together, they make up a somewhat fragmentary history or criticism of the entire campaign to which they refer.

The first paper, which is by far the most valuable of the series, was prepared by a committee consisting of Mr. John C. Ropes, Gen. F. W. Palfrey, and Capt. W. E. Perkins. It discusses the general subject of McClellan's plans: What were his plans? what were their advantages and defects? what authority had he to execute them? and how much was he interfered with in their execution? These are fundamental questions which have been much debated and written upon, but we do not remember to have ever seen in print so concise, so closely reasoned, carefully worded, and thoroughly conclusive a statement of the subject as is given in the twenty-five pages here devoted to it. The committee find, as to plans, that McClellan had two: to land at Urbana, cut off Yorktown, and advance to Richmond behind it; or, to land at Fort Monroe, capture Yorktown by "a combined naval and land attack," and "fight a decisive battle between West Point and Richmond, to give which battle the rebels will concentrate all their available forces." As to their merits, the Urbana plan "would have been a very hazardous undertaking," and, all things considered, it "was absurd." The Fort Monroe plan, *since a decisive battle had to be fought*, and since Fort Monroe and Fredericksburg were about equidistant from Richmond, offered no advantages over the direct route "except such as may perhaps result from the nature of the ground"; but the committee "hesitate to pronounce" that "the almost impenetrable thickets of the Wilderness . . . were more to be feared than the swamps of the Chickahominy." As for the theory that, by moving to the Peninsula, a blow was struck at the enemy's base or rear, it was wholly fallacious; for while the army was moving to and up the Peninsula the enemy would have time to move over to meet it, as in fact he did. The idea of a movement by the south side of the James was only hinted at by McClellan, and not as a part of his Fort Monroe plan; it was impossible when the plan was decided on, because he did not have control of the James, and when he did have such control it was not attempted. Moreover, the Peninsular plan "either uncovered Washington or divided the army"; it "necessarily involved a serious opposition from the President and Cabinet"; and it relied upon the assistance of the navy at Yorktown to an extent far beyond the power of the navy or the assurances of the Navy Department.

Having discussed the merits of the plans, the committee find that McClellan was authorized to carry out the movement via Fort Monroe provided certain clearly specified conditions were complied with; and they

"regard it as established beyond question that Gen. McClellan did not propose [purpose] to comply with the requirements of the President; and they cannot regard the detention of Gen. McDowell's corps at Washington as an interference with any plans which Gen. McClellan was authorized to carry out. Nor can we avoid the impression that this failure to comply with his orders was not due to an honest misunderstanding of those orders on the part of Gen. McClellan, but rather to a profound contempt for the Washington authorities, and a determination to get his army on the Peninsula without weakening it by what he considered unnecessary detachments."

The second paper treats of the siege of Yorktown, and is written by Gen. John C. Palfrey, who was an officer of engineers. It criticises the unnecessary slowness of McClellan's movements, but does not add much to our previous knowledge of the subject. As McClellan excused his slowness by what he considered the failure of the navy to co-operate with him, about one-half of this paper is devoted to an examination of the whole subject of naval attacks upon forts, every instance of this kind during the war being cited; from which "it seems that the navy was right in not attacking Yorktown, and that Gen. McClellan's opinion that it might have reduced it was ill judged." Of the final capture of Yorktown the author says: "Our bloodless victory, so long in winning, brought us nothing but disadvantage. In its loss of men, time, and money it was more like a defeat."

The third, fourth, and fifth papers treat of the battles of the campaign from Williamsburg to Malvern Hill; they are written by Gen. F. W. Palfrey, or by committees of which he was chairman. They are analytical rather than descriptive, and to a very large extent are taken up with quotations from official reports in the vain attempt to reconcile hopelessly conflicting statements. Beyond this there is little of narrative, but much of criticism, the nature of which may be inferred from a few extracts: "Curiously enough, there was always something for McClellan to do more important than to fight his own battles." "His pursuit was feeble and disconnected." "There is something in McClellan's history—a sort of incapacity of doing anything till an ideal completeness of preparation was reached—which cannot fail to engage the attention of those who study his campaigns." "It is not worth while to invade a country, and approach its capital, and move close up to the army covering it, to then find excuses for doing nothing more." "Had McClellan been where he should have been at the critical moment, etc. . . . His almost invariable absence from the battle-field." Finally, "I have said enough to show that I regard McClellan as a failure. He was not only a disappointment, but his 'tall talk' made him an aggravating disappointment." "And yet we ought not to regard McClellan with anger or with contempt. . . . He was in many respects a useful officer. . . ." But "it is not likely that he will have a place in history. His name could only find a place low down among the soldiers of all time."

The volume is concluded by a short paper by Gen. C. A. Whittier, entitled "Comments on the Campaign." It contains a panegyric on the Army of Northern Virginia, "the best army which has existed on this Continent," and serious reflections of the "mudsill" order on the Army of the Potomac. It rehearses the old and hackneyed apologies for McClellan, and the equally time-worn condemnation of his superiors; it gives nothing new, and is in flat contradiction to the remaining nine-tenths of the book. We suppose it is published as an historical relic of certain opinions of eighteen years ago, now seldom encountered. But even in those days a clever critic epitomized the Peninsular campaign by saying that "the plan was too rash and its application too timid." This is the sense of the present volume, as it probably will be that of history.

LEADER'S MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS.

Mary Queen of Scots in Captivity: a Narrative of Events from January, 1569, to December, 1584, whilst George, Earl of Shrewsbury, was the guardian of the Scottish Queen. By John Daniel Leader, Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries. Sheffield: Leader & Sons; London: George Bell & Sons. 1880. 8vo, pp. 644.

MR. LEADER has produced a very interesting book, and a real contribution to one of the most hotly disputed of all controversies. For although the limits of time to which his subject is confined exclude all direct discussion of the two principal charges against the Scottish queen—

her complicity in the murder of Darnley and in the Babington plot—yet the detailed account of her life during sixteen years of captivity, all crowded with intrigues and plots, cannot help to throw light upon her character and upon the circumstances which surrounded the events in question. Mr. Leader does not conceal his own opinion as to these. He says briefly (p. 11): "Without dwelling on the arguments adduced, we may conclude that the guilt of Darnley's murder was fairly divided between Mary and the Scottish Lords: in what they contrived she acquiesced, and both were too deeply compromised to play with success the part of innocence." He also asserts without hesitation that she was an accomplice of Babington (p. 620). Of the York Conference he says (p. 9): "Its real purpose was to supply Elizabeth with a much-needed pretext for Mary's continued detention."

Here is, indeed, the vital question, not of Mary's life, but of that portion of it treated in this volume: What right had Elizabeth to keep her in prison all these years? Most certainly, if there was no sufficient justification for this, it is unreasonable to censure Mary's plots and deceits in her efforts to regain her liberty. Even acquiescence in the Babington plot should not be condemned too severely after nineteen years of this treatment. Mr. Leader's narrative shows how at every step her professions of charity and humility were belied by uninterrupted scheming, not merely for her own liberty, but for the invasion and subjugation of England, the dethronement, and of course the death, of Elizabeth herself; and he often calls the attention of the reader to the duplicity and, to speak plainly, the perfidy of this course. But if Mary was unjustly imprisoned, as she contended, what else could she have done? As heirs of English liberties, we shudder to think what would have become of those liberties if a second Mary—a Stuart and a Guise as well as a Tudor—had held rule there, backed like the first by all the power of Spain, and with Scotland under her feet as well as England. Cecil and Walsingham were fighting the great battle of freedom and civilization, and they won; but they fought with weapons which no statesman of the nineteenth century would deign to use. They were the characteristic weapons of the age. If their antagonist used them as well as they, we cannot find fault with her, for she, too, was terribly in earnest.

At the same time, one cannot but acknowledge with pride the truth of Mr. Leader's defence of Burghley (p. 176):

"He was dealing, on his sovereign's behalf, for the safety of the kingdom, and against him were arrayed some of the subtlest minds of the age. His opponents shrunk from nothing, not even from assassination; but Burghley, it must be admitted, met treachery by treachery, and proved himself cleverest in the disreputable game. Had Philip or Alva been troubled with a Queen of the Scots, they would soon have removed the cause of discord; but political assassination does not commend itself to the English mind. In an age when intriguers shrank from no villany, Englishmen never stooped to assassination. While they used spies, and inflicted torture, they avoided the dagger and the cup."

There was a time, however, when even the English ministers were very near employing this weapon against Mary Stuart.

As Mr. Leader says, the casket-letters afforded Elizabeth's ministers "a much-needed pretext for Mary's continued detention"; but the real reason, which the pretext was to cover, was the conviction that Mary was the great enemy of their realm and their queen, and that, once in their hands, she must not be suffered to escape from them. If she had been merely an adulteress and murderer, that was a thing that did not concern England; the age was not so squeamish as to the character of its princes. Even in our own century, we know that Napoleon III. was the honored guest of Queen Victoria. But Mary was the rival and enemy of their queen. She was without question the heiress to the English throne, and in her own eyes was by right the occupant of that throne. This was what gave intensity to the rivalry. *Vita Mariæ mors Elizabethæ; vita Elizabethæ mors Mariæ;* and this alternative had been a necessary one ever since "she commenced her course of opposition to Elizabeth by quartering the arms and assuming the style of Queen of England, on the death of Mary Tudor" (p. 516). Elizabeth's position was a very perplexing one. As Queen and as a Tudor she could not quietly see a sister-queen deposed and put on trial by her own subjects. As woman, "she could not," she said, "put to death the bird that had flown to her for succor from the hawk." At last, however, as Mr. Leader says (p. 283), she

"recognized the necessity of confining, if not killing, the 'bird' that had flown to her for shelter, a recognition that ensured cheerless captivity for the Queen of Scots. Matters might perhaps have improved after a time, if she could have contented herself with her needle-work, her pet birds, and small dogs. But Mary Stuart's nature was too restless to be quiet, too unscrupulous to be nice in the choice of instruments. It did not fall to her lot to be every day mixed up in great plots, such as the conspiracy with Ridolfi, but, if great intrigues failed to present themselves, she devised little ones, even weaving the meshes around herself; and when fate brought her once again into large treasons, the eagerness with which she embraced the occasion showed that the opportunity, not the disposition, had been wanting."

Mr. Leader has given four portraits—of Mary, Norfolk, Shrewsbury, and Lady Shrewsbury. That of Mary is a full-length portrait, photographed from "the famous 'Sheffield Portrait' preserved in Hardwick Hall. The original is painted on an oak panel, and represents the Queen, in her thirty-sixth year, as anything but the beautiful woman traditionally described. She has also a very decided cast in the right eye, which the artist, with some skill, has rendered less obvious by representing her as looking towards the left." The other three portraits are copied from engravings by the Woodbury-type process.

The author, himself a Sheffield man, has taken pains to bring into prominence the length and importance of Mary's confinement in Sheffield—far longer in duration than that in any other place, but almost forgotten in the greater fame of Bolton, Tutbury, and Fotheringhay.

METTERNICH.

Memoirs of Prince Metternich. Edited by Prince Richard Metternich. Translated by Mrs. Alexander Napier. Vols. III. and IV. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1881.

In the first two volumes of Metternich's 'Memoirs' we saw him (*Nation*, No. 763) as he was during the long years of the often disastrous but finally victorious grapple of Austria and of Europe with the great French conqueror. In the volumes before us we see him as he was in the years of Europe's general tranquillity, of Austria's hegemony among the great powers, of his own greatest prosperity and influence. He was then—in the years 1816–1829, a period intervening between the Congress of Vienna and the Revolution of July—the high-priest of conservatism and legitimacy, a guide of monarchs (deemed infallible by his own), the terror of Liberals, the most implicitly obeyed, most honored, and most richly rewarded of statesmen. If statesmen can be happy, he was then the happiest of the class. He had, with others, broken the power of Napoleon, and could claim for himself the greatest share in the achievement. The affairs of Europe, and of Germany particularly, had been settled at the great congress held under his auspices in the capital of his Emperor. At the congresses of Aix-la-Chapelle (1818), Carlsbad (1819), Troppau (1820), Laybach (1821), and Verona (1822) he dictated peace and order, reaction, repression, and intervention. He suppressed the insurrection of Italy by the arms of his empire, and the Spanish revolution through the intervention of France; kept Alexander of Russia in check whenever he sought to move in favor of Greece; and governed Germany, or rather kept her down, through the machinery of the Diet of Frankfort and the obsequious pusillanimity of Frederic William III. It was only in the affairs of Greece that the diplomacy of Canning and the Turkish war of Nicholas thwarted his policy. In everything else he was successful: peace was lasting, reaction triumphant, absolutism the rule, Austria the shining example, his own wisdom the beacon of salvation.

And no statesman ever believed more in himself, and in himself alone, than Metternich did. "My mind," he ejaculates in 1819, "conceives nothing narrow or limited; I always go, on every side, far beyond all that occupies the greater number of men of business; I cover ground infinitely larger than they can see or wish to see. I cannot help saying to myself twenty times a day: 'Good God, how right I am, and how wrong they are!'" Many talk as if they were giants: "follow them and you soon perceive that you have only to do with phantoms. . . All that moves this world at present is of a miserable character." And "this period will pass away like all human folly," with all the advocates of liberal institutions, such as the philosopher Krug, "a mere common babbler, without vigor or strength, who is hardly fit to keep a tobacconist's shop"; or Görres, with his "hollow threats and dark prophecies"; or Steffens, "a natural philosopher deeply entangled in all the false tendencies of the time"; or Capodistria, or Canning, the objects of so many invectives in the 'Memoirs.' "I am surrounded," he says in the same year, speaking of a diplomatic conference, "by people who are quite enchanted with their own force of will; and yet there is not one among them who a few days ago knew what he wants or will want. . . . I shall be victorious here as in Carlsbad; that is to say, all will wish what I wish, and . . . will go home in the firm persuasion that they have left Vienna with the same views with which they came." "The difficulties are great," he says in 1820; "but what strength of mind, what purity of conscience and calmness of judgment can accomplish will be accomplished." "The present," he remarks in 1821, "is not worth much. This is evident to me; and history has perhaps never displayed such a pitiable crowd of small personages, who only busy themselves with follies. Heavens! how we shall all be abused when the day of reckoning comes—and that day will come." Then, however, in that remote day, some worthy man will discover that in this time "one being existed who was less wrong-headed than his contemporaries," etc. And right-headedness is sadly needed: "One false principle," he tells the Emperor Alexander, into whose mind his teacher Laharpe had instilled so much of the poison of modern ideas—"one false principle, and the night will be upon us, and chaos will succeed that night." Alexander never fully appreciated these warnings, and when he died, Metternich wrote, "A new era is commencing. My spirit is transported by it, and sees." Shortly before, he had written, with an eye to Alexander's doings in the Greek affair, "At the present moment every one is wrong except myself." And Metternich called "self-conceit the most ridiculous of all peculiarities."

When Metternich's spirit was transported by the new era and saw, he expected Constantine, the most congenial of the sons of the half-crazy Paul I., to succeed his brother Alexander, and he saw this: "The Grand Duke Constantine has great parts; his heart is noble and in the right place; his political principles are most correct. . . . The bent of his mind has two objects: in politics, the support of the monarchical principle; and in an administrative point of view, the internal amelioration of the empire. I deceive myself if the *history* of Russia does not begin where the *romance* of Russia ends." The seer's eye seems to have been slightly dimmed at that moment by the irritation in which he had been kept for years by Alexander's erratic policy, a policy so often swinging towards liberalism, and inspired by Capodistria with a fickle Philhellenism. According to Metternich's estimate of him, Alexander "had a peculiar and deplorable inclination to go wrong." The Czar often allowed him "the honor of looking into his inner thoughts." They would understand one another "quickly enough as to the starting-point and the end to be arrived at." Then both would start, Metternich going "straight to the end proposed, the Emperor round about." Metternich would call to him "Stop!"; he in return, "Do but come with me"; and Metternich again, "Indeed, you have taken the wrong way." Yet Alexander would go on "further astray, full of vexation at being left alone. And this was especially the case in the Eastern question." Alexander, carried "astray" by his liberal romanticism, by Capodistria, Pozzo di Borgo, and Strogonoff, would surely have done something for the struggling Greeks, and thus, perhaps, exposed the world to a cataclysm; but he died before making up his mind, and Metternich sighed charitably: "If from the heights of Paradise things below can occupy one, Alexander comprehends me now better than he ever did on earth, and his soul ought to come to meet and support mine."

Metternich's soul, in the Eastern question, needed support indeed. Alexander's romanticism, it is true, no longer worked mischief on earth; Capodistria, the Byzantine spirit who constantly intrigued against the Porte, was without power with Alexander's successor, Nicholas; and Nicholas himself was "a prince such as . . . sovereigns ought to be." But Greece, mindless of the Austrian Chancellor's deep concern for the peace of the world and the legitimate rights of kings and sultans, was struggling on; the model Czar was unable to resist his people's religious sympathies with her cause; his Pozzo di Borgo—a man who was "always wrong"—worked cunningly at Paris against the influence of the Vienna diplomacy; and, what was worse than all this, Canning had deeply imbibed the poison of Philhellenism, and was capable of doing anything—of supporting both Hellas and Dom Pedro. Canning was Metternich's constant tormentor. Said the latter in 1826: "My situation is like that of one crucified: one arm is nailed to Constantinople, and the other to Lisbon; home affairs occupy the trunk; Mr. Canning is my crucifier, and the Hungarian Diet the sponge steeped in vinegar." And "the crafty and unscrupulous mind of Mr. Canning" led him "to accede to the wishes of the Emperor of Russia" in favor of Greece. Canning was a man "whom Providence had hurled upon England and Europe like a malevolent meteor." Fortunately for Metternich, there was this consolation: "Canning flies, I walk; he rises to a region where men dwell not, while I remain on the level of all things human. . . . His career is as brilliant as a flash of lightning, but as transient; mine does not dazzle, but it preserves what the other consumes." In 1827 England was delivered from this "great scourge," but in the track of the disappearing "malevolent meteor" flamed up the fire of Navarino, consuming the Turkish navy, a mainstay of European legitimacy.

Notwithstanding all this, Metternich violently protested against the supposition that he had "become a Mohammedan." He was firmly convinced that he was "a better Christian than Benjamin Constant, Hobhouse, Chateaubriand, the Abbé de Pradt, and all the rest" of the friends of Greece; that he was "more human than Lord Cochrane," and had "a hundred times more mind, understanding, and sense than M. Eynard." If he opposed all these Philhellenes, it was because they were guilty of "the villany of making religion and humanity a pretext to overthrow the regular course of things." This course of things, as Metternich, in September, 1827, explained to a representative of France, demanded: "1, that the Powers acknowledge the reëstablishment of peace in Greece to be the basis of the treaty [then proposed] in place of the former basis; 2, that the Sultan himself must carry out the pacification; 3, that the Powers show themselves as friends of the Porte and enemies of the revolution; 4, that there be no question of the abdication of the Sultan, or of a Greek government, a Greek flag, Greek fortresses, etc." These peremptory conditions of coöperation with France Metternich dutifully submitted to his master, the Emperor Francis, and the latter, as was always his wont, answered, "Received and noticed"; piously adding, "God grant that your interview with Count de la Ferronays may have the desired effect upon his court." It had not. God granted the battle of Navarino, which, with the Russian war of 1828–'29, had the effect of creating a Greek government, a Greek flag, Greek fortresses, etc.

It is needless to say that in regard to many points in politics, and many personages figuring in it, Metternich's vision was undimmed by the prejudices of his passionate, ever-combative, sleepless conservatism. Thus he knew the last Bourbon King of France tolerably well, when he wrote, shortly after his accession to the throne: "Charles X. is frank, loyal, amiable, chivalrous, and religious; but at the same time he is weak, accessible to insinuations, self-willed, and even violent in his prejudices." The following is better: "Man cannot make a constitution properly speaking: that is made only by time. Just as little is a charta a constitution as the marriage contract is the marriage. Let people write as much as they like—and the less will always be the better—and yet you will have nothing in your hand but a sheet of paper. England alone has a constitution, of which the Magna Charta is but a subordinate element. The English Constitution is the work of centuries, and, moreover, streams of blood and anarchy of every kind supplied the means." His "Confession of Faith," or "Secret Memorandum to the Emperor Alexander," written in 1820, shows both his powers of thinking and the overwhelming strength of his conservative prejudices in the strongest light.

But it is outside the field of politics, in remarks on countries, cities, and landscapes visited, on works of arts, on personal experience of every kind, on human frailty and human life in general, that the reader will find Metternich most worthy of being listened to with attention and some patience. He was an ardent admirer of scenery and good art, and, in spite of a great deal of frivolity, capable of much family affection and tender sadness. He tries now and then to be pathetic, and is sometimes touching. His frivolity often pierces through his mantle of religious decency and devotion to the Church. Speaking of Catalani, he says: "Assuredly, if the Holy Virgin mingles her voice with the songs of the blessed, she must sing like this woman." In reference to Bible distribution in England and the United States, he remarks, "The *maladie biblique* extends through both hemispheres." In Cologne he was shown, among other religious curiosities, "a small coat of Jesus Christ, such as we call in Vienna *ein Kinder-Röckerl*." In the same tone he writes of a procession of St. Januarius, which included "thirty-six busts of saints and *saintesses* in good solid silver, carried by lazzaroni clothed in a sort of mountebank livery," etc. Elsewhere he says: "I believe in the miracles of Jesus Christ, which I have not seen; Dietrichstein believes in Hohenlohe's miracles, which, he says, he has seen." He protests his veneration for the Bible; but though the champion of Catholic interests in European politics, and in Austria a defender even of the Jesuits, he reads it only in Luther's translation. And in the following, written in Rome, he further reveals his character as a Christian and philosopher: "I acknowledge that I cannot understand how a Protestant can turn Catholic at Rome. Rome is like a most magnificent theatre with very bad actors. Keep what I say to yourself, for it will run through all Vienna, and I love religion and its triumph too much to wish to cast a slur upon it in any manner whatever. In all this it is evident that Italian taste has much influence in the ceremonies; what pleases and excites laughter on this side of the Alps causes weeping on the other, and *vice versa*. One ought never to forget to make this allowance—looking on and keeping silence."

To-Day in America. Studies for the Old World and the New. By Joseph Hatton. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1881.

THIS is the latest English book about America, and is not the least remarkable. It has two prefaces. One is addressed "to the American reader," whom the author informs that "June, 1881, will forever be a red-letter month in the calendar of the United States," because Iroquois won the Derby; therefore congratulating himself that his book is "published at a time when this people, basking in the sunshine of success, must feel especially tolerant of English criticisms." The other instructs the British public that it will find "a few new ideas and many new facts in this work," and particularly "a sketch of Colonel Ingersoll, the remarkable representative and eloquent spokesman of free thought in America," who impressed Mr. Hatton as "an orator of great original power," "destined to exercise a strange and mighty influence on theological opinions in the United States," and "an important factor of American progress." The Colonel, Mr. Hatton is sure, will be a great novelty to his countrymen (and Mr. Bradlaugh's), whatever may be said about the rest of his book. Accordingly we find him treated at great length in a section beginning thus: "On Saturday 'Maud S.,' the famous trotter; on Sunday Colonel Ingersoll, the eloquent materialist. It seems to me that on Saturday and Sunday I was face to face with the two most characteristic outcomes of American civilization." And this is from a professed friend of America, who has already told us that "the Great Republic is marching on," and that he stands "upon the sidewalk of sympathetic neutrality and waches the mighty procession." He discovers unsuspected resemblances between Maud S. and Ingersoll. "What Maud S. is to the American trotting-track, Ingersoll is to the American platform." The mare's most marked trait was "an easy grace which seemed to discount her rapidity." "So it was with Ingersoll. He spoke without effort. . . . He was easy all the time; he spoke without effort,"

etc., just as Mr. Hatton writes, apparently. On the race-track Mrs. Hatton thought Maud S. "seemed cognizant of the general enthusiasm," but to Mr. Hatton she appeared "utterly innocent, altogether unaware of her beauty or the acknowledgment of it." How Ingersoll compared with her in this regard is not mentioned, but it is insisted that "both are the development of a special training," and both "representative of the practicalness of American life." "Godless Bob," as we are told the Colonel is called in Chicago, has also points of likeness to Sarah Bernhardt and to John the Baptist. He is "natural in the sense that Mademoiselle Bernhardt is natural in the interpretation of characters which suit her physique." As to the other resemblance: "There is no ignoring the Western orator, and John of the Wilderness stands upon a rock that centuries have not shaken." In respect to hell, the greatest thinkers of the age are with" Ingersoll: "Huxley and Darwin are with him; the scientists are with him, and his doctrine is as old as thought." If the great orator should go to England, however, he would have to "tone down the strong colors of his denunciation of the Bible"; but on the whole—

"Without for a moment pretending to endorse the doctrines of Ingersoll, there can be no doubt that he is doing an important work, and possibly a good work. One of the most enlightened of Chicago clergymen, in discussing the subject with me, took that view. A change is coming over the spirit of the churches. The Church of England must modify the damnatory clauses of its leading creed in the presence of the new movement represented by Ingersoll."

Mr. Hatton is right in terming the Ingersoll part of his book the novel portion of it. The rest is composed of well-known material, with a recognizable warp of platitude, such as: "Dignity requires the support of dress and surroundings. In America genius is dignity. In England officialism and uniforms fill the *rôle*"—unless, of course, it be contended that commonplace is always coherent and comprehensible, in which case we should agree that Mr. Hatton is probably fond of paradox. It would be useless to deny it after quoting the foregoing extracts, or the following examples of consecutiveness:

"If his [H. J. Montague's] impersonations were sometimes wanting in force, they never lacked earnestness. A rare quality, earnestness, it is absolutely necessary to success in any walk of life. Dickens said there was no substitute for it, and he knew."

"The oyster that seemed to Thackeray like a young baby was probably a large Saddle Rock. Saturn's infants were not so nice as those of Fulton Market, judging from the face the greedy god is making at them in the illustrations to the classics. New York cherishes the memory of Thackeray. At the Century Club," etc., etc.

But then there is commonplace too. There are statements to the effect that a murderer has numerous chances of escape in America against none in England; that "dining rooms and parlors are all arranged according to one pattern"; that "a dozen years ago a number of American artists agitated for the purpose of putting a duty of a dollar per square inch on oil-paintings"; that New York "has never accepted the immoral class of farcical comedy which French art has established in London"; that whereas five years ago, when Mr. Hatton was first here, the leading theatres were playing dignified plays, "to-day" (*i.e.*, June) "minstrels and buffoons hold the temples of the drama"; that the men are "never in too great a hurry to neglect any opportunity of being polite to women," but that the latter are "too apt to accept special courtesies as a right"; that the Detroit *Free Press* is "especially devoted to the invention and narration of amusing stories"; that "barriers of all kinds are regarded as an offence," and "you can 'walk right in' and 'interview' anybody in America from the President downward"; that the Salmagundi Club are "pioneers of American art"; that at the Philadelphia Exposition the English pictures were more popular "than those of all the rest of the world put together"; that American audiences are "more unsophisticated than English," and, evening dress not being *de rigueur*, "gentlemen 'down town' (in the city) can meet their wives at a restaurant, dine, and walk into the playhouse afterwards without any fuss"; and that Mr. Charles Dudley Warner is "an essayist as graceful as Lamb and far more humorous." To all readers of English books about America these and similar facts have long been notorious. Mr. Hatton, however, has written whatever came into his head in the order of its arrival, with great frankness and friendliness, and he was doubtless prepared to incur the loss of those excellences which depend upon distinct mental processes of one kind or another. His book has an individual flavor, and the only thing about it more than superficially puzzling is his persistent reference to the countrymen of Lord Castlereagh as "they" rather than as "we." There is certainly nothing Anglo-Saxon about such a sentence as this, which is equally good away from its context: "Not that I would for a moment intimate that he would countenance the thin kind of descriptive elaboration indulged in by a weak and flaccid intellectuality that leans in limp affectation upon a granny's stick."

Early Hebrew Life: a Study in Sociology. By John Fenton. London: Trübner & Co. 1880. 8vo, pp. 102.

We have often wondered that no person has taken up the investigation of the social organization of the Hebrews in the light of the recent discoveries in primitive sociology. Their tribal system is almost the first that occurs to the mind in illustrating the principles of tribal organization, and is at any rate the most generally familiar, from its connection with Christianity; and, for the same reason, the fulness and familiarity of their sacred books afford peculiar advantages for the investigation. Mr. Fenton has undertaken the work with excellent preparation, and has produced a very valuable treatise. There is a certain incompleteness about it, inasmuch as he has hardly touched at all upon the tribal organization—probably because this belonged to the political rather than the social institutions of the Hebrews. Still, one would have been glad to see this part of the subject treated with the insight and freshness that characterize the book. The author introduces his subject with a brief but very satisfactory sketch of the progress of early peoples through the nomad and pastoral periods to the agricultural. This part of the book is general in its character, the Hebrews being, however, taken into special consideration at every stage of the discussion. We will mention as especially good the account of the development of the house and village communities in section 15 (p. 24). It is to be noted that Mr. Fenton takes Mr. Morgan's "classificatory system" as the starting-point in the social organization—a freedom from English "insularity" quite in contrast to that of Prof. Hearn, who, in his 'Aryan Household,' never once, we believe, refers to any but English authorities. In this part of the work we find a very interesting discussion (p. 33) of the influence of *Yahwism*, or the national worship of Jehovah, in checking the disintegrating tendencies which were so disastrous in Greece.

The original portion of the work commences, we suppose, on p. 37, with a comparison of the Hebrew community with those of the different branches of the Aryan race, "taking the points of contact in this order: land, government, reciprocal rights and duties, survivals." Under the first head, as upon the Israelitish tribes, we are surprised at the brevity and what seems to be the paucity of material. The short section is, however, very good, as is the whole discussion. What is perhaps most striking here is the pointing out of what may be called the feudalization of the Hebrew state, and the identification of the "Shôfetim" with the German Barons on the one hand and the Roman Consuls on the other. The rise of "lordships," and the development of a species of serfdom in connection with them, may be easily noted here as a natural outgrowth in a community of this class. It culminated in the period of the so-called Judges. Taking the diverse development of Rome and Germany: "In Rome circumstances welded the entire community into one homogeneous body, whereas in Germany the comparative isolation of the towns resulted in the growth of numerous baronies," while the Roman magistrates "remained the servants of the city" (p. 56). He finds the Hebrew lords to be precisely analogous to neither—on the whole, "parallel to the barons of Germany," but not entirely independent of the "elders."

Chapter v., entitled "Survivals," is highly interesting, especially for the discussion of the year of release and the year of jubilee. The former of these, the "Sabbath of the land," he explains as a fallow, corresponding to that of the "three-field system" of the Middle Ages. "To have the whole tract fallow during one year of a series comes to the same thing in the end as having a fraction fallow during each year of the series" (p. 67). This is very true, as far as the land is concerned; but it is a very different thing in relation to the *morale* of the community. This objection, touching the enforced idleness of the entire community for a year, would perhaps be met by his view that the fallow was directly connected with the periodical redistribution of the land, which is known to have taken place in most early communities. The release of slaves at the end of seven years from purchase cannot have coincided with the release of the land; this "variable septennium," therefore, he considers to be connected with the "manorial villages," while the "absolute septennium" of the land belongs to the "pure village communities." The year of jubilee he regards as growing out of an attempt to revive the redistribution, which had fallen into desuetude in the "baronial" times. Seven years would, in this more advanced state of society, be too short a tenure; and he finds a curious parallel in the borough of Newtown-upon-Ayr, where the septennial redistribution was, in 1771, converted into a distribution once in eight periods; that is, every fifty-seven years.

A valuable commentary upon the forty-eighth chapter of Ezekiel will be found at p. 78; and the division of the ideal land of Judah sketched in that chapter is illustrated by a table occupying the whole of the following page.

New England Bird Life: being a Manual of New England Ornithology. Revised and edited from the Manuscript of Winfrid A. Stearns, by Dr. Elliott Coues, U. S. A. Part I. Oscines. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1881. 8vo, pp. 324, 56 woodcuts.

The birds of New England are doubtless better known than those of any other area of equal extent in the United States, yet there has been hitherto no work relating especially to New England ornithology which adequately covered the ground. Information respecting the mode of occurrence and breeding range of many of the rarer species has so rapidly accumulated during the last five years, that a work epitomizing the scattered records would alone prove most wel-

come and serviceable. 'New England Bird Life' does far more than this; for not only are these records carefully collated and critically weighed, but the work is in every sense a manual of the subject of which it treats, concise and admirable in execution at every point. The editor's preface informs us that the author undertook the work several years ago, and having diligently revised his manuscripts from time to time to keep pace with the advancing knowledge of the subject, finally submitted them to Dr. Coues for final corrections, with permission to alter and emend at his discretion, even to the rewriting of portions. The editor in this way became not only equally responsible for the accuracy and completeness, but virtually a joint author, of the work. Mr. Stearns is too little known as an ornithologist to enable one to judge properly of his capabilities as an author; but whatever his shortcomings, if any, may have been, they are not evident in the work he has so discreetly entrusted to the supervision of a well-known authority. Those who are familiar with the editor's felicitous style, as displayed especially in his 'Birds of the North-West' and 'Birds of the Colorado Valley,' will not fail to recognize his touches on nearly every page, or his influence in the general execution of the work, which is certainly not that of a novice. The part now issued treats of the song birds, or *Oscines* (about one hundred and forty species), but the publishers announce that a second volume completing the treatise will follow as soon as practicable.

The fifty pages of introductory matter are about equally apportioned among "General Definitions," the "Preparation of Specimens for Study," the "Subject of Faunal Areas," and a bibliography of the literature of New England ornithology. The remainder of the book is devoted to descriptions and biographical notices of the species. The descriptions, though brief, are so discriminatingly drawn up that they well serve the purpose for which they were intended; the biographical sketches are masterly, concise, and apt; reflecting in a few well-chosen words the principal facts in the life-history of the species. Their geographical distribution, or the nature and manner of their presence, is made a prominent feature, and the information given in nearly every case fairly reflects the present knowledge of the subject. In a few instances statements are made, especially in reference to the breeding range of certain species, which demand qualification. This is doubtless due to the fact that the editor's personal acquaintance with the New England fauna is not extensive, and to a tendency on his part to risk conclusions based on general principles. The designation of the range of species by reference to faunal areas is uniformly adopted, and proves a most successful and therefore praiseworthy innovation. Too much stress, however, is perhaps laid upon the Carolinian aspect (faunally speaking) of portions of southern New England, for the occurrence of several of the test species within the area claimed as Carolinian is scarcely more than accidental, since they are at best merely stragglers, which have occurred as frequently hundreds of miles north of this area as within it. But these slight defects weigh little against the general excellence of a model manual of local ornithology. The fifty-six woodcuts are all from Dr. Coues's previous works.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Balfour, F. M. Treatise on Comparative Embryology. Vol. II. New York: Macmillan & Co. $5 25.

Beaman, E. A. Swedenborg and the New Age. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 50.

Biddle, G. W. The Two Orations on the Crown, translated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 50.

Black, W. That Beautiful Wretch. New York: Harper & Bros. $1 25.

Bliss, F. C. Queen Esther, and Other Poems. Newark: F. C. Bliss & Co.

Brehm, A. E. Merveilles de la Nature. Les Insectes. Part I. New York: B. Westermann.

Bright, Rev. W. Historical Writings of St. Athanasius. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: T. Nelson & Sons.

Brunton, Dr. T. L. The Bible and Science. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. $2 50.

Buchheim, Prof. C. A. Modern German Reader. New York: Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.

Cape Cod Folks: a Tale. Boston: A. Williams & Co.

Chellis, Mary D. N. Harold Dorsey's Fortune. Boston: Congregational Publishing Society.

Couch, A. Weenonah: a Narrative Poem. New York: U. S. News Co. 30 cents.

Diary of Thomas Vernon, a Loyalist. 1776. Providence: Sidney S. Rider.

Ficklin, Prof. J. National Arithmetic, Oral and Written. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 80 cents.

Fothergill, Jessie. One of Three, and Made or Marred. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1.

Fothergill, Dr. J. M. Indigestion, Biliousness, and Gout. Part I. New York: William Wood & Co.

Glidden, G. R. Ancient Egypt. 15th ed. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 25 cents.

Greek Testament, with the Readings adopted by the Revisers of the Authorized Version. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: T. Nelson & Sons. $1 75.

Green, Dr. S. S. History of Medicine in Massachusetts. Boston: A. Williams & Co. $1.

Halsted, G. B. Elementary Treatise on Mensuration. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. $1 15.

Hennequin, A. Practical Lessons in Idiomatic French. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Holland and Shadwell. Select Titles from the Digest of Justinian. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: T. Nelson & Sons.

Holyoake, G. J. Among the Americans. Chicago: Belford, Clarke & Co.

Homoselie: a Tale. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1.

Hudson, Rev. H. N. Shakespeare's Othello (Annotated English Classics). Also, Vols. 17, 18 of the Harvard Edition. Boston: Ginn & Heath.

Irving, W. Spanish Papers (Geoffrey Crayon edition). New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Lindley, Sir N. The Law of Partnership. 2 vols. 4th ed. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.

Macdonald, G. Warlock of Glenwarlock: a Tale. New York: Harper & Bros. 20 cents.

Major, Prof. J. B. Sketch of Ancient Philosophy from Thales to Cicero. New York: Macmillan & Co. 90 cts.

McCaskey, J. P. Franklin Square Song Collection. New York: Harper & Bros. 40 cents.

New Testament. Revised Version. New York: Harper & Bros. $2.

New Testament, Revised Version. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: T. Nelson & Sons. $7.

New Testament in the Original Greek. Text revised by B. F. Westcott, D.D., and F. J. A. Hort, D.D. New York: Harper & Bros. $2.

GARDINER'S

English Histories

ENGLISH HISTORY FOR STUDENTS. Being the Introduction to English History. By S. R. Gardiner, Honorary Student of Christ Church, and Professor of Modern History at King's College, London. With a Critical and Biographical Account of the Authorities in English History by J. Bass Mullinger, M.A., St. John's College, Cambridge. 12mo, $2 25.

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HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

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6. The Deserted Village. Goldsmith. ..... "
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 15, 1881.

The Week.

THE Republicans of Pennsylvania held their convention on Thursday of last week, and nominated General S. M. Bailey for State Treasurer. His recommendations are that he has a "fine war record," was one of the 306 Stalwarts at Chicago who voted for Grant to the last, and is a puppet of the Cameron ring. The Independents were badly beaten. The platform adopted is a curiosity in its way. It begins with the astounding statement that "as Republicans we are in favor of any proper and well-considered reform in the government of the nation, the State, municipality, or county"; which looks as if the whole trouble between Don Cameron (who is said to have "run" the convention from Coney Island by telegraph) and the Independents might easily be smoothed over, particularly as Don says that he courts "suggestions to any and all of these ends," and only asks that "in their advocacy well-established safeguards shall not be hastily supplanted by experiments." He does not say what these safeguards are, but declares that President Garfield's Administration has "set the right example in this direction," and particularly commends it for insisting on "faithfulness and honesty in every branch of the public service." In order that no mistake might be made about the matter, he added the following explicit statement:

"*Resolved*, That the Republican party has ever been progressive and reformatory, and while realizing that nothing in government is wholly right, we desire to be always brave enough to seek every avenue of approach to the right, to the end that all our people may enjoy the ever increasing blessings of good government."

Since the adjournment of the Convention the Hon. Charles S. Wolfe, who has long been a prominent opponent of Don's reformatory schemes, has announced his intention to run as an Independent candidate. He says boldly that he thinks it would be better for the State to have the Democrats carry it this year than to have boss rule perpetuated, and adds that he for one is tired of the "nonsense" of helping the Ring by first opposing it, and then, in the interest of harmony, submitting tamely to whatever it does. The Republican newspapers generally discountenance Mr. Wolfe's movement; they admit that he is a good man, but think that he has made a "mistake of judgment." All true Republicans, they say, will rally round the cause of Don and administrative reform.

Mr. Platt has been interviewed on the subject of Republican prospects in this State, and it appears that he takes a very cheerful view of the situation. He thinks that if the President recovers, New York, being, "like all other States," filled with "sympathetic people," will go Republican through sympathy, particularly as in the "interior of this State"—though why in the interior rather than on the seacoast, he does not say—they look upon the President as a "demigod." This naturally disheartens the Democrats, and will draw out thousands of voters who would otherwise stay at home. On the other hand, if the President should die, victory would be equally certain, because Mr. Arthur is a New York man, and this fact would also draw out thousands of voters and "give an overwhelming vote." Mr. Platt says that Mr. Arthur was nominated in order to give the ticket strength in New York, and it is therefore rather curious, as an illustration of the different views that may be taken about "strength," to find Marshal Payn, who was present at the interview, quoting Mr. Whitelaw Reid as saying at the time of the convention, "For heaven's sake, do not nominate that man Arthur. It will certainly lose us New York by 50,000 majority." Mr. Platt went on to say that he did not care to discuss the question of Mr. Arthur's cabinet, but thinks that inasmuch as "he would have a harder row to hoe than any preceding President," it would hardly be fair "to expect him to assume that burden of duty unless he could be surrounded by advisers whom he himself selected, approved, and confided in." Mr. Platt shares the feeling common among Stalwarts just now, that "individuals are of very little consequence." He thinks that "if the President, Vice-President, and the whole Cabinet were to die this moment, the machine would move on without the slightest interruption"; but what machine he refers to, he does not state.

The arrivals of foreign gold during the week have been large, so that the value of gold imports since August 1 has risen to $14,675,194 against $16,882,934 in the corresponding time last year. Nothing further has been done by the leading banks of Europe to check the flow of gold to this country, and it now looks as if the specie imports from August 1 to the end of the calendar year would much exceed the estimate of $25,000,000 recently made by well-informed bankers. The cereal harvests in Europe are turning out below the average, except in Russia, where the yield is enormous, and in Austria, where it is above the average; and it is evident that the foreign demand on this country for breadstuffs and provisions will be large. The only question is whether Europe will pay for these chiefly in our securities or in coin. Notwithstanding the large receipts of foreign gold, and the heavy disbursements of the Treasury, the New York banks only gained about $2,000,000 in their net reserve, which, however, is now about $1,000,000 above the 25 per cent. limit. The Secretary of the Treasury has not yet decided how many bonds he will buy with surplus revenue, or whether he will take the long 4 per cent. bonds or the 3½ per cent. bonds. General trade continues active and the percentage of profit fair.

The enormous volume of business doing is attested both by the Clearing House returns and the traffic reports of the railroads. The railroad war continues, and Mr. Vanderbilt is reputed to be personally directing the fight. Nevertheless, the course of prices of railroad stocks has been upwards during the week. At the Stock Exchange an old-fashioned "corner" was developed early in the week in the common stock of the Hannibal and St. Joseph Railroad Company, and the price of the stock was advanced from 96¼ to 225. The victims of the "corner" were generally able to pay, and a few of them did settle their losses promptly. Others applied to the courts, and obtained an injunction which blocks hostile dealings in the stock by the brokers of the clique, at least temporarily; and at the same time they took measures to force the company to permit the exchange of its $4,000,000 8 per cent. convertible bonds into common stock. What will be the outcome of the "corner," so far as its projectors and their victims are concerned, is not a matter of great public interest. All previous "corners" in Wall street have proved to be unprofitable to all concerned. Soon after the development of the Hannibal and St. Joseph "corner" a report was circulated that there was a "corner" in Ohio and Mississippi stock, and the price of this jumped from 38¾ to 60, but soon collapsed, the report proving to be a false alarm. The speculators who had outstanding contracts to deliver other stocks hastened to buy them, so that there was a heavy speculative demand for stocks a good part of the week. This had much to do with the rise of prices, which ranged from 1 to 7¼ per cent. outside of the stocks named.

The American Iron and Steel Association is publishing a series of tracts on the tariff, only one of which we have seen, but that one is enough to make one blush for the human mind. The author opens in this wise:

"Free trade is trade without let or hindrance. Between nations there is no free trade in all the world. Only within the boundaries of a nation does it exist. Freedom within, but restraint without, is the universal rule. Every analogy of nature supports the policy of free exchange between the inhabitants of a country, while it is denied between that and other countries. For instance, there is free exchange between the different members of the human body; and it would be worse than a nuisance, for it would be death, to protect the kidneys or the lungs from the blood, or the stomach from the liver; yet it is highly proper and beneficial to protect all these organs by suitable clothing from aggressive, injurious outside influences, and to protect that human body, as a united whole, against encroachment from some other human body. So it is with the body politic. Free exchange between its various parts is essential to its healthy development and even to its existence; but protection is needed against aggression and encroachment from foreign bodies politic."

To point out the absurdity of this analogy would be labor wasted, because anybody who does not see it for himself is not likely to be a fit subject for any process of ratiocination. It will serve our purpose better to remark that if protection be the national equivalent of clothing for the individual body, nothing but prohibition will do. At present the United States carry on enormous exchanges with foreign countries, and especially with England; or in other words, according to our Iron and Steel author, are in the position of a man walking about without his pantaloons, and with about half his person "ex-

posed to aggressive, injurious outside influences." That this is, from the protectionist standpoint, a very disgraceful state of things is plain enough. According to his own showing, the protectionist must, in common decency, advocate a prohibitory tariff, because he will find that if he goes half-naked the result will be just as serious as if he "protected" his kidneys or lungs from his blood, or his stomach from his liver.

Mr. Lyman Trumbull's standing as a constitutional lawyer is so high that his views on the inability question are an important contribution to the discussion of the subject. In a recent interview he expresses the opinion that the present condition of things does not present a case of "inability" as contemplated by the Constitution; that if the office of President should be assumed by the Vice-President, under this clause, he would still have to give it up the moment the disability was removed. He also thinks that "so long as his mental faculties are unimpaired there is clearly no inability to perform the duties of his office," or, in other words, that a mere physical inability, arising from some temporary cause like a wound or an attack of illness, was not what the framers of the Constitution had in mind. This he seems to push rather far. The great objection, as we have already pointed out in these columns, to letting the Vice-President take the office whenever a case of temporary inability occurs is, that he must necessarily surrender the office the moment the disability is removed. As long as there is any reasonable chance of this being the ultimate upshot of the matter, all practical considerations point to the advisability of making no change at all. The shifting of the executive from President to Vice-President and then back again might involve very serious consequences; and if the discussion thus far has made any one thing plain, it is that letting matters remain *in statu quo* has produced nothing like the trouble which would have been caused by making a change.

A committee of the Chamber of Commerce has presented to Collector Robertson certain resolutions, passed by the Chamber of Commerce at its last meeting in June, strongly urging the maintenance of the civil-service rules in force at the Custom House as beneficial in their working to the Government and the business community alike. Collector Robertson answered unequivocally that he intended to keep these rules in force and to continue the system of competitive examinations. We are glad to record this, and are sure Collector Robertson can render no greater service to himself in his official position than by convincing the public and especially the politicians in every possible way that his resolution in this respect is sincere and unalterable. As soon as this is universally understood, and nobody can hope that an exception will be made in his or his friend's favor, Collector Robertson will find himself effectually relieved of all that pressure for place which has hitherto more than anything else taxed the time, patience, and working capacity of high executive officers. He will find that an unyielding attitude on this point will secure him an immense saving of time, strength, and good humor, aside from the beneficial influence it will have upon the public service in his charge.

The plunder of the Chicago and Alton passenger train on Thursday seems to have been managed in much the same way as that adopted in the Winston robbery, except that the train was stopped by means of false signals instead of being "boarded" by "passengers." About two miles east of Independence the engineer's attention was attracted by the waving of a red lantern. He brought the train to a stop, when a gang of a dozen desperadoes immediately took possession, and proceeded to "go through" it. There appears, as usual, to have been no more efficient guard in the express car than a "messenger," who was easily disposed of. The contents of the safe were then secured, and after this six men took the passengers in hand and robbed them of whatever they could not manage to conceal. Altogether they must have got several thousand dollars. They informed the passengers that they were the "James" gang, but several of them have been arrested, and it turns out that they were plain farmers from the neighborhood—"scions of well-known families," according to the Chicago *Tribune*. At the time of the robbery a freight train was following the passenger train, and would in all probability have run into it and caused a terrible loss of life had it not been for the bravery of the conductor and brakeman. These two men had been warned that they would be shot down if they moved, notwithstanding which they ran down the track, amid a storm of bullets from the robbers, and stopped the approaching train. Considering how easy it is for a gang of robbers armed to the teeth to plunder an entirely defenceless train in this way, the only wonder is that it is not done oftener. A small, well-armed guard would make such raids too hazardous to be any longer attempted.

It is reported that Senator Lamar is going to make campaign speeches for the candidate of the regular Democrats for the Governorship of Mississippi; also that some of the leading men among the same regular Democrats are plotting against his re-election to the Senate, and that he is in great danger of being defeated. Mr. Lamar's defeat would be a loss to the Senate, but more especially to the South. There is at present no excess of ability among the representatives from that section in Congress. The South wants men whose political perceptions go beyond the narrow horizon of party interest; who comprehend not only the needs of the Southern people at home, but their situation as an integral part of the Republic after all the events through which we have passed; who appreciate the relation of the peculiar interests of the South to those it has in common with the rest of the country, and who have the courage, if need be, to put themselves in opposition to Southern prejudices when great national interests are at stake. Mr. Lamar belongs to that class of men. The courageous position he took on the financial question as well as on other occasions, in disregard of what was at the time current Southern sentiment, showed that he dared to be right at the cost of his popularity and even of his public position. In this way he has served the South better than all those whose speeches were sounding with devotion to their Southern homes and with admiration of the qualities of their people; for he has in his own person put Southern opinion abreast with the most enlightened and advanced opinion of the country, and made it respected.

Mr. William N. Armstrong, the Attorney-General of King Kalakaua, gives a flat contradiction to the stories that the King is going about the world to find a market for the Sandwich Islands, or that he has arranged to sell them to China under the sanction of a fraudulently imported Chinese vote. It appears that he has no constitutional authority to do anything of the kind, and indeed any publicist will see, when the thing is fairly put before him, that the Sandwich Islands constitution would be a queer sort of document if it really permitted such transactions. Mr. Armstrong very justly says that the King has no more right to sell his kingdom than President Garfield would have to sell the United States. It was probably owing to that blind popular prejudice and suspicion which even the most innocent kings cannot always avoid, that the design of putting the Sandwich Islands on the market was attributed to Kalakaua. The fact really is that the King started out on his travels for just the same reasons that plain citizens generally do. His reading and experience had taught him that there were other countries in the world besides the Sandwich Islands, and these he desired to see, to observe the manners and customs of their inhabitants, and probably also to study the different methods of "running" the various governmental machines by which the different countries are made happy and prosperous. It appears that emigrants are wanted in the islands, but Portuguese are preferred to Chinese. According to Mr. Armstrong, the King has had a "good time generally," the other kings making it pleasant for him wherever he went.

The result of the Tyrone election in Ireland, the first in which the Parnellites have tried their luck in the irreconcilable policy since the passage of the Land Bill, is a very hopeful sign. The Liberal candidate has been returned by a small plurality of 84, but then the Parnellite candidate, Mr. Rylett, a Unitarian Minister, only polled 907 votes out of a total of 7,159. This indicates pretty clearly that in the province of Ulster, at all events, the Land Bill is to have a fair trial. There is still another Parnellite candidate in the field in County Monaghan, a Mr. Kettle, now in jail under the Coercion Bill, and he refuses to be sufficiently discouraged by the result in Tyrone to withdraw. If there should be another failure in Monaghan, although it might not be fatal to Parnellism, which has its chief strength in the southern counties, it would be a very heavy blow to it.

A reporter of the *Herald* has had an interview on the Irish question with Mr.

Walter, the proprietor of the London *Times*, who has just arrived in this country. If Mr. Walter has been correctly reported, and his views are sound, the Irish question is one of extraordinary simplicity, and the trouble Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues have been giving themselves about it and the number of reports made on it by Commissions within the last fifty years, are fairly unaccountable. Mr. Walter says that "there is nothing on the face of the earth to prevent the Irishman from being happy, if he will only work and not get drunk"—showing that the stories told to the Bessborough Commission, and believed by that body, of his being made miscrable by the arbitrary raising of his rent, were fabulous. The land trouble, according to Mr. Walter, is also of the most trifling character. It consists simply in the fact "that there are more people in Ireland who require farms than there are farms for the people," which Mr. Gladstone calls the "land hunger," whereas its proper name would appear to be arithmetical miscalculation. It is needless to say that Mr. Walter looks upon the Land Bill as a most mischievous measure. What he thinks of its authors and those who voted for it and have made such a fuss about it, he was too modest or too polite to say, but he cannot think very highly of their intelligence as compared with his own.

Mr. Shinkel, the stroke of the Cornell crew, has been interviewed on the subject of the charge that he sold the Vienna race, and declares that the reports are "simply lies," and "the result of a trouble which took place among the crew before they started for Europe." A question then arose as to the selection of a captain, and Mr. Shinkel was chosen, or could have been chosen—we do not understand which—by a vote of three to two. The other candidate, Mr. Lewis, was not satisfied, and Mr. Shinkel therefore withdrew from the contest, or declined to serve as captain, and the moment he did this Mr. Lewis withdrew also, and the crew went to Europe without any captain. This, for all we know, may be a perfectly fair statement of the trouble about the election of a captain, but there does not seem to be any direct connection between it and the charge that Shinkel sold the Vienna race, nor is it easy to see what the fact that the crew in England were allowed to eat vegetables, fruit, and beef, and "drink freely of English ale" has to do with the present scandal. As to his fainting in the boat, he insists that he was not fit to row, and that he could not have done otherwise than "collapse" "if the whole world had been waiting for him." He says that the story of his declining either to admit or deny that he had sold the race when first charged with having done so, is wholly false, but that he did refuse to allow the crew to search his trunks, because he considered the suggestion an outrage. As to the mysterious diamond ring purchased by him in Vienna, he declares that he had $450 when he left this country, and the ring only cost $65. He admits that he gave £3 to "Commodore Chase," and told him that this was all he had, but says he did this merely to get rid of the Commodore, who had been borrowing money of all the crew. He is now going to Ithaca, and if he finds that the charges against him are "as strong as those reported in the New York papers" he shall retain an attorney and sue the crew for damages. He adds that his feeling for his classmates is one of "pity"—a natural feeling from any point of view.

The meeting of the Emperor of Germany with the Russian Czar, which took place at Dantzic on Friday, will, while giving occasion for many profound guesses, probably turn out to have been of real importance only in one respect. The present Czar of Russia has long been counted among the most decided and uncompromising representatives of the "Old Russian" sentiment, which is unfriendly to all foreign and especially to German influence. It was therefore supposed that his accession to the throne would mark the beginning of an anti-German tendency in the foreign policy of Russia, which might become dangerous to the peaceful relations of the two countries. The irritation of feeling between the Berlin and Petersburg Governments which followed upon the conclusion of the treaty of Berlin, seemed to render those relations still more precarious. The meeting of the two sovereigns, which appears to have been very cordial, has probably had the effect of strengthening on both sides the inclination to dispose of whatever questions may exist or arise between the two countries in an amicable spirit, and it may therefore be looked upon as a sign of lasting peace in that quarter. It is also probable that the two monarchs and their ministers have exchanged expressions of sympathy about the Nihilists and the Socialists, who trouble them respectively, and pious wishes as to their suppression. But inasmuch as they are already doing all that can be done, the conference is not likely to have any new and startling results in this respect. There will undoubtedly be great mystery about the subjects that have been discussed there, and that kind of mystery is usually best maintained when there is very little to conceal, as may be the case in this instance.

The revolt of the troops at Cairo is likely to produce serious complications in Europe, because it is almost certain to lead to more active interference in the Government by France and England than they have yet ventured on. Their interference thus far, through control of the finances and taxation, has taken place on the theory that the Khedive was master in his own dominions—or, in other words, that all that foreign Powers had to do in order to make changes in Egyptian administration was to compel the Khedive to obey them; and it was assumed that he could carry out any orders they gave him. It now clearly appears, however, that the army has got completely out of his control, and that he cannot be relied on to govern the country even under foreign supervision. There were signs of this two years ago, when the troops mutinied also. The discontent which then broke loose has not subsided, and the Powers will have to subdue the army if they mean to keep their control of the administration. England and France would of course have no difficulty in doing this, but it seems now almost certain that, if it were attempted, Italy, if not Germany and Austria, would insist on sharing in the enterprise, and of course they would not send troops to Egypt for the mere purpose of helping to restore order and to assert European supremacy. They would send them with the expectation of taking part in any subsequent disposition that might be made of the country, and in any prolonged military occupation of it. France and England, whose subjects hold the principal part of the Egyptian debt and who believe themselves—France on account of Algeria and her position in the Mediterranean, and England on account of the Isthmus of Suez—to have a stronger interest in Egypt than any other Power, would therefore have to make up their minds whether or no they would consent to share dominion with all the other Mediterranean states.

An amicable arrangement for this purpose between France and Italy would, in the present state of their relations, be very difficult. It is as much as they can do already to keep the peace. For England, too, the admission of France even to joint control of the Egyptian administration has been a bitter pill, and formed one of the most serious charges against the Beaconsfield Administration, before whose time England was generally acknowledged to be the legitimate protector of Egypt, and the inheritor of the country, so to speak, if the Khedive's government should be overthrown. The present military revolution, although accompanied by a reassuring circular to the foreign consuls, is in reality a revolt against foreign domination. The old Turkish official class, which the European administrators have displaced, is still strong in the army, and has never become reconciled to the new régime. Its demanding a "Constitution" is, of course, intended merely to disguise in European eyes the true nature of its attack on the Khedive. It in no way concerns or promises anything to the unfortunate peasantry, from whom is still wrung an enormous revenue, just one half of which goes to pay foreigners the interest on loans raised to enable the late Khedive to indulge in the wildest speculations and the most reckless extravagance.

The latest advices from Egypt hold out a prospect of a peaceful solution of the trouble through the submission of the army on condition of the formation of a new Cabinet by Sherif Pasha. The Mussulman notables summoned by the mutineers to Cairo seem to have disapproved of the mutiny, and to have perceived clearly that if persisted in it must lead to foreign occupation. The London *Times*, probably with a distinct foresight of the advantages France would have in case of a joint occupation, owing to her greater force of disposable troops, urges that in case the revolt has to be quelled from the outside the Turkish army should be called on to do it. Considering that the Egyptian army only numbers fourteen thousand, and is of no practical use, this last outbreak will probably lead to its abolition.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

THE President had a high pulse after his arrival at Long Branch last week, due not to the fatigue, but to the excitement of the journey, but on the following morning the effects of this passed away. Later in the day, however, owing to the excessive heat, the President manifested great weakness. On Thursday he was unmistakably better, and the sea air and cooler weather gave him more of an appetite than he has had at any time since the shooting. This was satisfied with solid food, and the pulse receded to 94—much lower than it had been for ten days. At this point Drs. Barnes, Woodward, and Reyburn withdrew from the case and returned to Washington, leaving Dr. Bliss and either Dr. Hamilton or Dr. Agnew in attendance at Elberon. On Friday the President requested to see members of the Cabinet, and Attorney-General MacVeagh and Secretary Blaine made him short visits. They were followed by Secretary Windom on Saturday, but this was the day for the usual weekly relapse, and absolute quiet was returned to, there being considerable increase of fever. Sunday was a still more unfavorable day, and the new complication of an abscess in one of the lungs was reported, and its effects magnified at once into symptoms of pyæmia. The Cabinet, whose members had been arranging for a trip to the White Mountains, gave over their plan, and Mr. Blaine's nightly despatch to Minister Lowell was far from encouraging. Monday morning, however, witnessed a decided change for the better again, the patient having passed an unusually good night, and the lung trouble being pronounced unimportant. On Tuesday he sat up in an invalid chair. Some of the States observed Tuesday, and others, including New York, Thursday of last week, as a day of prayer for the President's recovery.

Guiteau came near losing his life on Sunday afternoon at the hands of Sergeant Mason, one of his guard, who shot at him through the window of his cell, the ball grazing the prisoner's head. Mason was at once arrested and imprisoned at the Arsenal, where he expressed regret at the ill-success of his attempt. He observed further that he had "been very much worried in going out to the jail every day," and finally "got tired of it"; that it "wasn't worth while for officers and soldiers to go to guard this man, thing, or whatever he is"; that accordingly he thought it was his duty to kill him, and would rather have killed him than have ten thousand dollars. This was announced "without the least indication of braggadocio," says a reporter, who adds: "In fact, his manner was that of a blunt, honest, frank man. He is a good, honest, straightforward fellow, praised by all his officers and comrades as a first-rate soldier"—for other kinds of service than guard duty, it is fair to infer.

General McDowell telegraphed from San Francisco on the 5th instant that the Indian outbreak in Arizona appeared very general. Various murders of prospectors are reported. Everything was quiet at Fort Apache on the 6th instant. The Utes have all gone to their new reservation. Troops are being rapidly concentrated in the disturbed district.

General Hazen received the news on Monday that the Signal Service expedition under Lieutenant Greeley had arrived safely at Lady Franklin Bay. The despatch, coming *via* St. Johns, N. F., whither the steamer *Proteus* returned after landing the exploration party, is dated August 18, and reports all well. The United States steamer *Alliance* returned to Hammerfest, Norway, for coal on Monday, having reached a point 80 deg. and 10 min. north latitude on her run. She leaves for Spitzbergen on Friday, the 16th.

The death from yellow fever on Sunday of Dr. J. M. Green of the Marine Hospital Service, stationed at Key West, leaves a family unprovided for, and has directed attention to the fact that, though the service to which Dr. Green belonged is the first to come into contact with contagious disease, no provision has been made by Congress for the assistance of those whom a death may leave destitute.

Early last week large fires were reported in Michigan, and the number of lives lost and amount of damage done by them since then are appalling. On the night of the 5th instant the town of Richmondville, Sanilac county, was destroyed, eight persons being burned to death; and reports of widespread devastation began to come in from all sides of the central and eastern part of the lower peninsula of the State. On the next day Deckerville, Charleston, and Tyre were reported "wiped out," and Ashley and Minden partially burned. Hundreds of families lost their all, of course, and the number of deaths was estimated at thirty. Meetings were held for the sufferers' relief in all parts of the State. Friday's news was that the counties of Huron and Sanilac had been nearly burned over, that two thousand families were left destitute, twenty townships burned out, and two hundred lives lost. Fears of a consequent pestilence were expressed. Some rain had fallen, however, and had in great measure extinguished the flames. Later intelligence shows that these reports were not exaggerated, and that one thousand square miles of country were swept by the fire and from ten to twelve thousand persons made homeless. The loss of life and property by the fires of 1871 in the same district is said to have been much smaller. Incidents of the catastrophe as told in the papers are extremely pathetic and distressing. Relief commissions have been organized in various cities outside the State, Mr. Wm. Dowd being the treasurer of that in this city.

Fires due to the long-continued drought have been abundant elsewhere, but have been unaccompanied by any such fatalities. Near Cape Vincent, N. Y., the woods were burned in several places; the town of Lonaconing, Md., was nearly destroyed; and much of the Dismal Swamp in Virginia was burned over on the 7th instant, aside from the many fires from other causes. Thousands of acres in the Delaware valley of Pennsylvania were reported on fire on Friday. The fire continued the next day, when also the Ellice Swamp, near Stratford, Ontario, was reported burning, the destruction of property being "enormous." By Saturday the Pennsylvania fires were got under control; but in Canada they burned much longer.

The weather in this city and its neighborhood, and in the New England and North Atlantic States, has been extremely hot. In New England an atmospheric phenomenon was witnessed on the 6th instant, similar to one which occurred on the "Dark Day" of 1780. The air was full of vapor, and vision was limited to short distances. Colors were changed. The sun appeared like the moon, when it appeared at all. Schools were dismissed and factories closed in many places, and gas and lamps were universally lighted. Amusing instances of superstition are related, the "portent" being generally taken to refer in some way to the condition of President Garfield by those who attached a mystic value to it.

The American Social Science Association held daily sessions at Saratoga last week. Among the more noteworthy papers read was one by Mr. Charles Dudley Warner on "The American Newspaper."

The Democratic State Committee met in this city on Wednesday and called the State Convention to meet at Albany on October 11.

One of the most successful "corners" which Wall street has seen in some time, was effected in the common stock of the Hannibal and St. Joseph Railway Company during the week. The price was run up from $96\frac{1}{2}$ to $225 a share, at which point the "short" interest—Messrs. Sage, Gould, Hopkins, Connor, and others—appealed to the courts, after tendering preferred stock in vain, and obtained an order calling upon the "cornerers" to show cause why they should not been joined from compelling deliveries, and a preliminary injunction meanwhile.

The Minnesota Supreme Court has nullified the Constitutional Amendment forbidding the payment of the State railroad indebtedness except upon an affirmative popular vote, and has pronounced invalid the act of the last Legislature scaling the bonds fifty per cent., and creating a special tribunal to decide the validity of the amendment referred to. This leaves repudiation a question of the future.

Labor troubles in New Orleans last week resulted in a conflict between the police and the disturbers of the peace, in which a sergeant shot and killed a negro teamster after a fruitless attempt to arrest him. This produced a riot, and the Mayor of the city was obliged to call upon the Governor for the aid of the State militia.

A train on the Chicago and Alton Railway was stopped and robbed on the night of the 7th instant, fourteen miles from Kansas City, Mo., by sixteen masked men. The valuables and money taken from the passengers are variously estimated at $15,000 and less, and the amount obtained from the express safe at something like the sum mentioned. The outrage is alleged to have been perpetrated under the leadership of the notorious James brothers, and is conspicuous among others of the kind mainly for the bravery of a brakeman named Frank Burton, who ran down the track to flag an approaching train, amid a storm of bullets from the robbers' rifles, and thus prevented a serious accident by collision. Eight of the highwaymen have been captured, and some, it is reported, have turned State's evidence, and Governor Crittenden talks about expending the last dollar in the treasury to avenge the reputation of his State.

The Cramer-Malley examination has continued during the week at New Haven, but the proceedings have merely duplicated those of the inquest, and no new evidence, or, as in effect might be said, no evidence has been submitted, bearing directly on the cause of the victim's death.

Shinkel, the stroke of the Cornell Crew, has arrived here and gone to Ithaca, where he says he shall institute legal proceedings against his accusers if he finds they have really made charges against him "as strong as those reported in the New York papers." He denies all their allegations, and expresses "pity" for them. Meantime the Executive Committee of the Vienna Regatta has decided to investigate the matter, and to "send a request" to Mr. Chase, the Commodore of the Cornell Navy, to name the persons supposed to have bought Shinkel.

The steamer *Columbia*, bound from Chicago for a Canadian port, foundered on Sunday night off Frankfort, Mich., on Lake Michigan, and fifteen of her officers, crew, and passengers were drowned.

The celebration on the 6th instant of the centennial anniversary of the battle between the Americans and the British under Arnold at Groton, Conn., was attended by some thirty thousand persons. The exercises included as exact as possible a reproduction of the events commemorated (the burning of New London had to be omitted, of course), the military operations being followed with great minuteness; an oration by Senator Joseph R. Hawley; a poem by Mrs. Rose Terry Cooke; a short speech by General Sherman; music and fireworks.

Sidney Lanier, the poet and littérateur, died at Lynn, Polk county, N. C., on the 7th instant, of consumption; Senator Ambrose E. Burnside of Rhode Island, on the 13th, of a spasm of the heart; and Commander Kidder Randolph Breese, United States Navy, a nephew of President Harrison and son-in-law of ex-Governor Curtin of Pennsylvania, at Newport, also on Tuesday, of organic affection of the heart.

FOREIGN.

The most important foreign news of the week is the revolt of the Egyptian army and the rule of anarchy in Cairo, which, however, has as yet resulted in no bloodshed. The immediate cause of the outbreak was an order from Riaz Pasha, the President of the Council, transferring the Fourth Regiment of troops to Alexandria. They refused to go, and their commander, Achmet El Araby, sent word on Friday to Daoud Pasha, Minister of War, announcing that unless the Government instantly acceded to their demands of the dismissal of the Ministry, a Constitution, and an increased number of troops, they would march to the Abdin Palace and remain there until satisfied. A postscript to the document containing this threat declared that Riaz Pasha had sold Egypt to England. Daoud Pasha sought the Khedive at once, and the latter summoned his foreign advisers, who counselled him to take the initiative, and arrest the ringleaders of the mutiny. This the Khedive attempted to do, but found it impracticable. Mr. Cookson, the English Consul, and some of his colleagues then endeavored to convince the soldiers of the unreasonableness of their demands, but the latter remained obstinate. Finally the Khedive submitted the compromise of dismissing the Ministry and referring the other two demands to the Porte for decision. Sherif Pasha, Minister of Foreign Affairs under Ismaïl Pasha, the late Khedive, in 1878, was asked to take office as Premier, but at the present writing it is not certain whether or no he will do so.

Achmet El Araby informed a correspondent that he would guarantee the safety of all Europeans, "unless the Christian troops land, when a general massacre would follow." He added that he had back of him 15,000 Egyptian troops armed with Remingtons, six Krupp batteries, and 150,000 armed Bedouins—a statement which the correspondent probably gives for what it is worth. Intervention either by the Porte, or by England, or by England and France jointly, is, of course, talked of as an immediate necessity in order to restore order. The French press is decidedly hostile to Turkish occupation, owing to the state of affairs in Tripoli and Tunis. English journals, on the other hand, favor it, and are unanimously opposed to English or Anglo-French interference. The *Times* calls for the disbanding of the Egyptian army, whose "continued existence is incompatible," it says, "with the maintenance of order." Some of the French papers, in view of the Turkish intervention favored in England, express suspicions of English intrigue with the army. *La France*, for example, observes: "It is impossible not to remark how opportunely things occur when English interests are at stake." The *République Française*, however, hopes that such insinuations will be allowed to go unheeded, and the *Times* pronounces them too absurd on the face of them to be retorted.

The London *Morning Post* last week learned "from the most trustworthy source" that M. Roustan, the French Minister at Tunis, had returned to Paris for the purpose of informing the Government that the Bey was acting with the rebels, and would have to be deposed before the schemes of France could be carried out with any success. This intelligence was speedily denied, however, upon semi-official authority, and this week we have a statement inclined as far the other way, and purporting to have been made by M. Roustan himself to the correspondent who cables it. According to this, the French army of occupation does not consist of more than 26,000 men, which number will not be increased; a detachment from this force of 10,000 will be sufficient for the reduction of Kairouan; the definite occupation of Tunis is not so much as thought of for a moment; the sickness of the army has been greatly exaggerated; from the beginning of the campaign "only two or three hundred" lives have been lost from all causes; and, finally, the Bey is dealing loyally and honestly with France. These views are said to be shared by the French Government.

The negotiations between France and Spain looking to the payment by the former of an indemnity for sufferings of Spanish residents at Oran, Algeria, during the recent troubles, are to be continued, though since the counter-claim on account of French citizens affected by the Carlist insurrection, they have not been popular in Spain. The matter may finally be submitted to international arbitration.

The members of an incipient club of advanced democrats at Madrid, who contemplated an organization similar to those of the Conservative, Liberal, and Catholic clubs, were dispersed by authority of the Government last week, and some of them were summoned before a magistrate to answer for incendiary or advanced speeches. The party thus treated by Sagasta's Liberal Government won eleven seats in the Senate and sixteen in the Congress at the late election.

Prince Bismarck arrived at Dantzic on Thursday, the Emperor William and the Crown Prince on Friday morning; and later in the day the yacht *Derjava*, with the Czar on board, was signalled at the port of Dantzic, whither the Imperial party at once repaired, and embarking on the yacht *Hohenzollern* put out to sea to meet the Czar. The latter went on board the *Hohenzollern* and was saluted with salvos of artillery. A private interview between the two Emperors, lasting two hours, followed, and they dined together at Dantzic. The Czar left at eight o'clock. The Emperor of Austria had been invited, and sent a letter expressing sympathy with the object of the meeting. This is assumed in Berlin to have been the removal of any fears, founded upon rumor, that the Czar was less favorably disposed towards Germany than his father had been. The *Journal de Moscou* calls the interview "a natural consequence of the reckless conduct of France," but the French press exhibits no indication of having been impressed, or of considering the conference a reproof.

The famous Imperial yacht *Livadia*, built as an experiment in marine architecture for the Emperor Alexander II., has been condemned after repeated failures.

The weekly land meeting at Dublin on Friday was attended by Mr. Parnell, who made a speech protesting that he was not at all discouraged by the Tyrone defeat, which he ascribed to the influence of the Catholic clergy, who, he said, advised their congregations to vote for the Liberal candidate. Two years ago, he observed, he could not have delivered his recent Tyrone speeches and escaped with his life. The agitation, he concluded, was never in better condition. The receipt of contributions amounting to £1,289 was acknowledged. The Carlow branch of the League has instructed its delegates to the National Convention to demand fair trial for the Land Act. The Commissioners announce that they will have completed all arrangements by October 1st, at which time the provisions of the Act will become available.

A riot between two rival factions took place at Mitchellstown, Ireland, on the 6th instant. The police charged the combatants, and a *mêlée* followed, seven arrests being finally made. In a riot at Roscrea, Tipperary, between the soldiers and people, several were injured on both sides. Trade jealousy was the cause of an outrage near Knocknagree, Cork, where, on Sunday, forty masked men broke into the house of three brothers and left them for dead.

The Cambridgeshire election to fill the seat of Mr. Rodwell, Conservative, retired, resulted, on the 6th instant, in the return of Mr. James R. Bulwer, of the same party, without opposition. In Tyrone, where Mr. Parnell had made great efforts against the Liberal candidate, and where it was expected, in consequence, that the Tory candidate would be successful, Mr. Dickson, Liberal, was returned by a plurality of eighty-four. The defeat of the Land League is therefore described as "crushing," their papers having on the morning of the election "exulted anticipatingly," as a Dublin despatch says, over Mr. Dickson's defeat. This is the first time Tyrone ever returned a Liberal member. Mr. Kettle has issued an address from Kilmainham jail as the League candidate for the county of Monaghan.

Lord Derby made an address at Southport, in Lancashire, on the 7th instant, in which he expressed dissent from the views of those who believed that British agriculture was to be destroyed by American competition. The check to British prosperity he regarded as only a temporary fluctuation, and "there was no reason to believe the climate permanently changed." A conference called on the same day by the National Land League, at Westminster, and designed as a demonstration in favor of "fair trade," was very sparsely attended.

A meeting was held in Manchester on Friday by the master spinners and manufacturers of Lancashire, Cheshire, Derbyshire, and Yorkshire to protest against the action of cotton brokers engaged in assisting "the syndicate of speculators" who are attempting to create a "corner" at Liverpool. The entire trade was urged to stop operations for a week and to buy no cotton at Liverpool during that time.

The Wesleyan Ecumenical Council has been in session in London during the week. The Religious Tract Society gave a breakfast to 100 of the delegates, at Exeter Hall, on the 5th instant, and the Council opened formally on the 6th. Among the subjects of discussion have been "The Hand of God in the Origin and Spread of Methodism," "Methodism as a Power in the State" (dealt with chiefly by colored delegates), the system of itinerant preachers (the majority in favor of maintaining it being large), lay preaching, "Training Young People in Christian Homes and the Sunday School," "The Observance of the Sabbath and the Travelling of Ministers on that Day" (which latter was strongly condemned), "The Relation of Methodism to the Temperance Movement," and "Juvenile Temperance Organizations." As to the last general topic, it was declared by several delegates that many divines were not without reproach. All such one of the speakers wanted expelled from the ministry.

General Lew Wallace, the new United States Minister to the Porte, arrived at Constantinople last week, and presented his credentials to the Sultan, who asked that assurances of his sympathy might be conveyed to the President.

The Amir of Afghanistan is reported to have appealed to tribal animosity to assist him in crushing Ayub Khan. Between the Ghilzais and the Duranis, both of whom have been in effect neutral during the present struggle, an intensely bitter feud exists, and the Amir has induced the former to join him in recovering Kandahar, the rightful supremacy over which belongs to them, but is now held by the Duranis. The measure, though very successful in winning over large numbers of the Ghilzais, had, upon news of it reaching Kandahar, quite as favorable an effect upon Ayub's fortunes, the Duranis at once joining his standard to defend themselves against the Ghilzais, who, it is feared, will not be restrained from sacking the city if the Amir takes Kandahar. No engagement is reported as yet.

A Lima despatch, dated August 19, says that the National Assembly convoked by the ex-Dictator Pierola has met at Ayacucho and been formally opened by a speech from him, in which he reviewed the general condition of affairs, expressed regret that owing to existing confusion he was "unable to carry out necessary reforms in the public departments," and resigned his dictatorship, leaving Peru "conquered on the battle-field, but worthy of herself; sustaining her honor and her rights with energy; covered with wounds, but neither humiliated nor overcome." There is no news from the real, *i. e.*, the Calderon Government.

TUESDAY, September 13, 1881.

THE PRESIDENT'S "MULTITUDE OF COUNSELLORS."

THE retirement of three of the President's attending doctors, at his request, while conveying no sort of imputation on the value of these gentlemen's services, seems to furnish a fresh illustration of the unsafeness of the rule that "in the multitude of counsellors there is wisdom." The firmness with which this maxim retains its hold on the popular mind, in spite of the refutations of it furnished by nearly every man's individual experience, is very curious. Everybody who has had occasion to take advice as to what he should do in a given emergency, knows that the fewer persons he consulted the better he fared, or, in other words, that one counsellor was as much as he found useful. When we call in more than one about almost any affair of life, we all but invariably find ourselves in presence of a conflict of views. This conflict may be very slight, and may disappear under a little discussion and comparison, but it nevertheless has a distinct effect on "the native hue of resolution." It sicklies it o'er with the pale cast of thought. The man who is to act has his mind filled with objections which he had not thought of before, and cannot but wish he had never heard, even though the propounder has abandoned them in his hearing.

People are somewhat befogged in this matter by the success of parliamentary government, which is essentially a government of numerous counsellors. But then the great value of government by parliament lies not so much in the fact that it passes good laws, as that it passes laws which the community is likely to be satisfied with and heartily to obey. A despotic monarch who meant that the laws should please him, whether the community liked them or not, would be a great fool to have many counsellors. They would only worry and bewilder him, and, in truth, the councils which despotic monarchs summon about them as a matter of form, are seldom more than forms. The members are, and always have been, elderly toadies, who try to find out what their masters want and then urge it as an almost divine suggestion. The saying that councils of war never fight, is too trite for more than mention.

The practice of calling in an additional doctor, when the one already in attendance feels the case becoming grave, has, if the latter is a skilful and experienced man, somewhat the same reasons in its favor as parliamentary government. The appearance of Doctor the Second strengthens the nerves of the patient's family, and sometimes, though not always, those of the attendant physician. The patient himself is generally startled and alarmed by it. In ninety-nine cases out of one hundred it has not, as everybody knows, any influence whatever on the management of the case. The consulting doctor almost always approves of what the other doctor has done: seldom or never does he suggest anything new. But he makes the other doctor decidedly more comfortable in his relations with the family, and makes the family comfortable in the feeling that they have left nothing in reason untried.

In the President's case there was perhaps the parliamentary reason for summoning a large corps of physicians; that is, not only had the wound to be properly treated, but the American people, looking at the case through its newspapers, had to be satisfied that it was being properly treated. The fierce light, therefore, which was thrown on the sick chamber, was something which, perhaps, no one or two doctors could face and live. There had to be plenty of doctors, from various quarters, so that even if it was demonstrated by the press that any one doctor was a dunce, there might still remain a reserve of doctors to defend the treatment against the assailing medical editors. It must be admitted, too, that the plan has, on the whole, worked well. Dr. Bliss, or Dr. Reyburn, or Dr. Woodward might, if alone, have succumbed to the remorseless fire of their rivals the newspaper physicians; but no newspaper physician, except the one who practises in the columns of the *Herald*, has had the boldness to say that the whole staff of Presidential doctors were radically, fundamentally, and fatally mistaken about the case.

We are now reminded, however, that this sacrifice to public opinion must have caused the President himself no small inconvenience. Who that has ever lain on a sick bed, especially in hot weather, does not remember how few people he cared to see; how jealous he was of any encroachments on his little share of this world's light and air and silence; how little he liked being peered at or poked by any but two or three pairs of loving eyes and loving hands? And what must it have been for General Garfield to have his bed surrounded every time his wound was dressed, or his nourishment administered, in the full blaze of the Washington summer, by five, six, or seven stalwart men, each with his own opinion to defend and his own dignity to look after, and his own "professional delicacy" towards his colleagues to display. How often during the last five weeks he must have sighed for a room by the sea, with no attendants but his wife and one very small doctor with a mind fully made up.

Dr. Bliss, who has been all along chief in charge, has had, in addition to the right kind of experience and skill, the merit, from the parliamentary point of view, of knowing how to talk to the reporters. His diction is as rich as their own, and so are his fecundity and accessibility. Moreover, he has apparently reached that topmost height of professional enthusiasm at which wounds and symptoms not only lose their horror, but become personified as sentient beings, whose conduct the physician watches with interest not unmixed with admiration. When the doctor says "the glandular swelling is looking splendidly," and that he "never saw a similar swelling act better than that one has," he is clearly not thinking of a glandular swelling as an ill of the flesh, but as a wild horse beginning to obey the hand and will of the trainer, and move in the track he has traced. It must be said of the doctor, too, that he has kept up his heart better than anybody. If he has at any time given way to despair, it was but for a moment and in secret, and he has always been able to meet the reporter in the gate with a smiling countenance.

REMEDIES FOR THE "CORNERED."

THE corner in Hannibal and St. Joseph common stock, by means of which the quoted price of that security has been forced up from 57 or thereabouts to 225, has attracted much attention, and has produced a degree of excitement on the Stock Exchange not equalled by any other event of the year, except possibly the Funding Bill of last February. One of its immediate consequences has been the frightening of the "bear element" out of its recent serenity. The "short interest" has had command of the market ever since the President had his first chill some five weeks ago. The corner in Hannibal and St. Joseph, which came most unexpectedly into their range of vision, led them to imagine that other corners were forming or were already formed in other stocks, and drove them pell-mell to the other side of the market. Hence the rapid advance in prices on Friday and Saturday of last week.

It is perhaps well to explain to the uninstructed what a corner is. The "bear element" in the market consists of all those who think that prices of securities are higher than they ought to be, higher than the facts warrant, higher than they can permanently remain. In order to take advantage of the unwarranted "inflation of values," as they understand it, they borrow stocks and sell them at the high prices prevailing, expecting to be able to buy them in at lower prices before it becomes necessary to return the borrowed securities. For instance, A borrows from B 1,000 shares of Hannibal and St. Joseph, which is selling at 60. A pays B $60,000 cash, and agrees to return the stock on demand, when, of course, the money will be refunded to him. It is for B's interest to lend the stock, because he gets the interest on the $60,000 during the interval, or at all events more interest than he would otherwise have to pay for the use of the same money. Under ordinary conditions B, the lender of the stock, will pay A, the borrower, something for the use of the money, but if the particular stock wanted by the bears is scarce, it will be lent "flat"; that is, the borrower will receive nothing for the use of the money while the loan continues. In extreme cases the lender may even get a commission for the use of stock in addition to the interest on the money which it represents. If the market fluctuates while the loan continues, the borrower and lender settle with each other at the close of each day, so that the amount of money shall at all times be exactly equivalent to the value of the stock.

When the bears, or any portion of them, have discerned a weak spot in the market, that is, a security selling for more than it is worth in their opinion, they borrow and sell it liberally. Their selling has the same effect in putting down the price as though the stock were absolutely their own, and their expectation is that other holders observing a decline in the price will become alarmed and sell also, thus putting down the price still more and frightening still other holders. They intend, of course, to buy enough at the lower scale of quotations to deliver back what they have borrowed, pocketing the difference. It

sometimes, though rarely, happens that a few persons, discovering what the bears are about, and believing that they (the bears) are strong enough to stand a heavy loss without breaking, quietly buy up all of a particular stock that exists. In order that the price may not be forced up while they are themselves buying, they lend stock freely to the bears, and thus encourage the latter to sell. When they have secured all or nearly all of the particular stock that exists, they call in their loans. The bears are then compelled to buy, and since no stock or very little is for sale, the price can be forced up to any figure at which the cornering party choose to put it. This is what has happened in Hannibal and St. Joseph.

The suits brought by Mr. Weston and Mr. Hopkins against the members of the "pool" are, however, based upon facts tending to show not simply an ordinary "bull" operation, but also a conspiracy to defraud. The plaintiffs are persons who are under obligation to deliver certain amounts of the common stock of the railroad, or, in other words, are "short" of it. Under the rules of the Stock Exchange, their default, caused by the pool's controlling the entire body of stock in the market, and refusing to sell except at such prices as will secure it a good profit on the entire transaction, would be followed by a demand for delivery and a purchase for the account of the plaintiffs in the open market, they being charged with the difference between the price at which it is bought in and the face of their contract. This would obviously leave them in exactly the same position that compliance with the pool's terms would have done. They have therefore made the president of the Stock Exchange a defendant in these suits, and ask that the Exchange be enjoined from buying-in stock under the rules.

The most important legal feature of the whole transaction appears when we discover that the "pool" is stated to have been composed of several directors of the road, among whom were the president and the vice-president. The plaintiffs say that what these defendants did was to get up a conspiracy for the secret purchase and control of all the common stock of the road, or the right to require the delivery to them of an amount of stock equal to or in excess of this; that in aid of this conspiracy such of the defendants as were officers of the company, in violation of their duties as such, prevented the issue "of any additional stock or the conversion into stock" of the bonds of the company; and that they lent the stock which they controlled to borrowers (the bears) under an agreement that it should be returned at such times as should be fixed by them, the effect of the conspiracy being of course to make this impossible.

With regard to the conversion of bonds, the plaintiffs insist that under the charter of the road there were at the time of this conspiracy $8,000,000 of bonds which the officers were bound to convert upon call into stock; that bondholders did actually call for a conversion, but that the company, under the advice of its officers who were in the pool, refused to comply with the demand, although it was for the obvious interest of the company to transform an indebtedness bearing eight per cent. into common stock paying no interest. Besides this, it is said that the company was authorized to issue $4,000,000 stock and dispose of it in the market; that it needs the money which might be obtained by the sale of this stock, and that at the present quotations it is clear that the issue ought to be made; while it is also a fact that the president was empowered to issue this very stock in June last, and that the reason he has not done so is that the issue of the stock would break the "corner."

The plaintiffs are, as we have said, borrowers of stock, and they therefore demand that the defendants shall be enjoined from taking any proceedings against them other than an ordinary lawsuit to recover damages for the non-delivery of the stock borrowed. This exception is made partly because nothing could deprive the lenders of the stock of their right to resort to a jury, and partly because the borrowers think that a jury would relieve them in a measure, if not entirely, from their contracts. In a trial of this kind for failure to deliver stock, the lenders would ordinarily recover the difference between the value of the stock at the time of the loan, or the face of the loan, and its market value at the time fixed for delivery. But under the present circumstances they would contend with great force, supposing the facts to be established as stated in the complaint, that the Stock-Exchange quotations for the last few days do not represent the market value, but the result of a fraudulent conspiracy among the officers and directors of the road. A great many articles have no market value because there is not a sufficient supply of them in any market to furnish a basis for such a value. With such articles, in a suit of this kind, the jury is left to ascertain the actual value. Under ordinary circumstances stock may be counted upon as having a market value. But knowledge is always advancing, and it is obvious that such a pool as is described in these complaints may deprive any stock of its market value for the time being, and give it an entirely artificial one, which must necessarily disappear at once upon the breaking of the "corner." Probably a suit for damages would result in a very prolonged litigation and a succession of appeals, as the point involved has never been decided in this State.

In ordinary "corners" the public care very little which side wins, as they regard the whole thing as a pleasant little "Street" game in which they have no interest; but a pool combined with fraudulent breaches of trust on the part of directors presents a different case, and the breaches of trust described in the complaints are so glaring that the "bears" will probably get a good deal of sympathy, on the ground that the "bulls," through the aid of the railroad ring, have in this instance been playing with loaded dice, and have shielded themselves from the chances of loss which they would ordinarily have risked. Their case, however, is one which it will be difficult to prove, and a compromise of some sort is the most likely conclusion of the whole affair. If the "bear" side of the story is true, however, we trust, in the interest of the public, that some "cornered" operator may have the tenacity and courage to fight the matter through in the courts.

A NEW VIEW OF FRENCH FINANCE.

The latest financial statement made by the French Ministry for 1882 was probably the most brilliant, under all the circumstances, which has ever issued from a European Government. It is only on this side of the water that Ministers of Finance have been able to make a showing in which promise and performance both seemed splendid. It may be summed up in brief by saying that it set forth the payment by a sorely burdened people of $200,000,000 of the public debt in four years, the abolition of $60,000,000 of taxes, and at the same time a perfect balance of receipts and expenditure. In fact it seemed as if in recuperative power, as well as in military enterprise, France still retained what M. de Mazade called "the glorious privilege of astonishing the world." In truth her finances since the war *have* astonished the world. She has apparently followed close on our footsteps in the work of retrieval, without the aid of our ceaseless immigration and our practically limitless productive lands.

Now comes M. Cucheval-Clarigny, however, and says there is a reverse to the medal: that if the whole truth were told, Frenchmen would be much less pleased with their financial situation, and foreigners less dazzled by French dexterity in dealing with knotty problems of currency and taxation. He is a well-known economist and publicist, and, though a Bonapartist, speaks with a certain authority; and the article in which he sets forth his view in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of August 1st must attract widespread attention, and can hardly fail to call forth some sort of official or semi-official answer. He treats not simply the management of the public finances, but the commercial situation in France at this moment; but it is only to what he says of the former that we have time to refer to-day. He takes M. Thiers's programme after the war as the basis of his argument, and sets down all aberrations from the line traced by him as so many steps on the road to ruin. This may be an abuse of reverence, but anyhow it will make the article much easier reading for the general public.

Thiers laid it down, when he took office after the war, that to recover herself financially France should not only raise enough revenue every year for her vast armament, and for the charges on her enormous debt, but should furnish the treasury with a clear surplus of $40,000,000, which was to be used in the first instance in repaying the advance of $200,000,000 made to the Government by the Bank of France, and then in making a sinking fund for the extinction of the debt created by the war. This was what the United States was doing, and in Europe at that date the example of the United States had already become very powerful. Now M. Cucheval-Clarigny declares that this plan has been not only abandoned but repudiated by the Republican Ministries which have succeeded M. Thiers. In the first place they did not repay the Bank in full. By a little "financing," which we have not space to describe here, they reduced the amount by about $26,000,000. In the next place the surplus of $40,000,000 has never been raised. The nearest approach

made to it was in 1875, when there was a surplus of $22,000,000; but only $5,000,000 of this was used in repaying the Bank: the rest went to stopping gaps in the budget of the following year. Every year since then the falling off in the surplus has increased, until in 1880 all that M. Léon Say was able to show was about $329,000. This decline, too, in what may be called financial courage on the part of the Government, was not brought about by foreign war, or domestic convulsion, or popular impatience of taxation. France enjoyed profound peace, and the people never winced under their burdens, for the receipts of each year were always fully up to the estimates, no matter how sanguine these may have seemed when made.

What has caused the surplus to disappear, is, according to M. Cucheval-Clarigny, the rapid development of unproductive outlay, and the steady growth of the practice of resorting to "supplementary and extraordinary credits," which he says are the peculiarity and the curse of French finance. These "extraordinary credits" are opened by a simple decree of the President, and consist in the practice, forbidden by our law, of borrowing and spending money not appropriated by the Legislature. They have to be ratified of course by the Chambers, but when the indemnity bill is introduced for this purpose, the money has been spent, and there is no alternative but to provide for its repayment. The regularity with which the Chambers under every régime submit to these stretches of power on the part of the Executive, and refrain from forbidding them with the sanction of appropriate penalties, is a striking illustration of the familiarity of the French mind with official arbitrariness. As these extraordinary credits are opened on the Minister's own motion, and spent, not under appropriations, but for such objects as he thinks proper, it is impossible to present a correct balance-sheet of the year with each budget. There is always a floating debt about which it is not possible for any one to tell *all* with accuracy. The result of this, as described by M. Cucheval-Clarigny—and we must say that this is the most startling statement in his article—is that although the law directs the Minister of Finance every year to make a full and complete statement of the finances of the previous year up to the 31st of the preceding December, with all the necessary vouching documents, as a matter of fact no such balance-sheet ever appears. The law has not been, he says, obeyed for ten years. The Legislature, when it begins to discuss the budget of this year, never has under its eyes the complete accounts of last year. In fact, the accounts are generally two or more years in arrear, and he publishes an extraordinary table, showing that since 1870 the French people have never known the results of the financial administration of any particular year until five, four, or at least three years afterwards. The financial statement for 1877, for instance, has only been submitted to the Chambers and the public within the present year. So that for eleven years, to use M. Cucheval-Clarigny's words, "not a single budget has been finally settled."

During the last Empire, the extraordinary credits were given up, and in their place was substituted the system of "virements"—that is, the power of the Executive to divert the money appropriated by the Chambers for any one department to any other; or in other words, to choose the objects on which it would spend the revenue. The Republicans denounced these "virements" at the time very savagely, but according to M. Cucheval-Clarigny their own system is far worse. The Empire, in providing itself with money for the "virements," drew only on the actual revenue, while the Republicans meet their extraordinary expenditures, not provided for by the regular budget, by the issue of Treasury notes, or, in other words, by borrowing; and he adds, that they now not only borrow on short notes, but take up the short notes with long ones, and have now afloat exchequer bills, having six years to run, for which they have invented the new name of "obligations sexennaires."

The motive of this apparently reckless policy, according to our accuser, is, first of all, reluctance to bring the Republic into popular disfavor by increase of taxation; next, the desire to bring it into popular favor by lavish expenditures on public improvements, such as railroad and harbor building, which might in most cases be, and if let alone would be, executed by corporate or individual enterprise. The situation in 1880, he says, showed really, if the accounts were complete, a deficit of over $12,000,000; and he winds up the most formidable indictment of Republican administration which has yet appeared by the remarkable statement that far from getting out of debt, France is every day getting deeper into debt; that the recent loan of $200,000,000 falls short by $5,000,000 of meeting the deficits caused by the extraordinary expenses of the years 1879-1880; that another loan of $200,000,000 will be necessary in 1883 to meet the floating debt which will be created between now and then; that the expenses of the Government for 1882 already foreseen reach the enormous figure of $780,000,000, and that the day is not distant when the annual expenditure will be $800,000,000, or double that of Great Britain!

BISMARCK ON THE TOBACCO MONOPOLY.

BERLIN, August 27.

THUS far the platform of the Government for the coming elections has been rather obscure and indefinite; abstruse phrases and glittering generalities occupying the ground of positive political demands and unequivocal measures. The clearing skies which Bismarck promised several months ago have now at least partly made their appearance in the shape of the tobacco monopoly, and in the contemplated appropriation of its proceeds for the benefit of the accident and annuity insurance of the workingman, or, as the official organs say, of "the disinherited of society."

A Berlin professor of political economy, Herr Wagner, a State Socialist, or, as his friends are nicknamed, a "Katheder-Socialist," has lately conferred with the Chancellor at Kissingen, and in electioneering speeches, delivered in Barmen and Elberfeld, has in Bismarck's name announced to the world that the tobacco monopoly will and must be submitted to and driven through the next Reichstag, in order to carry out the Government's benevolent intentions. When at Christmas, 1877, Herr von Bennigsen was invited to enter the Cabinet and to propose two Liberal members besides himself (Forckenbeck and Stauffenberg), he was informed that he would have to co-operate with the Chancellor in introducing the tobacco monopoly. After due consultation with his political friends, Bennigsen declined the offer, for he had arrived at the conviction that it would be an immeasurable economical loss for Germany if her most flourishing manufacture, in which she surpasses all Europe, and her large tobacco trade, commanding the markets of the world, should be ruined. Prince Bismarck, becoming aware that he could not win over to his side the National Liberals, the then most powerful party in the Reichstag, which alone was able to turn the scales in his favor, broke off his negotiations with Herr von Bennigsen, and at the ensuing election, to the best of his ability, "pushed the National Liberals to the wall till they squeaked." Then the new Reichstag of 1878 was expected to vote the monopoly. In order to gain a basis, the Imperial Government convoked experts from all parts of Germany, and even sent for a clerk in the Washington Internal Revenue Office, who, however, was no expert. The decision of this commission was eight to three votes against the monopoly, and towards the end of 1878 the majority of the Prussian Cabinet acceded to this vote. Under these circumstances nothing was left to Bismarck but an effort to raise the duty on tobacco as much as possible. He, therefore, asked to have it increased to seventy marks the hundred pounds, which the Federal Council reduced to sixty, while the Reichstag finally laid a duty of forty-two and a half marks on imported and twenty-two and a half marks on domestic tobacco (before 1879 the latter only paid two marks). We import about 1,000,000 hundredweight a year from America, and raise about 500,000 hundredweight at home. In order not to be again troubled by an increase of the duty on tobacco or its monopoly, the Reichstag, on April 28, 1880, by one hundred and eighty-one against sixty-nine votes, adopted a resolution according to which it was expected that the mutual understanding between the two parties would not again be called in question by a new bill. The Government was satisfied with this, but Bismarck still declared the monopoly his ideal, and on various occasions said that tobacco had not yet been bled enough.

Thus the fifteen thousand German tobacco manufactories, which employ about one hundred and fifty thousand hands, have for the last few years had no repose, and are almost daily vexed by new rumors. Thousands of men employed in that trade have already emigrated, and others would have followed them if they had had the means. Nevertheless, Bismarck suddenly publicly states that he still insists on carrying out his pet measure, and now recurs to it as his weapon for winning the campaign. In other countries, a bill having been defeated by an overwhelming majority, the Government yields to the will of the legislative branch. But German political life is still so young, and the constitutional system so little developed, that Bismarck does not refrain from again and again harassing the Reichstag with the reiterated discussion of bills which have been rejected and do not find the least hold among the people. In order, however, to make his plan more palatable, it is now proposed to constitute a separate fund from the proceeds of the monopoly, the income of which is to be devoted to insuring the working classes against accident and granting them an annuity for their old age. When the new taxes and duties were first proposed the surplus was promised to be used in alleviating the direct and local taxes of the people; next it was to serve for the subvention of the several trades and guilds; then for the benefit of our shipping inte-

rest; and now it is to be set apart as an independent fund for the above purpose. One vague promise supplants another, and the end is not yet.

As the correctness of my statements may be doubted if I report the substance of the new plan, I think it best to give you the verbal translation of the article in the *Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung*, which characterizes it in the following words:

"Prof. Wagner has thus settled the fact that the Imperial Government intends to lay before the next Reichstag the bill on the tobacco monopoly as a basis for the insurance of workingmen against accident or inability to work by old age. The income of the monopoly shall become '*the patrimony of the poor.*' This idea is really imposing, and, in view of its grandeur, it is quite indifferent whether it is considered as practical Christianity or State Socialism. The execution of this plan will relieve the disinherited of society, who live by the toil of their hands, from the anxieties of the days when they shall be unable to work, and will guarantee them the peaceful prospect of a secure old age. In no country, and under no government in the world, thus far, has such a peaceful solution of the social question been tried, nor has the Government anywhere caught the idea by which that truly Christian element which underlies the doctrines of the Socialists—viz., the protection of the weak and helpless—no longer left to be the capital of Social-Democratic agitators, is appropriated to its own purposes. It will really be a task worthy of the King of Prussia now, at the end of the nineteenth century, to break ground for tranquillizing the agitation among the working classes, as in its beginning he emancipated the serfs."

A few months ago the Chancellor, in the official "motives" accompanying his bill for compulsory insurance against accident, argued that it would take at least one generation to carry out that measure, and that therefore all other kinds of insurance should be postponed. And now, all at once, annuity insurance is put in the foreground of political agitation. I was perfectly thunderstruck when I read the Chancellor's new plan. If it had been published four years ago by a Social-Democratic paper, the sheet would have been confiscated and its editor prosecuted for disseminating wild communistic theories. And now all the satellites of the Chancellor praise him as a new redeemer, as if the very basis on which the structure of the social and political organism is erected were not jeoparded. I tremble for my country if similar experiments are repeated and developed to their utmost consequences. Why, then, should the Government stop here? Why not extend its patriarchal system to all profitable trades—why not exercise the functions of a baker, a butcher, and a tailor, at the state's risk? Even the Conservatives begin to suspect and denounce Bismarck's socialistic schemes and wild dreams. The other day Herr von Bethmann-Hollweg, an independent proprietor of large manors, at a meeting of his political friends, asked that the Chancellor should submit his plans fully specified and worked out, in order to make an examination of his intentions possible, and most emphatically concluded his remarks with the notice that he would not become an accessory to such a swindle. On the other hand, Liebknecht, one of the Social-Democratic leaders, says that Bismarck, not having succeeded with the *bourgeoisie*, is, like Louis Napoleon, now trying his better luck with the working-classes.

"We of course accept his offers, but why should he not go a step further, and let those who are starving and have no work apply to the Government? Bismarck must advance still more, or he is lost. A tyrant cannot reach his ends by Social-Democratic reforms; socialism can only be realized by revolution. It is far from us to kiss the hand of the man who made the law against the Socialists. Bismarck will consequently fail. We will take from him what we can get, but we will ask for more, and continue to fight to the end."

Still another side of the question. At the beginning of this week the united clerical and aristocratic Protestant orthodoxy held its yearly meeting in this city. People call it the Black Conference. On this occasion the light infantry as well as the heavy artillery of the Church are accustomed to free their minds on the questions of the day. On the second and last day of their proceedings, the 25th instant, the two hundred reverend gentlemen rose to a man and sang Luther's "Eine feste Burg ist unser Gott" (a mighty stronghold is our Lord), to take up arms—against the Jews! Thus they entered on the discussion of the Jewish question. I will only point out two queries raised by the speakers. One of them, a clergyman, asked why it was not possible for a people, united in itself, to take from a minority (the Jews) the rights which had been granted them. Another Hotspur, Baron von Hammerstein, however, an old antediluvian fossil, spoke more to the point. His hostility against the Jews was only a pretext for his hatred of our modern civilization and economic development. It is our foremost duty, he said, to break the tyranny of capital, and by so doing to undermine the power of the Jews. Our statute law must change the basis of private law in relation to capital from the pagan Roman to a truly Christian German code. Or, in other words, let me add, we must make new statutes which will prevent a merchant or manufacturer from accumulating more money than an indebted country squire or *Junker* will ever be able to acquire. This is, at the same time, the authentic interpretation of the so-called Jewish question. You will perceive from this sample that our Conservatives understand very well how to "fructify," as the Austrians would say, Bismarck's economical whims and vagaries.

However, to return to the tobacco monopoly, its proceeds will not be so large by far as is anticipated. An old German proverb says, "You must not distribute the pieces of the bear before you have caught the beast." Prof. Wagner's computation of the sums to be derived from it is so far interesting as it repeats Bismarck's estimate. For this reason only it deserves a passing notice. He says that the monopoly in Austria yields 70 to 80 millions of marks, and that with us it will and must from the beginning bring at least double that amount—viz., 160 millions. Then he deducts interest and sinking fund, which he computes at 30 millions, and leaves a balance of 130 millions. This, in his opinion, will increase from year to year till it reaches the sum of 200 millions. Prof. Wagner only gives vague estimates, and does not even approximately prove his suppositions. I point out only one great mistake. The German smokers are estimated at about 8 millions—I believe there are not so many. If, now, not perhaps within the next year, but in fifteen to twenty years, 200 millions of marks are to be realized out of the monopoly, this number must not only not decrease, but each smoker must consume at least so much tobacco that the Government will make a yearly profit of 25 marks out of him. For the present, the first question to be answered is, How much will the Government pay for damages to the manufacturers? The committee of experts put them down at 687 millions of marks, the interest on which alone, at 4½ per cent., amounts to about 30 millions of marks. But, even granting that the monopoly in the first years of its existence will yield 180 millions net, how far will they go to cover the annuity and insurance expense?

For the coming elections the Chancellor's platform is very dangerous, as by its demagogic promises it may win over the poorer classes and effect a Conservative majority. Once laid before the Reichstag, it cannot do much harm, as by subjecting the plan to the close examination of practical men it will prove impossible.

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THE EGYPTIAN SUDAN.

CAIRO, August 7, 1881.

LAST summer Colonel Gordon's private letters to members of his family, and public documents concerning his administration in Central Africa, were, with Colonel Gordon's consent, placed in the hands of Mr. Hill, who, personally unacquainted with Colonel Gordon, was informed that Colonel Gordon would neither see nor correspond with him until the book was finished and before the world.* Colonel Gordon, moreover, refused to read the manuscript, or the proofs of the work as they passed through the press. Mr. Hill states in the preface: "The book is mine, and I must answer for it just as much as if Colonel Gordon were dead and I his literary executor."

Almost everything that has hitherto been written about Central Africa is of purely geographical or ethnological interest, but the letters published under these somewhat unusual circumstances throw much light upon the problems of governing or colonizing those lands and of ultimately bringing them within the pale of civilization. Besides possessing considerable literary merit, Colonel Gordon's letters will be of great value to the anti-slavery cause, and to all who take an interest in any one of the numerous aspects of the Central African question. Without attempting anything like a review of the more than four hundred and fifty pages of solid food for reflection which this book contains, I wish to call attention to that portion of it which sets forth the overwhelming difficulties that prevent the Sudan from being profitably or properly administered by any European or American in the service of Egypt.

Colonel Gordon was vested with supreme and absolute control of the Egyptian Sudan, a territory nearly as large as the entire portion of the United States to the east of the Mississippi River; and to-day—two years after his departure—if we except seven thousand miles of telegraph line, there is not a trace to be found of his ever having been there. I do not say this in disparagement of Colonel Gordon, whose iron constitution, indomitable energy, honesty of purpose, and genius for ruling uncivilized races are matter of common notoriety. But that the outcome of his five years' labor was a mere weaving of ropes in the sand is a most significant fact, and strengthens my belief that one hundred Gordons, working from some solidly established European colony as a base of operations, must wear themselves out in the Sudan before anything like a tolerable or profitable administration can be maintained there. For Egypt, herself possessing the faintest veneer of civilization, to attempt such a task is an absurdity. Colonel Gordon, writing from Laboré, near the Albert Nyanza, says:

"The Khedive's people are incapable of civilizing these natives, and may be described as 'conies'†—a feeble race. One Arab lieutenant came up to Moogie, and you never saw such a pitiable sight. He was muffled up like his veiled wife, who accompanied him to me, begging and praying in the loudest and most pitiable terms to be allowed to go back. I threatened him with the combatch (whip), and then he left me and went to the interpreter, kissed his feet, and bothered him till he came to me for refuge. As the Arab is the dominant race, and it was not conducive to the Khedive's benefit to let a public exhibition (of which all the camp was witness) go on, I sent him down to Khartum, saying what I thought of him. It is wonderful how

* *Colonel Gordon in Central Africa.* 1874-1879. [Although this work has already been reviewed in the *Nation* (No. 840), our correspondent's extracts have a practical bearing which justifies the trifling repetition involved in printing them at this date.—ED. NATION.]

† "The conies are but a feeble folk."—Proverbs xxx., 26.

effeminate these Arabs are. The fact is these officers have committed some crime at Cairo, and are sent up here for punishment. They are the most useless set of beings I ever came across. . . . I am thoroughly disgusted. These people are unfit to acquire the country. However, I have one consolation: they are a great deal too timid and apathetic ever to do the numerous stations much harm, and so I do not feel any compunction in opening the route. Some Pasha will come; he will be a grand man, will neglect the stations, lose them perhaps, and the whole affair will die out, unless they send another foreigner, which they may do. I hope he will have more patience than your brother. As for the Arabs, with one exception, they are lazy, effeminate, shirking, and only seeking a hole to hide in. As for the Sudanese, they are idle, only thinking of their own comfort, and shirking."

And further (p. 161):

"The Shillooks have had some idea of government. Mehemet Ali destroyed it. Their kings had a dynasty of two hundred years' duration. They *did* number two million before Egypt civilized (?) them. . . . If you ask me what is to be done to regenerate these people (the Egyptians) I could not answer it. They are the most hopeless set. Continual oppression has made them of such a material that you could find no sound principle to work on. Nations have generally some regenerating qualities, either commercial, military, religious, or patriotic spirit. These people lack each one of these motive influences. . . . Three generations of good government would scarcely regenerate them. Their deceit is the result of fear and want of moral strength, as they have no independence in their characters. For a foreign Power to take this country (Egypt) would be most easy. The mass are far from fanatical. They would rejoice in a good government, let its religion be what it might. . . . It is the Government that needs civilizing far more than the people. . . . The way in which my suggestions for the improvement of these lands [the Equatorial Provinces] are left unanswered, shows me that they are not wished for. I want to open the country to merchants and to let the troops merely afford protection to them; but that would diminish the gains (the immediate gains) of the Government, and so I do not expect it will be done."

The evidence of Colonel Gordon, as well as that of Colonel Dye, forces us to believe the Egyptian soldiers to be an arrant set of cowards. Colonel Gordon occasionally caught one of his officers in the act of selling the Khedive's soldiers for slaves; but without going into further details the passages quoted above show the value of Egypt as a "conquering nation," as well as the folly of attempting to govern those distant provinces, some of which are as far from Cairo as Cairo is from St. Petersburg. The Sudan, instead of bringing in any revenue to Egypt, is not only not self-supporting, but costs Egypt from £50,000 to £100,000 yearly. Colonel Gordon suggests that vast cotton crops might be raised in the Sudan which would in two years produce a far greater revenue than the ivory. After reading his letters one can scarcely help agreeing with his conclusions that "The Government of the Egyptians in these far-off countries is nothing else but one of brigandage of the very worst description. It is so bad that all hope of ameliorating it is hopeless. . . . One thing is certain, *that the Egyptian should never be allowed out of his own country.*"

Writing from Khartum in May, 1877, Colonel Gordon says:

"I am guarded like an ingot of gold. I must not rise to give a chair to a guest; if I get up, every one else does the same. It is misery, and I now feel what work princes must go through. I take advantage of their ignorance of English to say to the Sheiks, 'Now, old bird, it is time for you to go'; they are delighted. The sister of the late Governor Ismail Pasha Ayoob, hearing of my appointment instead of her brother, broke all the windows of the palace—some one hundred and thirty—and cut the divans in pieces out of spite. My predecessors never allowed any one to come near them. I admit the people, and have a large petition-box with a slit in the lid, which is filled up daily. I think the people like me, and it is an immense comfort that, while in the old régime ten or fifteen people were flogged daily, now none get flogged."

Concerning his measures for the prevention of slavery Colonel Gordon writes, Khartum, August, 1878: "I am striking daily deadly blows against the slave trade, and am establishing a sort of government of terror about it. I have hanged a man for mutilating a little boy, and would not ask leave to do so. I do not care if his Highness likes it or not." On Colonel Gordon's shoulders each man's burden lay, and such burdens brought, as they ever must in these deadly climates, nervous exhaustion and alteration of the blood. Whenever he was present all would go well, but the moment his back was turned all would go wrong. He had to be ubiquitous. In 1879 he rode 2,230 miles through the desert on camels, and 800 miles in Abyssinia on mules. In the three years, 1877, 1878, and 1879, he rode 8,490 miles on camels and mules. His average day's journey on camels was 32½ miles and on mules 10 miles.

In December, 1879, Colonel Gordon left the Egyptian service, and after a short stay in England, visited India and China in the spring and summer of 1880. He is at present commanding the Royal Engineers at Mauritius. The Sudan is "taking care of itself," and if ever it is to be opened to commerce other than that of slaves, efforts must proceed from Zanzibar, or the Congo, and not from the Nile.

Correspondence.

COLOR-PERCEPTION IN THE SEXES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I respectfully request the correction of what I believe to be an error in your criticism of my letter on the "Sexual Theory of Games"?

You say in effect that science has only shown that a larger percentage of men than of women is color-blind, and not that women as a class have a finer color-sense. Dr. Daae, of Norway (quoted by Dr. Jeffries in his book on 'Color-Blindness'), on examining two hundred and eight girls, found that none were color-blind, and only five had "*imperfect color-perception.*" I cannot give his statistics of boys, but they may be inferred from his remarks which follow:

"The better *color-perception* of the girls than the boys was very marked. Is this because the girls have personally more exercise with colors than boys? If this is the case, then we must assume that even very considerable degrees of color-blindness may be relieved by many years' exercise. This is, however, not probable. It is more probable that the better color-perception which the female sex has acquired and developed by many generations of handling colored objects is essentially sexual, or only inherited by the female descendants."

Prof. Magnus, of Breslau, says:

"Methodical education of color-sense does not intend either to cure color-blindness or to develop the power of perceiving colors in the sense of evolution, but to bring the color-sense which from insufficient use had become limited, or which had not been sufficiently developed, to as perfect a function as can be obtained, according to its organization."

These statements go to prove, first, that between color-blindness and a perfect color-sense there exist infinite gradations; secondly, that, though color-blindness be incurable in the individual, education of the color-sense may be productive of results even in the first generation, and still more in future generations. Your statistics of 4 per cent. refer to *color-blindness*, leaving quite out of consideration the *imperfect color-perception.*

I call attention to this because as a matter of fact it is of importance. Your further criticisms, being matters of opinion, call for no further comment. C. D. M.

New York, Sept. 10, 1881.

[Nothing is more objectionable in polemical writings, and nothing, unfortunately, more common, than to infer from what a person really says to what he says "in effect." "C. D. M." said that "long before science corroborated the fact, women have known that the majority of men have no fine perception of color." To this we replied: "We were not aware that science had shown that the majority of men have no fine perception of color. What science has shown is that a larger percentage of men than of women are color-blind; but the number is only four per cent." In other words, we merely corrected the statement that the *majority* of men have a defective color-sense. We never dreamed of denying that "women as a class have a finer color-sense than men," which is a fact familiar to every schoolboy. The same want of scientific accuracy, therefore, which made our correspondent overstate the defective color-perception of men induces her to imagine us guilty of going to the opposite extreme. There is no such absolute antithesis between color-blindness and imperfect color-perception as "C. D. M." makes out. Her own admission that between color-blindness and a perfect color-sense there exist infinite gradations, should have guarded her against this assumption. The published statistics in regard to this matter do not refer to cases of total color-blindness, which are of very rare occurrence, but to defective perception of any one color, marked enough to be discovered by the very delicate tests which have been devised by different physiologists. A defect in the color-sense more delicate than these would certainly not prevent a young man from leaving athletics and taking up æsthetics, as the original argument implies. And, finally, if a test were made, it would doubtless be found that the very highest power to discriminate between different shades of color belongs not to milliners or flower-girls, but to painters, the majority of whom, as we said before, are males.—Ed. Nation.]

THE COMPANY OF THE SEXES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Although it is a pity that the defence of women on any count should be left to the irrelevant arguments of "C. D. M.," it is only to protest against one clause of your rejoinder that I venture to address you. How many women have admitted to you that meetings of their own sex "are apt to be somewhat stupid"? If the majority of the sex finds them so, why are "hen-parties" of all sorts more and more popular?

I am a woman, and not a stupid one, and in my day I was not considered unprepossessing, yet I find a well-chosen ladies' luncheon the pleasantest form of meeting I have ever taken part in. Moreover, all my life long I have preferred the society of my own sex to that of men, *cæteris paribus*, and I have had plenty of both. I do not pretend to prefer a stupid woman to a clever man as a companion, unless the difference should be compensated for by some extraordi-

nary advantage on her side or drawback on his; such, for instance, as the inveterate "shop" or wearisome cynicism which would make a good nursery-talk a relief from the conversation of some clever, well-informed men. But between a stupid man and a stupid woman, a clever man and a clever woman, or a room full of men or women, my choice has ever been for the latter. Nor am I a monster in this. Among the women whom I know best there are several, young, attractive, intelligent, and all three at once, who share my preference for our sex.

It is natural that both men and women should find in their own sex sympathy and understanding which they cannot look for from the other: the comprehension of those who have similar needs, experience, interests, and points of view —the compatriotism of sex, in a word. But, besides this, women have a power and desire to throw themselves into the feelings and positions of others which is seldom found in men; men make unstinted demands upon this altruism in their intercourse with women, and women are as ready and able to extend it to each other as to men. This goes to make the companionship of women more congenial to each other than that of men. And, while agreeable men are more apt to be stimulated by the presence of women (except where a recognized "talker" is keeping up his reputation, or is pitted against another of his calibre) to do their best in conversation than by that of their own sex, women are more anxious to "shine" among each other than among men, perhaps because they know that it is not for their brains men valu[illegible] them most. A woman is much more afraid of being thought a fool by another woman than by a man. These influences conduce to make women's society acceptable to each other, and the proofs that they find it so are the ladies' luncheons, kettle-drums, where man hides his diminished head, and other purely female gatherings, until at last we have reached the absurdity of ladies' dinners, with an elaboration of food which they do not eat, wine which they do not drink, and flowers which they would enjoy more at another time.

The marked predilection of women for the society of their own sex threatens to be injurious to general society; for of course there can be no real society composed solely of women or solely of men, any more than a real library composed of poetry only, or only of scientific books—not that this is a happy illustration, for in a well-chosen party of either sex there would be a variety of intellect and taste—let us say, rather, any more than a dinner-party composed wholly of talkers or wholly of listeners; for you will admit that some women listen, as well as that some men talk, or there would be no mixed society at all, except for dancing.

Now, on the other hand, *do* men "always manage to have a good time together"? If it be so, some of you are foully forsworn. I know of a city of several million inhabitants where a certain club gives weekly parties to which all the distinguished men of the place, as well as many undistinguished, and every stranger of note, are asked. I have heard men of every degree declare that nothing can be more stupid than these assemblages, and that nothing could induce them to attend one a second time. I have heard the same thing averred by numbers of men about nearly every man's dinner or supper club in my own place, and of every social reunion exclusively of men; and I cannot flatter myself that these complaints are made to humor me, as they often come from men in those relations which discard such subtle arts. And why, when men wish to bestow a name on a social or literary junta expressive of peculiarly select and stellar qualities, have they chosen again and again for centuries the designation of a feminine congeries—the Pleiades?

There is the usual masculine contempt for feminine logic, or possibly for feminine humor, in your statement that women owe their superior beauty to men, by the law of the selection and survival of the fittest, since the beauty of the mother can scarcely be transmitted to her female descendants only; nor, I suppose, have the handsomest men of all times remained celibate or childless. On this point I will follow "C. D. M.'s" example and refer you to George Eliot in 'Daniel Deronda' for your answer.

But to return to female society: I cannot affirm what I have said above of the women of any country except my own, who strike me as the best company I have ever known, and of whose pleasure in the society of their own sex I am able to speak from observation. As far as I am personally concerned, I have retained my preference for my sex in my slight acquaintance with French, Italians, and Germans. I am bound to confess, however, that in England, as a general rule, if there is a companion whom a woman appears to hold in horror above all the rest of the human or brute creation, it is another woman. We do not hear of ladies' lunches and dinners in that country; nor is it wonderful that we should not, for the interval in the drawing-room after the women leave the table at a dinner party before they are joined by the men accounts for the disfavor of forms of society exclusively feminine, and deserves all that has been said and written of it by English people themselves.

Although it would not be to the point in question, I might defend myself against your probable retorts by admitting the existence of circumstances in which a woman prefers the companionship of one man to that of all womankind. But I will not rob you of your rejoinder, nor dispute with you that last word so dear to human nature. I have the honor to be,

Yours respectfully,

A True Woman.

Elberon, N. J., Sept. 5, 1881.

PRESERVATION OF NIAGARA FALLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I want to thank you for your eloquent and earnest appeal for the preservation of Niagara Falls as a park, in the issue of Sept. 1, and to urge you to further and repeated efforts in the same direction. The American Association for the Advancement of Science has for a long time annually appointed a committee to push the matter, which this year felt so discouraged that, at Cincinnati, it reported its efforts as useless. In the hope, however, that something might yet be done, the committee was continued, and Mr. G. W. Holly, of Niagara Falls, appointed chairman. As he is a gentleman enthusiastically interested in the matter, he will welcome your article, and perhaps your united efforts will accomplish the desired result. The Falls are as worthy of preservation as a national park as those in the extreme West, and possibly the general Government might take them if New York refused. Hoping that you can push the good work to success, I remain, most respectfully, Chas. Schäffer.

1309 Arch Street, Philadelphia, Sept. 9, 1881.

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will, in addition to works already enumerated in these columns, publish this fall Henry James, Jr.'s 'Portrait of a Lady'; 'Country By-Ways,' by Sarah Orne Jewett; 'The Common Sense, the Mathematics, and the Metaphysics of Money,' by J. B. Howe; 'Eastern Proverbs and Emblems,' by the Rev. J. Long; Feuerbach's 'Essence of Christianity,' in Marian Evans's translation; 'A History of Materialism,' by F. A. Lange; an 'Index to Neander's Church History'; 'A Grammar of the Old Friesic Language,' by A. H. Cummins; 'Poems,' by Harriet Prescott Spofford; and 'Poems, Lyrics, Songs, and Sonnets,' by Francis Bennoch.——Other announcements for the coming season are as follows:—G. P. Putnam's Sons: A popular edition in one volume of Tyler's 'History of American Literature'; 'Buddha and Buddhism,' by Arthur Lillie; 'Authors and Authorship,' by William S. Walsh; 'Cambridge Trifles,' by the author of 'A Day of My Life at Eton'; 'Worthies of the World,' a large volume; 'The First Book of Knowledge,' by Frederick Guthrie; 'Suicide: Studies on its Philosophy, Causes, and Prevention,' by Dr. James J. O'Dea; 'Sensation and Pain,' by C. Fayette Taylor; and 'The Usury Laws' (for the Political Education Society).——Henry Holt & Co.: 'Greece and Rome, their Life and Art,' by Jacob von Falcke, an illustrated work for the holidays; Parts 2 and 3 of Symonds's 'Renaissance in Italy,' viz., the Revival of Learning and the Age of the Despots; Baring-Gould's 'Germany, Past and Present'; Ten Brink's 'History of English Literature'; Cox's 'Introduction to the Science of Comparative Mythology and Folk-Lore'; 'Our Familiar Songs and Those Who Made Them'; 'The Young Folks' History of the War for the Union,' by John D. Champlin, Jr.; Gardiner's 'Introduction to English History'; and Hardy's 'A Laodicean.'——J. W. Bouton: an *édition de luxe* of Hamerton's 'Graphic Art,' in one volume; a 'Gil Blas' in eight quarto volumes; a new edition of Jackson and Chatto's 'History of the Art of Wood-Engraving'; also, of Bryan's 'Dictionary of Painters, etc.'; 'The Luxembourg Gallery'; Racinet's 'Interior Decorations'; and 'Modern Artists,' by F. G. Dumas. All these works, it is needless to add, will be richly illustrated.——Jansen, McClurg & Co.: Hauff's fairy tales, translated from the German under the title, 'Tales of the Caravan, Inn, and Palace'; a new volume of poems by Ella Wheeler; 'Haydn,' in Nohl's series of biographies; 'Golden Thoughts,' selected by S. P. Linn; and 'Golden Poems,' a new anthology prepared by Francis F. Browne, editor of the *Dial*.——Peter G. Thompson, Cincinnati, has in press 'The Parent-Heart in Song,' poems collected by Mrs. Livietta Bartlett Conner.

—The Committee of the Carlyle Memorial Fund in England have naturally looked to this country for substantial sympathy and co-operation. Mr. George Cabot Ward, the well-known banker of this city, at 52 Wall Street, has consented to receive American contributions to this object. Nothing need be said to stimulate them, as they will be spontaneous if made at all.——A movement is also on foot to remove the remains of the late Joseph Severn, H. B. M. Consul at Rome, to a place beside those of the poet Keats, whose devoted friend he was; to mark his grave with a stone like Keats's; to enclose both with a common railing and hedge; and to erect near by a common monument or memorial tablet. Each subscriber will receive a carbon-printed photographic copy of the last portrait of Keats, by Severn's own hand. Contributions may be sent to Mr. R. W. Gilder, care of *Scribner's Monthly*, 743 Broadway, New York.——Mr. Quaritch, 15 Piccadilly, London, is prepared to furnish the auction catalogue of the famous Sunderland Library, of which the sale will begin December 1. This great collection numbers about twenty thousand volumes, and is especially strong in early editions of the works

of classic authors, and of Bibles. The early Italian writers also figure largely, there being a hundred editions of Dante for the period 1472–1583. The collector of Americana will also find his interest in the sale.——The Messrs. Appleton state that the sale of Jefferson Davis's 'Rise and Fall of the Confederate Government' at the South has been "remarkably large," as, indeed, twenty thousand sets must be considered.——A second edition of Mr. Kwong Ki Chiu's 'Dictionary of English Phrases' has been called for.——The *Century Magazine*, as *Scribner's* will be known with the November number, holds out for the coming year a promise of "Studies of the Louisiana Creoles," by George W. Cable; a new novel, "Through One Administration," by Mrs. Burnett; an illustrated series of papers on "The Opera in New York," by Richard Grant White; "The So-called Venus of Melos," by W. J. Stillman, with fine engravings; a "Life of Bewick," by Austin Dobson; and articles by Turgeneff on the "Russia of To-Day." The Century Co. will soon issue a photographic likeness of Dr. J. G. Holland, after the crayon-drawing by Wyatt Eaton.——*Harper's Bazar* has made a special arrangement with the South Kensington Museum for the exclusive publication of the designs of its school of needlework.——A tribute to the late Lady Blanche Murphy, by Cardinal Manning, will be one of the attractions of the October *Catholic World*, which will also have an article controverting "H. H.'s" 'Century of Dishonor.' This magazine is about seeking a transatlantic circulation through Burns & Oates, the well-known London publishers.——The September number of the *Magazine of American History* is nothing if not timely. It was issued in season for the late centennial celebration of the defence of Fort Griswold against the British and Tory-American attack (Sept. 6, 1781), under Benedict Arnold, and it repeats the painful details of this most atrocious incident of the Revolutionary struggle. It also gives interesting genealogical particulars concerning the Ledyard family, and otherwise illuminates the historic record. The Yorktown celebration, too, receives another instalment of fresh data, most noteworthy being some charming letters to his wife written by St. George Tucker, the step-father of John Randolph of Roanoke, and that humane jurist whose 'Dissertation on Slavery' (1796), advocating gradual abolition in Virginia, is a precious rarity for the collector. Mr. Stevens has increased the obligation of his readers by accompanying the letters and a biographical sketch of Judge Tucker with his portrait—one of the St.-Mémin vignettes. The face is worthy of the philanthropist, and bears a not fanciful resemblance to Washington's.——The "First Supplement" to the Catalogue of the Taunton (Mass.) Public Library is rather a gain to the usefulness of that institution than to bibliography. We like the continued use of manila paper. The cover bears the city seal, with the disputed motto, "Dux femina facti."——Mr. James Terry, of the Central Park Museum of Natural History, describes in an interesting communication to the *Evening Post* his discovery of pre-historic mounds on the eastern extremity of the Long Sault island, situated midway in the rapids of that name in the River St. Lawrence. The relics obtained were remarkable, and have been sent to the Museum.——Circulars of Information Nos. 1 and 2 of the Bureau of Education treat respectively of the construction of library buildings (Mr. W. F. Poole's paper), and of the relation of education to industry and technical training in American schools.——Father Curci's 'I vecchi zelanti e la nuova Italia' has been put in the "Index," and the author has "submitted," as he promised to do in his preface. But the submission will not have much practical effect, as he had sold the copyright to the publisher, who is now preparing a second edition, the first being entirely exhausted.

—All signs point to the increasing pursuit of historical studies in this country, and apparently the approaching season is to be remarkable for literary productiveness in this line. We reported, a fortnight ago, the two series, of great promise, undertaken by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., namely, "American Men of Letters" and "American Statesmen." We have now to add the announcement, by Charles Scribner's Sons, of the preparation of a third, hardly less important and significant, bearing the title of the "Campaigns of the Civil War." Twelve volumes are expected to embrace the whole story, and these have been apportioned as follows: 'The Outbreak of the Rebellion,' by John G. Nicolay, President Lincoln's private secretary; 'From Fort Henry to Corinth,' by Judge M. F. Force (late Brigadier-General and Brevet Major-General United States Volunteers); 'The Peninsula,' by Alexander S. Webb (late General commanding Second Division, Second Corps); 'The Army under Pope,' by John C. Ropes; 'The Antietam and Fredericksburg,' by Francis W. Palfrey (late Brevet Brigadier-General United States Volunteers); 'Gettysburg,' by Abner Doubleday (late Brevet Major-General United States Army); 'The Army of the Cumberland,' by Henry M. Cist (late Brevet Brigadier-General United States Volunteers); 'The Campaign of Atlanta,' and 'The March to the Sea—Franklin and Nashville,' by Jacob D. Cox (late Major-General United States Volunteers); 'The Campaigns of Grant in Virginia,' by Andrew A. Humphreys (late Brevet Major-General United States Army); 'The Mississippi,' and one other volume. The first two will be issued in October. The volumes will be duodecimo in size, of about 250 pages each, and illustrated with maps and plans, and the price of each will be one dollar. The work is therefore of a thoroughly popular character, while the list of writers ensures a high level of accuracy and literary execution.

—An American scholar, engaged in the study of Keltic, desires to learn if there are others interested in the same pursuit. He may be addressed through the Publisher of the *Nation* ("Columba").

—A correspondent writes us from Tennessee:

"In your issue of September 1 you say that the minority report of a committee on the subject of municipal reform in Massachusetts remark in their report that no cities outside of New England, except Philadelphia and Baltimore, have the 'double-headed city council.' This is a mistake. Nashville, Tenn., for one, has had it at least ever since 1858. Her City Council consists of a Board of Aldermen and a Board of Common Councilmen. The Mayor has a veto, but a concurrent two-thirds majority will overcome it. This municipal arrangement has, moreover, worked excellently."

—The death of Mr. Sidney Lanier, at Lynn, N. C., on the 8th instant, removes a poet and man of letters of much promise and of considerable accomplishment. Mr. Lanier was a Georgian and fought on the Confederate side during the civil war. About ten years ago he went to Baltimore to reside, and at first attempted to practise law, but his health compelled him to confine himself to rather desultory literary work. This, however, he pursued in anything but a dilettante spirit, and perhaps the most marked characteristic of his production is the evident amount of care expended upon it. His poetry is eminently thoughtful and studied; so much so, indeed, as too frequently to sacrifice the lyric to the epigrammatic quality. The felicity of the following, for example, is mainly epigrammatic:

"O age that half believ'st thou half believ'st
Half doubt'st the substance of thine own half doubt,
And, half perceiving that thou half perceiv'st,
Stand'st at thy temple door, heart in, head out!"

It would be easy to quote from his poems much which essays poetry and falls short of it in just this way, but which does not thus atone for its shortcoming. A deficient sense of humor cannot but be remarked in much that he wrote, from the ambitious and rather ecstatic cantata composed for the opening of the Centennial Exposition to such positive doggerel as

"Look up the land, look down the land;
The poor, the poor, the poor, they stand."

On the other hand, a true and not common poetic feeling is often manifested, unobscured by either the effort at polished condensation and pithiness or the effort at exaltation. Such a figure as

"Than half-wing openings of the sleeping bird
Some dream of danger to her young hath stirred,"

could occur only to a poet, and only by a poet be thus happily expressed. Mr. Lanier was, in fact, to an appreciable degree of dignity and excellence in advance of the magazine poets with whom, nevertheless, his work, by its meagre amount and general character, of necessity classed him. He was, we believe, an accomplished musician, and wrote an ingenious book on "The Science of English Verse," in which he attempted to substitute musical notation for the ordinary prosodical signs—a work prohibited by its scheme from ever becoming popular or very useful. He lectured on English literature at the Johns Hopkins University, and his condensations, 'The Boy's Froissart' and 'The Boy's King Arthur,' must have already won for him an enviable measure of gratitude from both old and young.

—The author of 'The Brotherhood of Thieves; or, A True Picture of the American Church and Clergy,' died last week at his home in Worcester, Mass. The title of this work implies a remote date, and in fact the publication belongs in the year 1843. At that time Stephen Symonds Foster had been five years out of college (he was a graduate of Dartmouth), and not too long out of the Union Theological Seminary to deprive his testimony of weight as an expert. He had been drawn into the swelling flood of abolitionism, and, dedicating his life to the extirpation of slavery, he took as his specialty the guiltiness of the church in regard to the overshadowing evil of that day. Not content to deliver his testimony from anti-slavery platforms or in tracts, he used to confront the clergy in their own temples, with an effect upon them and their congregations which could only be matched by the primitive Quaker disturbances of Puritan meetings, and with the necessary consequence to himself of being rudely ejected in spite of, or partly because of, his utter non-resistance. A more resolute man never lived, nor a gentler or more amiable in his private relations, between which and his public utterances the contrast was stupendous. Nature, while endowing Mr. Foster with an enormous "bump of combativeness" and a hard logical sense, had denied him the faintest ray of humor—a fact as perceptible to his associates, who esteemed him and made allowance for him, as it was exasperating to an unsympathetic audience. Our greatest humorist, now American Minister at the Court of St. James's, in some familiar verses, written "in steamboat haste" but with infallible characterization, thus described him in the winter of 1846:

"Hard by, as calm as summer even,
Smiles the reviled and pelted Stephen,
The unappeasable Boanerges
To all the churches and the clergies;
The grim savant who, to complete
His own peculiar cabinet,
Contrived to label with his kicks
One from the followers of Elias Hicks;
Who studied mineralogy,

Not with soft book upon the knee,
But learned the properties of stones
By contact sharp of flesh and bones,
And made the *experimentum crucis*
With his own body's vital juices;
A man with caoutchouc endurance,
A perfect gem for life insurance:
A kind of maddened John the Baptist,
To whom the harshest word comes aptest;
Who, struck by stone or brick ill-starred,
Hurls back an epithet as hard,
Which, deadlier than stone or brick,
Has a propensity to stick.
His oratory is like the scream
Of the iron horse's frenzied steam,
Which warns the world to leave a space
For the black engine's swerveless race.
Ye men with neckcloths white, I warn you—
Habet a whole haymow *in corau.*"

On the Sabbath question it will readily be guessed that Mr. Foster's views were not orthodox. He had been brought up to think it "a very great sin to take up an axe and cut a stick of wood" (for "the sound of the axe must not be heard upon the Sabbath"), but, in his own words again: "I could lift my foot a dozen times to break it." He made amends for all this in adult life by chopping wood by the roadside and getting in his hay on Sunday, not because he thought seven days of toil a good thing for the race, but to censure what he considered the superstition of his neighbors. In 1845 he married Miss Abby Kelley, who may be regarded as the pioneer in the woman's-rights movement in this country, and who was the rock on which the abolitionists split at their memorable convention in 1840. As she yet lives, we need not quote Lowell's tribute to her also. Of late years Mr. and Mrs. Foster have steadily refused to pay taxes on their homestead, on the ground of woman's deprivation of the suffrage. Their protest has caused them much annoyance, but the interposition of friends has saved them from the sheriff. Mr. Foster had nearly completed his seventy-second year.

—Census Bulletin No. 261, by Prof. G. Brown Goode, gives the statistics of the fishing interest on the Great Lakes. The total number of men employed in the business in 1879 was 5,050, and the total capital invested was $1,345,975. The plant included 1,656 vessels and boats, 1,500 pounds, 44,544 gill nets, and 148 seines. The total product of the fisheries was 68,720,000 pounds, valued, as fresh fish, at $1,652,900, an average per man engaged in the business of $327. Of the total catch 21,463,900 pounds were whitefish, 6,804,600 were trout, 15,356,300 herring, and 7,012,100 pounds were sturgeon. The remainder were variously denominated as hard, soft, rough, coarse, and mixed fish. Of the total amount 43,122,270 pounds were sold fresh, 16,793,540 pounds were salted, 2,821,650 were frozen, and 1,721,770 were smoked. The product of caviare was 230,160 pounds, valued at $34,315; that of isinglass 3,909 pounds, having a value of $5,765, and of oil 5,680 gallons, valued at $2,280. The total value of all products, fresh, salted, frozen, and smoked fish, caviare, isinglass, and oil, was $1,784,050.

—In a recent interview, the Canadian weather-"prophet" allowed his secret to be quizzed from him as follows: "I discovered . . . that seasons and years recur in couplets and triads." A few moments later in the conversation, his self-confidence having been apparently shattered by the exposure of his mistakes in these columns last May, and in the New York *Tribune* within a fortnight, he made the astounding admission: "Sometimes I am bothered by my inability to decide whether I have entered a *couplet* or *triad* of seasons, and until that matter is settled I am all at sea." But he immediately reassumed his fighting-gear, and exclaimed, "Such a miss is not possible once in a thousand times." The reporter abstained from pushing him to the wall by subjoining, "How can a thing possess either couplets or triads which has not even units, since the 'season' is an artificial and not a natural division of time?" It is time the press ceased to give currency to Mr. Vennor's preposterous guessing.

—Mr. John S. Dwight has issued a sort of "*post-mortem* number" of his *Journal of Music* in which the reasons for its discontinuance are frankly indicated. The paper did not pay, but actually entailed a loss upon its editor, who at last got tired of the struggle to keep it alive without the means to make it such a journal as he desired. It has been suggested that the demise of the *Journal*, after an honorable career of thirty years, is due to its uncompromising hostility towards modern music and its exclusive devotion to the so-called classical school. There is some truth in this suggestion, but it does not cover the whole ground, for the late *Musical Review*, which was an enthusiastic advocate of the claims of modern composers, and in its general tone much more impartial and just, as well as more "newsy" and enterprising, than the *Journal of Music*, succumbed to the same fate after a much shorter career. In both these cases, we are inclined to think, the cause of failure cannot be ascribed to the management or the character of the periodical, but, as Mr. Dwight rightly suggests, to the fact that "there is not in this country now and never has been any adequate demand or support for a musical journal of the highest character." Even in Germany, where everybody is supposed to be musical, most of the papers devoted to this art alone lead but a precarious existence. In America, musical culture of the highest kind is almost entirely confined to the cities, and there the daily papers so constantly anticipate the weekly musical journals in news and criticism that there is little demand for the latter when they appear. It cannot be denied, indeed, that in Germany, and to some extent in France and England, the daily papers furnish more readable criticisms than the musical papers. The Vienna *Neue Freie Presse*, the Berlin *Boersen-Courier* and the London *Times* are the papers to which the musician turns most eagerly for the latest and most reliable views on his art. But it should be noted that in these papers time is not considered as important as quality and literary art; and perhaps in course of time American nervousness will so far subside as to enable us to prefer a well-digested weekly or semi-weekly feuilleton on musical events to a fresh, but hurried and imperfect, daily criticism of last night's concerts.

—In Part XIV. of Grove's 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians,' which has just made its appearance (New York: Macmillan), and extends from Richter to Schoberlechner, the longest article is that on Rossini, by M. G. Chouquet. Besides Rousseau, Salieri, and Scarlatti, the creator of modern opera, several living composers are discussed, among them Rubinstein, Saint-Saëns, and Scharwenka. The articles on Rubinstein and Saint-Saëns are good as far as they go, but disappointing by reason of their shortness. True, the career of these artists is not yet closed, but enough interesting material might have been found for longer accounts, which would have been welcomed, because few composers engage the attention of the public more than they do just now. Of executive musicians Rubini, Sarasate, Sainton, Sanley, Sauret, and the minor artists are mentioned. Rubini, it would seem, was not only the most celebrated of modern tenor singers, but by far the most wonderful musician that ever lived, for he succeeded, according to the author of the article on him, in "gathering up and expressing in one song the varied emotions of a whole opera"(!) The Scala Theatre of Milan, and the San Carlo of Naples, are briefly described, as are also the instruments called saxhorn and saxophone, after their inventor, M. Sax. Of the musical forms defined, Saraband, Round, Scherzo, Sanctus, and Romance are of importance. The articles Romantic, Roi des Violons, Royal Academy of Music, and others are of general interest. The names of Ries, Romberg, and Rummel are specimens of "those musical families of whom, from the Bachs downward, so many are encountered in Germany."

—Reliable information has at last been published in regard to the performances of Wagner's "Parsifal," which are to take place in Bayreuth next summer. The editor of the Berlin *Boersen-Courier*, who is one of Wagner's most intimate friends, announces the following particulars. The full rehearsals will begin on Sunday, July 2, at Bayreuth, and the first two performances will take place on the 26th and 28th of the same month, for the benefit of the patrons only, *i. e.*, for those who have subscribed fifteen marks annually for the last three years. These will be followed by fourteen public performances on Sunday, Tuesday, and Thursday of each week, ending August 29. The rôle of *Kundry* has been assigned to Frl. Marianne Brandt of Berlin, one of the very best living vocalists, whose wonderful impersonation of the part of *Ortrud* in "Lohengrin" would alone have sufficed to secure for her a national reputation. The piano score is to be prepared by Herr Engelbert Humperdink, the young musician who recently gained so much notoriety by securing both the Meyerbeer and Mozart prizes. This last announcement about him is the most complimentary of any yet made, and it would seem as if at last a new musical genius had made his appearance.

— A new edition of Miss Burney's 'Evelina' has just been added to Bohn's Novelists' Library (Scribner & Welford), with an introduction and notes by Annie Raine Ellis. The notes are wisely few, and are mainly devoted to descriptions of the various places of fashionable resort mentioned in the text; a few retail the gossip of Mrs. Thrale, Boswell, and Johnson over the different characters; and but two are superfluous, the information they contain being drawn from the book itself. It is always a matter of regret when an old book takes to crutches; it seems an anticipation of the day when it will be finally out of the race and fall into Voltaire's category of classics whose reputation is secure because they are never read. It is proper to express acknowledgments, therefore, for the self-restraint of an editor who would rather risk the omission of a necessary than the insertion of a superfluous note. In this case the work is well done, and the result ought to be that 'Evelina' will strengthen its position and win new admirers. The introduction is written from the standpoint of Macaulay's essay, and, remembering how thoroughly he disposed of Croker, an elaborate defence of Miss Burney from the charge of understating her age and gaining admiration for her work as the product of a girl of seventeen, was hardly necessary. On the appearance of the novel it was natural that the public should consider such keen observation of character and manners the fruit of experience, and upon learning that it was the work of a young girl (for Miss Burney was but twenty-four) should infer that it was a page of personal experience, and that she like her heroine was but seventeen. Certainly no elaborate confutation of Croker is now needed to convince people that she was not responsible for the public's natural mistake. The "epilogue" which follows the introduction defends Miss Burney's claim to superior

influence with the royal family as regards the counter claim set up by the family editor of Mrs. Delaney's correspondence for the latter, and again by Mr. Hare in a note to his 'Life of the Baroness Bunsen,' Mrs. Delaney's great-grandniece. Perhaps it does not greatly matter which of the ladies had the ear of the "sweet Queen" at that court which the editor of the present volume accuses of corrupting the English style of Mme. D'Arblay, as was said of the Bishop of Salisbury, preceptor of the Duke of Kent: "Living much at Windsor, . . . he had imbibed the bad style of manners belonging to that place."

TAINE'S JACOBIN CONQUEST.—II.

Les Origines de la France Contemporaine. Par H. Taine, de l'Académie Française. La Révolution. Tome II. La Conquête Jacobine. Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern.

The Jacobin Conquest. By H. Taine. Translated by John Durand. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

TAINE has propounded a riddle, he has not provided the answer. His facts are invaluable, his theories are, as an explanation of these facts, all but worthless. The riddle which he forces on the attention of historians is this: How did it happen that, in a great, flourishing, civilized country, such as was France in the eighteenth century, a minority of ruffians and blackguards —the very scum of the earth, if Taine's picture of them be correct—thwarted, defeated, and subdued to their will the vast majority of their countrymen? How was it that this extraordinary victory repeated itself at each successive crisis of a struggle extending over years? To give examples, as Taine does, of the weakness of the Constitutionalists, of the combined folly and feebleness of the Girondists, of the astounding audacity with which each successive minority was able to outwit its opponents, is, in reality, rather to re-state the problem to be solved than to provide its solution. Such explanation as Taine does afford may fairly be summed up as follows: The best, no less than the worst, minds in France were crammed with false political theories uncorrected by any practical experience in the conduct of affairs. The old form of government had broken up; the new constitution was unworkable, and required, to be worked at all, exactly those virtues in which Frenchmen are most deficient. In the absence of any legal and efficient government, inferior and bastard forms of government sprang up, so to speak, of themselves. The sovereignty which had fallen from the hands of the king, and had never been grasped by the constitutional authorities, was seized by the clubs, which gradually formed an organized society, headed by the Jacobins of Paris. Legal right was on one side, real force was on another, and force triumphed. Moreover, the respectable majority were hampered by their own scruples, and had to contend with adversaries who had no scruples whatever. To use a metaphor which Taine employs, if we remember rightly, more than once, the majority were like an honest man playing at cards with sharpers. He keeps the rules of the game; they cheat. If by any accident luck turns in his favor, they blow out the candles and rob him. It is no wonder that the honest man loses every penny.

Now all this and a great deal more of the same kind which is urged and repeated by Taine is true as far as it goes, but it certainly is a very inadequate answer to the questions which need a reply. Indeed, the main importance of Taine's explanations is that they betray the existence in the mind of a very intelligent Frenchman living in 1881 of a sentiment exactly similar to the feelings which he attributes to his ancestors of 1791; for Taine obviously thinks that respectable men cannot defend themselves against blackguards unless the party of order have the Government on their side. That Taine should feel in this way does suggest a partial solution of the problem why respectable Frenchmen have constantly been defeated by ruffians. Still, Taine's explanations remain, on his own showing, completely inadequate for their purpose. The same men who, as long as they were conspirators or insurgents, displayed infernal cunning and reckless audacity, become, on his view, from the moment when they are called upon to resist aggression, as silly as children and as weak as women. The Girondists, while they attack the throne, are invincible; when they are called upon to defend the Republic they are at once routed. The great Danton is a giant of strength while he heads the revolutionary movement. He assuredly is not a man of scruples. From the minute when he is called upon to act on the defence he hesitates and fails, and yields to a man admittedly his inferior in talent, energy, and resource. The internal inconsistency of Taine's own theories is hidden from him by a singular ambiguity of expression. The term "Jacobin" has in his mouth an extraordinary vagueness and uncertainty of meaning. As opposed to the Constitutionalists, the Jacobins are the whole body of Democrats or Republicans; as opposed to the Gironde, the Jacobins are the followers of Danton and Robespierre. By this lax use of words Taine conceals from his readers that the very men who (say) on the 10th of August triumphed by their astounding energy as Jacobins, on the 31st of May fell from power through their astonishing want of energy as Girondists. Views which can be made self-consistent only by the aid of verbal ambiguities must inevitably be, if not false, yet certainly incomplete; and the aim of thoughtful students should be, while admitting the weightiness and importance of Taine's facts, to discover, if not a solution for the problems which he leaves unsolved, at any rate some explanation of the inadequacy and inconsistency of his theory of the Revolution.

One cause of Taine's failure to deal satisfactorily with the facts which he narrates is that his book is based upon a radically defective plan. His intention is to trace the origin of French institutions, or to trace out historically the growth of the customs, habits, modes of thought, and institutions which make up the constitution of modern France. Now, an author who undertakes to perform this task might write a history of the Revolution, or he might, as seems to have been De Tocqueville's purpose, give an analysis of the principles which influenced or guided the Revolutionary movement, and which exert their power unto this day. Perhaps Taine proposed to follow in the steps of his great predecessor, but in fact he has adopted neither of the courses which are fairly open to him. He has not written a history, even in outline, of the events occurring between the opening of the States-General and the fall of the Girondists. All that concerns the wars of the Revolution, the treason of Dumouriez, and scores of other transactions without a knowledge of which no one could follow the course of French politics, does not find a place in his book. On the other hand, he has not given, we venture to say that he has not the powers requisite for giving, an analysis of the principles which underlie and govern the course of events. What he has done is to give extremely minute circumstantial and, we gladly admit, most valuable accounts of particular transactions. His work is essentially fragmentary. He has never grasped his topic as a whole, and does not appear to see that it must be grasped as a whole if it is to be made the basis of moral or political inferences. It is possible to isolate one definite part of a series of events and treat of it alone, as, for example, Doniol has treated of the legislation affecting the tenure of land in France; but it is not possible to deal with the general bearings of a great historical crisis and leave whole masses of facts and their effects entirely out of consideration. Thus, who can doubt that the weakness of the Constitutionalists had the closest connection with the King's flight to Varennes, or that the Girondists were hopelessly damaged in their own eyes (though they might not confess the fact) as well as in the eyes of the country by the treason of the general who had seemed the heroic defender of France? How is it possible to suppose that the fact made patent to the world in Mortimer-Ternaux's pages, and certainly known to the political leaders at Paris, that Dumouriez's treason had all but succeeded, and that the army was within an ace of following the leadership of their commander, did not influence the whole course of the contest between the Jacobins and their opponents? Who can suppose that the conduct of the Republicans can be even understood without reference to the relations maintained between the court and foreign powers? To explain the Revolution while leaving most important matters out of account is an absolute impossibility. The radical defects in Taine's plan would of themselves almost account for the shortcomings of his work, but, added to the defect we have noted in the scheme of his book, there are also essential errors in his whole point of view, two of which deserve special notice.

He does not, in the first place, show any perception of the immense difficulty presented by the task which French statesmen who wished to lay the foundation of French liberty had to perform. We do not for a moment deny that they all, from Lafayette downwards, displayed a good deal of unpardonable weakness, and a great deal of much more pardonable incapacity, which was little else than another name for inexperience. But to suppose, as Taine apparently supposes, that if the French Government would but have firmly repressed popular disorder all would have been well, is to ignore the essential features of the situation. The difficulty to be overcome was how to control at once the court and the mob. There was a danger, and a perfectly real danger, though Taine seems to forget this, of reaction as well as of foreign invasion. There was, on the other hand, a danger, the existence of which he never forgets, of falling under the supremacy of the multitude. You cannot judge men like Lafayette or Roland justly unless you remember the twofold peril to which the cause of freedom was exposed. That Taine or any man of his generation should overlook the chance that to disarm the populace might be to arm the court, is the more inexcusable because the events of 1848 proclaim as loudly how great is, in revolutionary eras, the risk of reaction, as the events of 1791 proclaim how fearful at such times is the danger of anarchy. In 1848 the party of order throughout Europe, and especially in France, followed precisely the course which Taine thinks ought to have been pursued by the men of '89 or '91. They rallied after the first check; they played off one part of the populace against another; they trusted the rulers who from one end of the Continent to the other swore to protect constitutional liberty; they used cannon and grapeshot against the mob who but a few months before were flattered as the defenders of freedom. We all know the result. With rare exceptions, the ruler, were he emperor, king, or president, turned the reaction to his own account. At Paris, at Vienna, at Berlin, and at Naples the despots of the day re-

imposed the yoke which the people had for a moment shaken off, and made it tenfold heavier than before. There were in 1852 few enlightened Liberals who did not bitterly repent of the policy by which the party of order had played the game of despotism. Can any fair judge doubt that if (say) Lafayette had coerced the mob of Paris, or if the Swiss had been allowed to disperse the insurgents of the 10th of August by rounds of grape-shot, the Court would have soon made short work of the Liberals and of the institutions which Liberal Frenchmen were attempting to found? To say that Lafayette and his friends or Roland and his party committed deplorable mistakes, is true; but to deny that they were placed amidst perils from which the wisest of statesmen could with difficulty have extricated himself with success, argues either blindness or gross unfairness. Moreover, the dread of reaction perplexed the moral judgment of men who, with all their faults, undoubtedly had a sincere love for their country. It was absolutely impossible for any Frenchman who hated the *ancien régime* to pursue a policy which was certain to bring him into alliance with nobles who detested the Revolution. Taine, in a striking passage too long for quotation, describes the terror felt by the peasantry lest the miseries of the bad old times should return, and hosts of patriots whose own interests or lives were menaced by Revolutionary excesses deliberately chose rather to be the victims of injustice than run the risk of restoring an abominable state of society. What was the true sentiment of France is apparent from the popularity of Napoleon's early government: the whole country rallied round a ruler who for the first time promised to secure France at once against the disorder and against the return of the *ancien régime*.

Taine does not, in the second place, ever make plain to his readers whether he does or does not look upon the events of the Revolution as to a great extent the result of deliberate plot or conspiracy. There and again he uses language, especially with regard to the Duke of Orleans, which suggests a belief that design and intrigue had a good deal more to do with producing popular demonstrations than is, we suppose, believed by most modern historians. The view that world-wide events are the result of Machiavellian machinations is rather out of date, but it is certainly probable that writers like Carlyle have very considerably exaggerated the spontaneous character of the tumults at Paris. The point is one on which accurate information is much needed; but, though Taine hints at dark designs planned by the hangers-on of the Duke of Orleans, he does not adduce specific facts in support of his mysterious intimations. He perhaps has never made up his own mind on the question whether direct conspiracy deeply influenced the course of events. But an author who on such a point is himself in doubt is hardly a safe guide through the labyrinth of a period which, though in one sense well known, is in another full of obscurity.

Taine, moreover, still retains his belief in one portion of the Revolutionary legend. He kindles into something like enthusiasm when alluding to the exploits of the volunteers. No one can wonder at his fervor. The day will never come when any Frenchman—one might say any lover of freedom—can think of the youths who repulsed the despots of Europe and carried the tricolor in triumph through the capitals of Europe, without admiration. But it is difficult to retain one part of a legend while you reject the rest. Can it be that all the men who crossed the frontier were heroes, while the men of the same class who stayed at home were unredeemed ruffians? Surely not. A view which makes the Frenchman who stays at home a totally different man from the Frenchman who fights abroad must be infected with error. The mistake is, we venture to assert, twofold. The volunteers fought well, but they were not quite the heroes that they are painted in French romance. There is no reason to suppose that a French sailor differed from a French soldier; and any one who chooses to refer to the 'Life of Macaulay' may find a striking picture of what French sailors who sang *Ça Ira* and shouted *Vive la République!* might be when they got a chance of plundering and wrecking an establishment devoted to the promotion of philanthropy. On the other hand, the roughs who crammed the Jacobin clubs were not all of them graceless scoundrels. Fanaticism is a tremendous evil, but it almost implies the existence of real enthusiasm. Taine overlooks the reality of that Jacobin faith which, with all its monstrous faults, was at one time a genuine faith which, in its way, moved mountains.

BIBLICAL ENGLISH.

A Glossary of Difficult, Ambiguous, or Obsolete Bible Words. With Illustrative Quotations from English Writers of the Period of the Authorized Version. By the Rev. J. Rawson Lumby, D.D., Norrisian Professor of Divinity, Fellow of St. Catharine's College, and late Fellow of Magdalene College, Cambridge. New York, 1881.

THOUGH we now have a part of the Bible, and are soon to have the whole of it, in a motley half-new dress, the interest which has been felt in the production of King James's revisers, as regards its language, instead of abating, is likely, for obvious reasons, rather to increase. To the works of which this interest has, within the last few years, prompted the preparation, another is now added, differing from its forerunners mainly in not being confined to the elucidation of obsoletisms.

Dr. Lumby's 'Glossary,' at least as to a considerable share of its contents, is intended to meet the wants of those who are still occupied with acquiring the merest rudiments of learning. For instance, under *a*, it offers definitions of *ado*, *alms*, *aloof*, *anon*, *apace*, and, of course, of *adjure*, *affinity*, *albeit*, and *amerce*. If of uniform execution throughout, it would spare one even the trouble of seeking elsewhere for the meanings of the most familiar expressions; but the design in conformity with which simplicities of this description are admitted is carried out anything but thoroughly. At the same time, however, that it fitfully descends to the humble level just indicated, the elementary students whose needs it aims to supply will often, in the absence of supplementary explanations derived *ab extra*, find it a strange sort of aid towards enlightening their ignorance. Thus, of what use can it be to such to be referred, for an etymology, to a Greek word? And suppose that this word is submitted by a pupil to his teacher: it is in the Roman character, and while, for all that, an unmitigated enigma to the former, is to the latter, if he knows Greek, a present of a gratuitous metamorphosis. The teacher, it is assumed, is Grecian enough to expound *apŏskeuasamenoi* (under *carriage*), and Latinist enough to interpret *digito monstrandum* (under *monster*). We cannot help thinking that a practical experience of the illiterate, or a more judicious estimate of their requirements and the requirements of their immediate instructors, would have suggested a good deal to Dr. Lumby, either for addition or for omission.

The reader is informed at the beginning of the 'Glossary,' that its illustrations "are chosen, as much as possible, from authors of the Elizabethan and Jacobean times; but now and then, to indicate that a word is old, an example of it has been given from Chaucer; while, on the contrary, a few examples have been selected from Milton and Dryden, when a word continued to be used in its Biblical sense to a late date." The principles here intimated, it seems to us, are not all of them readily reconcilable with sound judgment. Chaucer is here and there appealed to, and so is his predecessor, Robert Mannyng; and why their names should not appear, if at all, very constantly, is not easy of discovery. And the same objection is valid with reference to Milton and Dryden. In fact, but few of the citations adduced are strictly to the proper purpose, which ought, at any rate primarily, to show from the more popularly intelligible writers of the early part of the seventeenth century, how far, as regards items of language now laid aside, King James's revisers adhered to the usage of their contemporaries. And why should words and meanings which are still current, or were so short of many generations ago, be treated as if they belonged to antiquity? To be more explicit, before *anon* is reached, quotations are given for *abroad* (out of doors), *ado*, *advertise* (inform), *advisement* (counsel), the conjunction *against*, *allegory*, *amerce*, and *angle* (for fishing), from Burton, Gosson, Latimer, Ralph Robinson, Shakspere, Selden, Howell, and Lyly, respectively. A most mistimed jumble is this, surely, and one, further, of a nature, where not to lead the uninformed astray, to perplex them; seeing that the second and the last four expressions specified are to this hour in circulation, that *advertise*, for "inform," lived on into the last century, and that *abroad*, for "out of doors," and *advisement* still survive as provincialisms. Illustrations quite as inappropriate as those here instanced encumber every page of Dr. Lumby's unequal performance. And why, under *a* alone, has he left the Biblical *addicted*, *admiration*, *ambassage*, *ambushments*, *answer*, *appearance*, and *attent* unillustrated? As to his quotations under *overflow* and *vehement*, it might be inferred that he countersigned *overflown* as the past participle of the first, and *respective* for "considerate." He ought, besides, to have perceived that his extracts under *settle* and *spring* are inapposite. So, too, is the extract under *sort*, an extract illustrative, nevertheless, of *sort*—"mass," "herd," or the like—in "all the *sort* of you," an expression in the Prayer-Book version of the Psalms which he has overlooked, just as he has *save*, the quasi-preposition, in "forty stripes *save* one," while making a muddle of *save*, *saving*, the conjunction.

Nor are his shortcomings by any means yet fully exhibited. The article on *all to*, a combination hastily made equivalent to "all to pieces," requires to be essentially recast. How, in *all torend*, is *all* "added" to *torend*? That "*all to* became used [*sic*] as an adverb" is a fact of no relevance to *all tobrake* in Judges; as to which it certainly ought to have been pointed out that the ordinary reading, *all to break*, is simply some wiseacre's alteration of it. Moreover, Shakspere's *tobless* and *topinch*, unpreceded by *all*, disprove the assertion that, "by the time of Spenser, *all* was invariably joined with [*sic*] *to*." Concerning *bank*, applied to earth, we would ask, in what part of the world the word is "now used only of the ground by the side of a river"? *Caul* is not, in the Bible, restricted physiologically, as it is laid down to be, to the sense of "pericardium." In connection with *chapman*, the outworn phrase *good cheap* is wrongly accounted for. *Coast* was of old often one with "region," as well as with "any border-land." *Deceivableness*, for "deceptiveness," was not "rare" in the literature of bygone ages, as is evident from more than twenty quotations for it which lie before us. To say that *lewd* now signifies "vicious" might be

taken to imply that lying and other kinds of naughtiness belong to a different ethical category. *Morian*, it should have been distinctly noted, has been replaced by *Moor*. *Nephew* was not formerly, among the designations of direct descendants, in all cases "grandson," with which alone it is represented as synonymous in the Bible. *Once* is explained by "sometime" (*sic*); and *sometime* by "once." And who now ever uses the antiquated *sometime* otherwise than of the past? The substantive *quarrel*, in the passage of Colossians which is particularized, is not "complaint," the marginal lection, and that preferred by the author's fellow-revisionists, but "matter, cause, or ground of complaint." *Do*, as in "we *do* you to wit," is overpassed in its alphabetical place; and no cognizance is taken of the factitive *have* in "*have* me excused." But, though tempted to go on with minutiæ such as these, we must hold our hands.

Markedly deserving of all praise are the articles on *away with*, *ceiled*, *cockatrice*, *commune*, *frontlets*, *froward*, *jeopard*, *runagate*, *seem*, *shrewd*, *stomach*, *stomacher*, and *surfeiting*. *O si sic omnia!*

Notwithstanding what has been effected by Mr. Booker in his 'Obsolete Scripture Words,' by Messrs. Eastwood and Wright in their 'Bible Word-book,' by Mr. Davies in his 'Bible English,' and by Dr. Lumby in his 'Glossary,' a kindred work of wider scope than any or all of them, and of thorough practical utility, especially for the young, still remains a desideratum. Not in our century, at all events, will King James's Bible be transferred from the table to the bookshelf, as an antique curiosity. Looking to its manifold obscurities, assistance should therefore be devised for all, in the way of rendering its language completely intelligible, which, to the multitude and even to most scholars, it is far from being at present. Indeed, we venture to say that not one English-speaking person in a hundred thousand can, without very special study, read half a dozen consecutive chapters of it without being stumbled by archaisms, or without being unconsciously misled by them. Yet the case would indisputably have been otherwise, except for an unfortunate prepossession on the part of its executants in favor of superannuated phraseology; a thesis which, by the by, for its promise of ungarnered and interesting fruit, may be commended to the aspiring philologist, who would select a line of nice investigation hitherto well-nigh wholly neglected, and who is minded to gird up his loins for persistent and vigilant toil.

RUSKIN'S ARROWS OF THE CHACE.

Arrows of the Chace. Being a Collection of Scattered Letters Published chiefly in the Daily Newspapers, 1840-1880, by John Ruskin, and now Edited by an Oxford Pupil. With Preface by the Author. Vol. I. Letters on Art and Science. Vol. II. Letters on Politics, Economy, and Miscellaneous Matters. New York: John Wiley & Sons. 1881.

It is inevitable that any one who now undertakes to form a candid opinion of what comes from Mr. Ruskin's pen should approach the subject in a spirit quite different from what Mr. Ruskin would think fair or right. When he began to write, notwithstanding the hostility with which he met, he had certain advantages on his side in the condition of criticism itself which were sure in the long run to tell in his favor. It was an epoch when, for a variety of reasons, the literary faculty as such counted for more than it does now; and Mr. Ruskin has always possessed what some of his imitators would call a very precious literary faculty. The early part of this century was distinguished by the appearance on the scene of a number of men gifted with a marked facility and power of expression, the nature of whose influence upon their contemporaries we now find it often difficult to understand. To take but two examples, Carlyle and Emerson: both exerted in their prime an influence which bears no comparison with any moral literary force that we can now discover in any quarter, and yet it is impossible for us to conceive of their exerting the same influence now, were they to begin their work over again, upon anybody. We do not speak of Emerson's poetry nor of Carlyle's historical pictures—for these alone are to be judged by purely literary standards—but of the didactic writing by which they gained and fixed public attention. Why was it that their teaching so aroused and moved their contemporaries, while it so often leaves us cold and puzzled? It must have been in some measure because with the public of their day the possession of the power of expression carried a much greater *auctoritas* with it, apart from the value of the matter expressed, than it would now. The progress of positive methods of thought has in the last fifty years done a great deal to produce a change. When Mr. Ruskin began to write, the mere fact that he could write vigorous and impressive and poetic English would have been of itself almost enough to equip him as an art critic; and if he subsequently fell into the mistake of supposing that he was by the same fact qualified to instruct the public in military science, railroads, strikes, wages, arbitration, cooperation, or anything else that happened to attract his attention for the moment, his experience of the public gave him a sort of right to assume that it would continue to listen.

Of course his equipment as an art critic consisted of a great deal more than his literary faculty, and he did so much for the development of sound artistic taste in England that the world owes him a profound debt of gratitude; but so far as his public was concerned, they were from the moment he had secured their ear completely under the influence of his power of expression, and they followed him blindly wherever he led, regardless of logical consequences. This has produced, too, upon him the same effect that it has had upon many other reformers. In the first instance meeting with violent opposition, and having after a stout struggle succeeded in silencing his enemies and obtaining a following of disciples, he seems to have come to the conclusion that opposition is a kind of test of truth, and that his holding unpopular opinions on any subject is a proof that they are probably correct. The volume before us is full of indications of this, sometimes very amusing, even to one who puts the highest value upon Mr. Ruskin's labors in the cause of art reform; but no single illustration could be so striking as the following comprehensive remark in his preface: "Here are a series of letters ranging over a period of, broadly, forty years of my life, most of them written hastily, and all in hours snatched from heavier work; and in the entire mass of them there is not a word I wish to change, not a statement I have to retract, and, I believe, few pieces of advice which the reader will not find it for his good to act upon." When we consider that the letters touch upon almost every variety of topic, both those of which Mr. Ruskin is qualified to speak and those of which he knows little or nothing, and further, when we recollect how exactly opposite is the feeling generally inspired by the re-perusal of old letters to that which Mr. Ruskin expresses, it seems impossible to explain his statement except in the way we have suggested—that what carries this settled conviction of the value of every word he utters home to him is the opposition it excites.

The present volumes are fragmentary in the character of their contents, and deal with such a variety of subjects that they present the author to us less as an art critic than as a general teacher. It would be unfair to base an estimate of the value of his æsthetic writings upon the letters contained in them. Nevertheless, we may say in passing that they bring out in a stronger light than any of his larger works the curious fact that while he has at bottom a singularly fixed and individual standard of taste, his analysis of the æsthetic principles on which this taste is based is fluctuating, generally contradictory, and often unintelligible. This is a matter, of course, about which it does not require an artistic education to form an opinion. It may be tested by the ordinary rules of reasoning. We have only space for a single illustration.

In a letter on Art Criticism written in 1843 (vol. i., p. 14) he says:

"The public, when referred to with respect to a particular work, consist only of those who have knowledge of its subject, and are possessed of the faculties to which it is addressed. People continually forget that there is a *separate* public for every picture and for every book. . . . With reference to a new edition of Newton's 'Principia,' the 'public' means little more than the Royal Society; with reference to one of Wordsworth's poems, it means all who have hearts; with reference to one of Moore's, all who have passions; with reference to the works of Hogarth, it means those who have worldly knowledge; to the works of Giotto, those who have religious faith. . . . We listen to no comments on Newton from people who have no mathematical knowledge; to none on Wordsworth from those who have no hearts; to none on Giotto from those who have no religion."

Now, it is obvious that Mr. Ruskin here confounds, in what, in any one else, we should call a most sophistical manner, authority in matters of science with authority in matters of taste. There are certain tests by which it can be ascertained who have mathematical knowledge and who have not, and it is perfectly true that the "public" in the case of a new edition of Newton's 'Principia' is a small and well-defined one; but poetry and painting are not collections of facts and laws which can be verified and demonstrated according to sentimental, or pathetic, or religious, or worldly tests. If one person holds himself out as a competent critic of Wordsworth, and another denies his competence on the ground that he "has no heart," the critic may fairly reply either that he has a heart, in which case there is obviously no way of deciding what lawyers call the issue presented, or he may take the ground that, though he has no heart, he has something else, as, for instance, a knowledge of versification, which will make what he has to say about Wordsworth worth listening to. In reality, in this case as in many others, Mr. Ruskin has converted what was originally a valuable critical suggestion into a universal law, and in the process made it seem absurd.

An examination of these volumes, extending as they do over forty years of the author's life, will make any one hesitate to say that Mr. Ruskin's peculiarities have increased with the lapse of time as much as might have been expected. There are in his later letters a good many passages characterized by an amusing extravagance. It is impossible not to be startled at being informed, *apropos* of Macaulay's certainly innocuous remark that "the giants of one generation are the pigmies of the next," that Macaulay's mind "swelled like a puff-ball in an unwholesome pasture, and projected itself far round in deleterious dust"; and it is amusing to learn that the reason why we have never had an opportunity of giving Mr. Ruskin a hospitable welcome to the United States was because he "could not, even for a couple of months, live in a country so miserable as to possess no castles."

On the other hand, the following passage with regard to heroism, written in 1870, though it will be set down as extravagant by many people, will be held by others to contain a piece of profound wisdom :

"The wonder has always been great to me that heroism has never been supposed consistent with the practice of supplying people with food or clothes, but only with that of quartering one's self upon them for food and stripping them of their clothes. Spoiling of armor is an heroic deed in all ages ; but the selling of clothes, old or new, has never taken any color of magnanimity. Yet one does not see why feeding the hungry and clothing the naked should ever become base businesses, even when engaged in on a large scale. If one could contrive to attach the notion of conquest to *them* anyhow ? So that, supposing there were anywhere an obstinate race who refused to be comforted, one might take some pride in giving them compulsory comfort, and, as it were, 'occupying a country' with one's gifts instead of one's armies ? If one could only consider it as much a victory to get a barren field sown as to [get] an eared field stripped, and contend who should build villages instead of who should 'carry' them ? Are not all forms of heroism conceivable in doing these serviceable deeds ? You doubt who is strongest ? It might be ascertained by push of spade as well as push of sword. Who is wisest ? There are witty things to be thought of in planning other business than campaigns. Who is bravest ? There are always the elements to fight with, stronger than men, and nearly as merciless."

There are many curious points of parallelism between the careers of Carlyle and Ruskin, particularly in their attitude towards public affairs and political economy. These volumes are full of letters which bring out in a striking way the latter's Toryism and his comically ferocious hostility to economical science. In most cases we should say it was glaringly inconsistent for any one holding the views we have quoted above on the subject of heroism to come out as a defender of Governor Eyre's proceedings in Jamaica, and it is difficult now even to understand the line of argument by which Mr. Ruskin satisfied his mind that Governor Eyre deserved his support. He says that he dislikes slavery, but believes that "white emancipation not only ought to precede, but must by law of all fate precede, black emancipation." The whole passage deserves notice, as an extraordinary illustration of what may pass for argument in a time of great public excitement :

"I much dislike the slavery, to man, of an African laborer with a spade on his shoulder ; but I more dislike the slavery, to the devil, of a Calabrian robber with a gun on his shoulder. I dislike the American serf economy, which separates, occasionally, man and wife ; but I more dislike the English serf economy, which prevents men from being able to have wives at all. I dislike the slavery which obliges women (if it does) to carry their children over frozen rivers ; but I more dislike the slavery which makes them throw their children into wells. I would willingly hinder the selling of girls on the Gold Coast ; but, primarily, if I might, I would hinder the selling of them in Mayfair. And, finally, while I regret the need that may exist among savages in a distant island for their governor to do his work sharply and suddenly on them, I far more regret the need among men of race and capacity for the work of governors when they have no governor to give it them."

Mr. Ruskin's impatience with political economy is to be traced partly to the same source with Carlyle's—the feeling that a science which professes to be based on general, ascertained laws regulating man's action implies a curtailment of man's free agency, and seems in so far an impious and immoral science. In Mr. Ruskin's case, however, this seems to be complicated with an æsthetic feeling that in an ideal state of society, which his conservatism leads him to believe once existed on earth, exchanges, rents, profits, etc., were governed not by economic but by moral laws ; so that political economy represents a real moral decline, the disappearance of primitive Arcadian simplicity and fair-dealing. In a curious letter on strikes and arbitration, he admits that it is of course right to arrange all one's business with reference to one's own interest ; but what, he enquires, will be the practical difference between self-interest, rightly understood, and "the old and simple conscientious" way of life ? "In those bygone days," he continues, in a strain which cannot but be comical to any one who recollects what the labor system of those bygone days really was—"in those bygone days, I remember, one endeavored, with such rough estimate as could be quickly made, to give one's Roland for one's Oliver. If a man did you a service, you tried in return to do as much for him ; if he broke your head, you broke his, shook hands, and were both the better for it. Contrariwise, on this modern principle of self-interest, I understand very well that if a man does me a service I am always to do the least I can in return for it ; but I don't see how I am always to get more out of him than he gets out of me." There can hardly be much wonder that a man should be, as Mr. Ruskin says he is, a "king's man," who really believes in this picture of the difference between "those bygone days" and the present time.

Mr. Ruskin has unquestionably greatly weakened his influence even as an art-critic by his extraordinary excursions during the last ten or fifteen years into non-æsthetic fields. Nobody who feels the force and beauty and moral elevation of much of his writing can help regretting that the fatal gift of expression should have misled him into attempting to deal with subjects with which he is totally unfamiliar.

Domestic Folk-Lore. By the Rev. T. F. Thiselton Dyer, M. A. [Cassell's Popular Library.] New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co. 1881.

PERHAPS the most impressive lesson of a comprehensive survey like this is the impertinence of using any tense but the present in writing the history of the human mind. One hopes, indeed, that the tense is misused when he reads that in Ireland "the peasants often place the [idiot] child supposed to be a changeling on a hot shovel, or torment it in some other way," to force the fairies to restore the true offspring ; but similar barbarities are reported in the Western Isles of Scotland and in Denmark, and somewhere in the wide world we may be sure the darkened intellect is capable of them. Now and again some British trial reveals the persistence and currency of superstition among the vulgar, but the most respectable and intelligent classes are hardly themselves conscious how much their daily life is governed by traditions of signs and omens, lucky and unlucky, that would do no discredit to Fiji Islanders. The most universal, if not the most senseless observance, that of days and seasons, is in well-nigh undiminished force. We may smile at a certain great-grandmother who used to cut her nails on Friday to avoid the toothache, but not all would find as ridiculous her rule never to begin on Friday any work, like the making of a garment, that could not be finished the same day ; and how many would indifferently set sail or be married on Friday ? Mr. Dyer tells us that May marriages are really few in England, because "Marry in May and you'll rue the day," says the proverb ; and who can doubt that this jingle is to some extent heeded among us, who are not unfamiliar with it ? The custom of covering the mirrors at funerals prevailed here in the early part of the century, and probably may be still met with ; while it is safe to say that in every community the breaking of a looking-glass is by somebody regarded as a sure presage of death or misfortune. The superstition about thirteen at table has the sanction of the wisest and the best. To discover a thief by suspending a Bible by a key would not be practised in polite society ; but divination by "dipping" might turn up in almost any pious family. "Dipping" means, in England, to open the Bible and consult it at random on New Year's Day or Eve, in order from the passage hit upon to forecast one's lot for the coming twelvemonth ; and it is clearly of a piece with the more common variety, to which Robinson Crusoe resorted in his doleful moments, viz., the application of a casual text to one's present condition. One of the most curious survivals that we have been cognizant of is the scrupulousness of the monthly nurse about taking the new-born infant *up-stairs* before letting it be taken down-stairs. We know two young men, one of the adult and the other of the rising generation, the former of whom was taken into the garret by his nurse (to make him high-minded, as she declared ; to prevent his always keeping low in the world, as Mr. Dyer explains it) ; and the latter would have been if the house had had a garret, a defect very distressing to the nurse.

This little book enables us to understand without difficulty the possibility of the witchcraft mania. It reminds us that our forefathers brought over with them the whole range of superstitions which Mr. Dyer here displays under the heads of Birth, Childhood, Love and Courtship, Marriage, Death and Burial, The Human Body, Articles of Dress, Table Superstitions, Furniture Omens, Household Superstitions, Popular Divinations, Common Ailments, etc. Dr. William Bentley, of Salem, Mass., records in his diary, under date of February 16, 1802 :

"An inhabitant of Salem, and descendant of the Skerry family, assured me it was a tradition in the family that her great-grandmother, the first of the family that came to Salem from Yarmouth, always swept her hearth and set a pail of water upon it before she went to bed, for the fairies. This may be easily believed."

It may also be readily believed that this prudent old lady shared Mr. Wesley's notion that "the giving up witchcraft is, in effect, giving up the Bible"; and, what is more, the victims of the delusion of 1692 had fundamentally the same belief in it that their persecutors had—they merely complained of the attribution to themselves of hellish compacts and performances, the reality of which in a world given over to the devil they were far from disputing. So that when, as in accompanying Mr. Dyer in his pleasant excursion, we perceive the "evil eye" and "hand" for which Giles Corey and George Burroughs perished, to be an indistinguishable part of the inheritance that embraces charms for warts and looking at the moon over the right shoulder, we are made aware, as we began by saying, that the historian of the human mind needs no other than the present tense.

A Treatise on Comparative Embryology. By Francis M. Balfour. Vol. II. London and New York : Macmillan & Co. 1881.

THE immense progress made by embryology of late years can best be measured by a comparison of Balfour's work with the 'Lectures on Comparative Embryology' published by Agassiz in 1848. The time is not very distant when embryological monographs numbered less than a score ; the bibliography given by Balfour enumerates no less than nine hundred memoirs, and it is by no means complete, since many of the older monographs which do not treat of the germinal layers, and others mainly devoted to postembryonic development, have unfortunately been omitted. In fact, the great fault we have to find with this handbook is that it is too com-

pletely devoted to the history of the germinal layers, and that the author apparently loses interest in his subject when dealing with the later stages of development.

The second volume is more strictly within the special field of the author, as he has himself contributed his principal additions to embryology in the vertebrates, and has had occasion, as Forster's collaborator in the 'Handbook of Embryology,' to verify a very considerable number of facts respecting vertebrate embryology. The general developmental history of the chordata is followed by three chapters on systematic embryology, the balance of the work being devoted to organogeny. The bibliography is collected under different headings at the end of the volume; and while we cannot but admire the judicious subdivision of the subject, it necessarily introduces a frequent duplication of titles, some of the general works being repeatedly named without definite quotations. The author is evidently somewhat partial to English and German embryologists; French, Italian, American, and even German memoirs of as great importance as those quoted are often omitted. Although Baer and Reichert have taken a very different view of the meaning of the embryology of Ascidians from the current one, yet in a work chiefly made up of analyses of original monographs their views certainly deserve to be quoted quite as much as the more recent but unintelligible memoir of Todaro. The views of Wyman, Martins, Wilder, and Morse on the morphology of the limbs are fully as important as those of Thatcher (spelled Thacker by Balfour). It is true the latter have been introduced to the British public in a prominent English periodical; the former have not. The memoir of Cornalia on the embryology of Selachians is certainly of greater importance than many of the short papers quoted by Balfour. Some of the most prominent memoirs on the development of fishes are also omitted. We hear nothing of Quatrefages, of Dareste, of Sundevall, of Forchhammer, of Carus, of Kölliker, and of Duvernoy; and certainly Balfour cannot escape criticism of his bibliography when he mentions only two memoirs by Hertwig on the development of the scales of fishes, and says nothing of Nitsche when writing on feathers. As he must of course, while writing these volumes, have gone over the whole of embryological literature, these deficiencies are annoying, and it is often difficult to imagine the reasons which have led him to quote certain things and to omit others. We are sorry to notice also that Balfour has followed a practice which is becoming very common in writers of text-books: he introduces, for instance, illustrations borrowed from Gegenbaur, who originally copied them from Calberla, in such a way as to leave one in doubt which is the original figure. It may be very convenient to borrow woodcuts from a text-book, but surely an acknowledgment in the preface is becoming, and the legend of the cut should be such as to leave no doubt of its original source.

These volumes would gain in their usefulness were the phytogenetic guesses they contain printed in a chapter by themselves; they add nothing to its accuracy or completeness, and merely confuse the student; they belong with the chapters on the origin of the germinal layers, on the types of larval forms, and on the ancestral forms of the chordata. Among the chapters on organogeny we would specially call attention to those on the nervous system and on the development of the skull; they are admirable sketches of the present state of our knowledge of those subjects. These volumes will remain for some time the basis of future hand-books of embryology. From the author's standpoint the treatment is very thorough, and it would be an easy task in subsequent editions to cover that part of the field which on account of his special studies the author has somewhat neglected.

Le Forme Primitive della Evoluzione Economica. Di S. Cognetti de Martiis. Turin: Ermanno Loescher. 1881.

PERHAPS no country in Europe is more interesting at the present time, whether from a political or literary point of view, than the new kingdom of Italy. What is to be the effect on the national life of the change in the last twenty years from a number of petty despotisms to one constitutional government of the whole? At the time of the revival of classical learning in the middle ages the universities of northern Italy were among the most celebrated and the most frequented in Europe. But civil wars and foreign and ecclesiastical dominion almost extinguished the name of Italian literature. In the department of fiction, the one first-class novel, Manzoni's 'Promessi Sposi,' only gives effect to the general darkness, though Massimo d'Azeglio, among so much else which he did for his country, did not neglect the field of historical romance. It is not unnatural that, after long and severe restriction of the press, the first movement of freedom should take the direction of bold scientific speculation; and the lounger in Italian book-shops cannot fail to be struck with the number of works upon medical and other subjects of natural science, upon jurisprudence, and metaphysics.

The work of Professor de Martiis can hardly be said to advance any very new or original propositions. It is rather to be described as a clear and erudite presentation of what has been achieved in the investigation of the bases of human society from the economical point of view. It begins with the argument of Aristotle that, apart from the generative function, which is common to all animals, and tends to the reproduction of life, there is an economic function which tends to the preservation of it; and the various developments of this are discussed with special reference to the ant and the bee, to the former of which Sir John Lubbock has of late given such careful attention. But apart from this economic *function*, with its immediate instruments provided by nature, Professor de Martiis distinguishes what he calls the economic *fact*—that is, the indirect agencies developed, whether by instinct or intellectual power; and it is the relations and differences in these between men and animals, and between different races of men, which form the main subject of the book. An extensive range of enquiry takes in all those nations and peoples which, by reason either of antiquity or distance from the civilized centre, throw light upon a comparison of development. The Chinese, the Chaldeans, the Egyptians, the Aryans, the Aztecs of Mexico, the Mayas of Central Africa, and the Incas of Peru, on the one hand, the Esquimaux, the tribes of Africa, and those of the Pacific Islands, on the other, are brought into review. The comparison embraces nearly all the relations of social life, especially the condition of woman, the state of slavery, the tenure of land, and, above all, the element of exchange or trade, which De Martiis regards as the chief economic *fact* distinguishing man from the other animals. The trade of the Assyrians and Babylonians was conducted by caravans, and, as they inhabited an inland country, it was peculiarly exposed to the attacks of robbers, and they were thus led, by the same cause which operated centuries later in modern Europe, to the invention of bills of exchange. Professor de Martiis gives us the text of a mortgage deed, of promissory notes, and of bills of exchange, of which the originals date from five centuries before Christ.

Like all comprehensive treatment of scientific subjects, the book has a kind of bewildering fascination for the general reader, while special students of the writings of Darwin and Spencer, Maine and Max Müller, Humboldt and Schweinfurth, will find in it much of new and special interest.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bonwick, J. Our Nationalities. New York: Scribner & Welford.
Burnley, Frances. Evelina. New York: Scribner & Welford.
Bryan, Mary E. Wild Work: a Tale. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $1 50.
Evans, J. Ancient Bronze Implements, etc., of Great Britain and Ireland. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $6.
Gardiner, S. R. English History for Young Folks. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Grant, A. H. The Church Seasons, Historically and Poetically Illustrated. 2d ed. New York: T. Whittaker. $1 50.
Grove, G. Dictionary of Music and Musicians. Part XIV. New York: Macmillan & Co.
Guernsey, A. H. Ralph Waldo Emerson. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Heath, F. F. Albrecht Dürer. New York: Scribner & Welford. $1 25.
Koolman, J. ten D. Wörterbuch der Ostfriesischen Sprache. Part 13. Kwalmen-Lomig. Norden: H. Braams.
Little, Rev. W. J. K. The Mystery of the Passion of Our Most Holy Redeemer. New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co.
Macdonald, G. Warlock o' Glenwarlock: a Tale. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1 75.
McNab, Prof. W. R. Botany. New York: Henry Holt & Co.
Newcomb, Prof. S. Elements of Geometry. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1 75.
Otis, J. Toby Tyler; or, Ten Weeks with a Circus. New York: Harper & Bros.
Randolph, Mrs. Reseda: a Tale. New York: Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Rein, Prof. J. J. Japan, nach Reisen und Studien. Band I. Natur und Volk des Mikadoreiches. Leipzig: W. Engelmann.
Robinson, F. W. The Black Speck: a Temperance Tale. New York: Harper & Bros. 10 cents.

GARDINER'S

ENGLISH HISTORY.

ENGLISH HISTORY FOR STUDENTS. Being the Introduction to English History. By S. R. Gardiner, Professor of Modern History at King's College, London. With a Critical and Biographical Account of the Authorities in English History by J. Bass Mullinger, M.A., St. John's College, Cambridge. 12mo, $2 25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 22, 1881.

The Week.

PRESIDENT GARFIELD'S death on Monday night apparently took the doctors somewhat by surprise, as they did not look for it for some days. It was immediately preceded by so much prostration that it came as a happy relief. The autopsy, which was made on Tuesday, illustrated strikingly the defectiveness of the materials on which medical diagnosis has to be made. The bullet was not found where it was supposed to be, and had gone in an entirely opposite direction to the one the doctors supposed it to have taken. After breaking the eleventh rib, it had turned to the left, and not, as was believed, to the right, breaking some of the spinal vertebræ; and the channel to the right, which the doctors were all along probing as the real wound, was a cavity formed by pus. There was a great deal of suppurating surface, and several abscesses, but none in the lungs or liver. Nor was the immediate cause of death neuralgia of the heart from exhaustion, but great internal hemorrhage from one of the mesenteric arteries, rupturing the peritoneum. These discoveries throw no discredit on the physicians, of course. They simply illustrate strikingly the enormous difficulties in the way of building up a medical science on observable symptoms, there being for every symptom so many possible and widely differing causes. It seems now plain enough that President Garfield had no chance of surviving from the first, and plain enough, too, that nothing but a constitution of extraordinary power would have enabled him to survive as long as he did. It is the kind of constitution which seems almost necessary to a man who is to rise high in the world from small beginnings. Much work, and valuable work, has been done by men with feeble physique, but the work of pushing one's way to the front seems to be but rarely performed except by persons with much vitality and a vigorous digestion. He is said to have suffered much from dyspepsia in late years, but it must have been in late years only, and was probably all along what to most men would have been eupepsia.

The manifestations of sorrowing sympathy which have come in from all parts of the English-speaking world, form a very striking phenomenon. The late President's struggle for life seems to have been followed with almost as much interest and anxiety in England as here. The Queen in particular has been most cordial in her expressions of sympathy with Mrs. Garfield, and Mrs. Garfield's one published response to the Queen's enquiries was strikingly characterized both by good feeling and good taste. It was in its way a model composition, if we may say so of anything written under such circumstances. The way in which the Southern press has shared in the general anxiety and mourning is one of the most gratifying and hopeful incidents of the tragedy, and would, even if it stood alone, go far to warrant the assertion that President Garfield had not died in vain.

The fact that only one life—that of the Vice-President—stood between President Garfield and a deadlock in the Government excited some comment during the earlier days of the late President's illness. As time wore on and some encouragement was gained that he might recover, or that his life might be protracted till Congress should meet in regular session, the subject was dropped as by common consent. It now becomes a matter of much moment to know what would happen in the event of President Arthur's death. The succession *pro tempore* would devolve first upon the presiding officer of the Senate, if there were any such officer, and afterwards upon the Speaker of the House of Representatives. But it happens that there is no presiding officer of the Senate and no Speaker of the House. Consequently, in the event of the new President's death before these offices are filled, there would be no regular way of assembling Congress prior to the time fixed for its annual meeting. Possibly no harm would come of an absolute interregnum of a few weeks, but it is best not to take any chances of consequences which cannot now be foreseen. It has been observed in the discussion of the inability question that lawyers of reputation have taken the most widely diverse views, and there would probably be no greater accord upon the question now before us. Undoubtedly President Arthur and the existing Cabinet will give the subject their earliest attention. It is to be observed that an extra session of Congress is not necessary to provide for the emergency—an extra session of the Senate being sufficient for the present purpose.

We are very glad to hear that Sergeant Mason's offence is to be left to be dealt with by the military authorities. If they are wise they will not palter with it. They do not need to be lectured by civilians about the value of discipline: they know all about that. But there is one point on which they may possibly deceive themselves. The army is, for reasons which we shall not enter on here, an object of great dislike to a certain class of politicians, and the feeling is shared by a considerable portion of the public. Its best defence against this dislike has been, not the services it renders—for not one American in a thousand has any knowledge or experience of these services—but the respect inspired by the popular belief that the army was at least a fine military machine, and that the regulars could be counted on in all emergencies to obey orders. If this belief should be shaken, the army would become an object not simply of dislike but of contempt, and all classes would join in desiring its abolition. Sham soldiers are something that nobody will put up with. Nothing could do more to shake this belief than lenient treatment of such an offence as Sergeant Mason's. If a sergeant of the guard may take a pot-shot through a jail window at a prisoner, on the ground that he dislikes extremely the prisoner's offence, and get off easily because the public shares his dislike, it will be impossible hereafter to convince any one that the army can be relied on by the Government. Moreover, we would warn army officers that those civilians who are now loudest in applauding Mason and wishing him to escape punishment would be foremost also in despising and deriding a service in which such crimes as his could be committed with impunity. The business of the court-martial will, therefore, be to take care of the army, by making disobedience of orders terrible.

News has been coming in for some time past that Federal officers in Virginia are being removed for refusing to "act with Mahone and the Readjusters." At least three such cases are already reported, one that of a negro revenue officer, and the general expectation in Virginia is that others are to follow. Most of the "decapitated" officers are in the service of the Treasury Department, which is the more singular as Mr. Windom has been announced as one of the recent official converts to civil-service reform. What "acting with Mahone" is, we do not exactly understand, but we presume it means performing the usual political work in his interest. But whatever it means, there is no question that the use of Federal offices to coerce anybody either into supporting or opposing him is a gross abuse, and is none the less mischievous because it happens just now to be confined to one State. To turn a man out of his office because he refuses to support your candidate is as much corruption and "intimidation" as to turn him out of his house, or even to take him into the woods and give him a whipping. Many a man would probably sooner be whipped than lose the salary by which he supports his family. It cannot be too often repeated that in this matter the Government rests under even stronger moral obligations towards American polity than any private employer. A private employer who uses his power over his dependents to attack that fundamental principle of American polity, the freedom of the voter, can at least plead his right to do what he likes with his own. But a Government officer who uses his patronage to coerce his employees is not doing as he likes with his own; he is abusing a trust, and he is abusing it for the corruption and demoralization of the *cestui que trust*.

The good, if any, that may come out of Mahone's success has, for those who profess to be civil-service reformers, nothing to do with the duty in the premises of the head of a department. Reformers, and especially official reformers, cannot be reminded too often that they are not simply engaged in introducing a better system of appointments, but in introducing a system which public opinion will compel Democrats, when they come into power, to respect and uphold.

No system which is partial, that is, which means reform in Washington or New York and "spoils" in Virginia, which, while making the department clerk a real Government servant, treats the country collector or postmaster as a political "worker," can ever exact this Democratic respect and maintenance. Such occurrences as the anti-Mahone dismissals in Virginia will be used to excuse disregard or repudiation of the competitive system in the post-office and custom-house here, and the excuse to the great body of the ill-informed or indifferent will seem sufficient. The consequence will be that the first time there is a change of administration everything in the reform which in the least depends on discretion will disappear, and probably disappear amid much popular laughter.

At the dinner of the Aztec Club at Philadelphia last week General Grant nominated General Hancock for president of the society for life in place of General Robert Patterson deceased. We do not know what are the qualifications for this distinction, but we should suppose that a person who is said to have been accused by General Grant of using his military and official position to promote a swindle on the people of Louisiana by the issue of fraudulent levee bonds would not be the right man to receive the highest honors of the Aztecs. Perhaps General Grant is satisfied that General Hancock has been vindicated, and is determined to stand by him while "under fire."

The New United States Senator from Nebraska, Mr. Van Wyck, has been discoursing on various matters at a State fair in Chicago. He touched on civil-service reform among other things, and is reported by the telegraph as having expressed hostility to "the project of modern civil-service reformers," and preference for "business qualifications" over "competitive examinations." The Senator evidently belongs to the school of politicians, now nearly twenty years old, who have been from the beginning friendly to civil-service reform, but utterly opposed to any "particular measure" of reform. Many of our readers must remember the amusement which the antics of these gentlemen in the early Grant days used to excite, and their stern determination to have the service reformed, combined with utter distrust of any plan of reform which the wit of man could devise.

We venture to assert that no uninspired committee, commission or association, or solitary lawgiver or jurist, could draw up a "project" that would satisfy Mr. Van Wyck. He would always say that it looked well on paper, or was very good in "theory," but that when he thought of the way it would probably "work in practice" it made him shake all over with apprehension. Any plan of reform throws these men into a kind of daze, like that which overtook the Duke of Wellington when he read the Reform Bill, and asked plaintively how, if it passed, "the King's Government was to be carried on." Most of them have reached middle or elderly life under the spoils system, and it now seems to them not only as much a part of American polity as the Constitution itself, but as, in a certain sense, part of the order of Nature. They can conceive of the Constitution being amended, and know that it has been amended; but a change in the spoils system—that is, the bestowal of places in the United States service for other things than political "work," and the withdrawal of patronage from Senators—is to them simply unthinkable. It may seem to some that inasmuch as Mr. Van Wyck has expressed a liking for "business qualifications" as a test of fitness for office, we are in these last remarks doing his mind some injustice; but those who think so have not given as much attention to the Van Wyck type of mind as we have. When he talks of "business qualifications," he is simply phrasemongering. He does not propose to have any machinery for ascertaining a man's "business qualifications," to which any one who wished to enter the service could subject himself. What he means is that any man whom he, Mr. Van Wyck, selected for a vacancy in the public service would *ipso facto* possess the needed business qualifications.

Judge Devens of the Massachusetts Supreme Court has rendered a stage-right decision which shows that the judiciary of that State still cling to the local view of the subject which makes a distinction between pirating an unpublished play by memory and pirating it by stenography. Every American court, we believe, outside of Massachusetts, which has been called upon to deal with the subject has come to the conclusion that piracy is piracy, whether it is done by the ear and memory, or by the eye and hand. In England the modern American doctrine of stage-right in unpublished plays is apparently unknown, although it is itself founded on early English decisions. Fortunately the difference between the law in Massachusetts and the rest of the country merely affects dramatic property in Massachusetts. Stage-right is sold very much as patent-rights are, by localities—*i. e.*, a manager buys the right of the foreign author for a given city or number of cities. Boston managers, under the decisions of the Supreme Court, can steal plays as much as they please; but outside the jurisdiction of the Massachusetts courts dramatic property is the best protected literary property in existence.

During the five business days of the week preceding that on which the late President Garfield died the Wall Street markets were quiet. Only $144,500 foreign gold was received in this time, making the total since August 1 $14,658,981, against $21,165,745 received last year between August 1 and September 18. But simultaneously the Sub-Treasury paid out $2,064,843 more money than it took in. The New York banks, however, did not fully maintain their reserves, but are still carrying a surplus ($454,125) above the 25 per cent. limit required from the national banks. Money in London was easy for borrowers throughout the week, and the Bank of England made no change in its posted discount rate—4 per cent.; notwithstanding this the rates here for bills on London were less favorable for gold imports at New York at the close of the week than at the beginning—a circumstance which is chargeable rather to the "bull speculation" in this country in leading exportable articles than to the relative condition of the London and New York money markets. At the Stock Exchange U. S. bonds advanced a fraction for the 4 per cents, on the expectation that the Treasury would soon begin investing its surplus revenues in 3½ per cent. (extended 6 per cent.) bonds, so that the 4's would have a longer life; the latter declined nearer to the price at which the Government will redeem them. Railroad stocks, as a rule, advanced during the time named, in anticipation of a speedy settlement of the railroad war. On Tuesday, when the President's death was made known, this tendency of the stock market to advance was strengthened, the purchases having been made on the theory that an element of uncertainty had been eliminated from calculations, and that the situation, so far as the price of railroad stocks was concerned, was now more than ever under the control of the large speculators who manage some of the leading railroads, and that they would soon end the war. The Stock Exchange on Tuesday was opened for only two hours, and it was voted to close it entirely on the day of the funeral of the President. It is notable, but not surprising, so long had it been feared and expected, that his death caused no excitement or panic at the Stock Exchange. On the contrary, for reasons given, the speculative markets there were "steady" at advancing prices.

Governor Cornell has addressed a letter to the Mayor refusing to confirm the latter's removal of Messrs. French, Mason and Nichols. He says that from the papers submitted it appears that the removal proceedings were begun on April 2d last, and he admits that at that time the Mayor had full jurisdiction, which continued until chapter 677 of the laws of 1872 (imposing the duty of street-cleaning upon the Commissioners) was repealed. He then refers to the clause of the charter which provides that heads of departments may be removed "for cause," and says that this obviously means some "existing cause," while the only cause of removal given in the Mayor's certificate is the neglect of street-cleaning; though the law imposing this duty was repealed on May 26th last. He concludes that this repeal blotted out the old statute, and "cancelled all offences committed thereunder." He adds:

> "The Police Commissioners were charged with separate and distinct duties under two different laws—one statute requiring them to clean the streets, the other to maintain the peace and order of the city. Supposing, instead of being charged with the duty of cleaning the streets, as ex-officio officers, the same persons had held separate offices—one as Commissioners of Street-Cleaning, and the other as Police Commissioners—can it be pretended that under charges of neglect of duty as Street Commissioners they could be removed from the office of Police Commissioners? The cause alleged would only apply to the office whose duties were proven to have been neglected."

We called attention to the farcical character of this argument at the time when it was first produced by the ingenious counsel for the

commissioners on their trial. It is based entirely upon the technical legal doctrine that the repeal of a statute imposing duties, with penalties for their non-performance, wipes out all penal proceedings taken under it. In other words, the right to remove under the charter is a penal proceeding. There is no doubt about the legal rule, nor is there any less doubt of the complete absurdity of this application of it. The object of the charter provision was to enable the Mayor and Governor to remove heads of departments who proved themselves unfit for the discharge of the duties imposed upon them. Now these Commissioners did actually prove themselves so shamefully unfit that the Legislature was forced by prolonged public clamor on the subject to take the street-cleaning out of their hands and give it to some one else. If this proves anything, it proves that they are guilty, and if there is any doubt about it, the Mayor has found them guilty too. But because the Legislature, in order to take away this duty from them altogether, repealed the statutes imposing it upon them, it is not possible to do anything, and the case, according to the Governor, is precisely as if the Mayor had attempted to remove a Police Commissioner for neglecting to perform the duties of Street Commissioner—supposing the same person to hold both offices. If this is the law, most people will probably come to the conclusion, with Mr. Bumble, that "the law is an ass." Unfortunately, the view taken by the Court of Appeals of charter removals is not that they are summary proceedings to get rid of officials who neglect their duty, but are regular lawsuits between them and the Mayor for the right to their offices, in which they are entitled to plead under the code, to be represented by counsel, to introduce evidence, to take exceptions to evidence introduced against them, and above all to appeal to the courts at all stages of the proceeding for writs of relief against any acts on the part of the Mayor which the judges may consider contrary to precedent.

The Virginia canvass has entered on its bellicose stage, in a style which must recall old times to many prominent elderly citizens in that region. The Lewis family, one of whom is United States District Attorney, and who are acting with the Readjusters, have come into collision with the Wise family, who are for Democratic fulfilment of the public obligations. Both are old families, but their present representatives entertain, justifiably or unjustifiably, a very low opinion of each other. Mr. L. L. Lewis says that Mr. G. D. Wise is a "liar," a "scoundrel," and a "fool"; to which Mr. Peyton Wise, G. D.'s brother, replies "absolutely" and not "hypothetically" that Mr. Lewis is a "liar," a "coward," and also a "fool and blackguard," and under each of these general charges he submits specifications. They have since fought a bloodless duel, and the question comes up, as it always does in such cases, What effect has this on the charges? Were they eternally true, or only true till the fight, and are they now untrue?

The Irish National League Convention owes some of the attention it attracts to the fact that it is the first representative assemblage which has met since the repeal of the Convention Act, which long made all voluntary representative political associations illegal. It was this act, and this only, which prevented O'Connell from setting up an amateur Irish Parliament in Dublin, which would probably have secured more cheerful obedience than the legal Parliament in London. In fact, if all parties in Ireland could now agree to elect such a body, for the discussion of Irish affairs, it would test English respect for liberty of speech and association to the utmost, for it would put the Union in greater peril than it has yet encountered. But it might also, if conducted with temperance and moderation, powerfully influence English opinion in the direction of leaving Irish affairs in Parliament to Irish members.

The Convention resolved to try, or as they prefer to call it "test," the Gladstone Land Bill, but this is about all that it accomplished, although there was much speech-making. The organization is placed in a very awkward position by the fact that it is dependent for its funds almost wholly on the Irish in the United States. These American subscribers are desirous of a much more vigorous policy than the Irish at home, who would have to carry it out. It is much easier to pay another man a dollar for rising in revolt than to keep your money and rise yourself. The American-Irish demand not only the confiscation of the whole Irish soil, but the separation of the island from political union with Great Britain as the price of their subscriptions, and the Irish at home naturally feel that the job is too big a one at that price, so they decline to commit themselves formally to these extreme measures. Attempts to revive a national industry by taking vows to wear native cloth are among the melancholy comicalities of history, and there is one going on in Ireland just now which the Land Leaguers have tried to foil. But they are matching it with an attempt of their own which is equally childish, by taking vows not to wear English goods. No great political end was ever accomplished yet by putting on or leaving off particular brands of clothing, or forswearing particular kinds of victuals. These are among the cheap and nasty substitutes for the unyielding courage and unconquerable will which alone make revolutions.

Mr. Forster has definitively refused to release the Irish prisoners held under the Coercion Act, on the ground that if he did there would be fresh outrages. But as a matter of fact the Coercion Act and the arrests under it have not sensibly diminished the outrages, which to most minds is the same thing as saying that the Act has proved a failure, and that therefore, as long as it is enforced, it must prove a cause of irritation and furnish Parnell with ammunition in his attempts to dissuade the malcontents from accepting the Land Bill as a settlement. There is in the tenacity with which the Cabinet clings to the Coercion Act in spite of its ineffectiveness, a great deal of that devotion to principle irrespective of consequences which Burke described as so ridiculous in politics. The Coercion Act is now really enforced very much as the American taxation was by Lord North—not as something which will pacify Ireland, but as something which the English people owe to their own dignity and respectability. When there is trouble in Ireland most Englishmen feel that it is due to the rank of the Government to suspend the habeas corpus, and that if this does not quiet the Irish it is because they are so perverse.

The treatment of the "Fair Trade" movement in England by the Trades-Union Congress gives a tolerably good idea of the way the working classes generally, and especially the more intelligent portion of them, look at it. The "enthusiastic" cheers which are said to have greeted the president's mention of "the nonsense of protection," and the resolution turning out of the convention certain delegates, who had worked their way in with the view, it is said, of advocating the new gospel, shows how rash it was to treat the recent triumph of the Conservative candidate, Mr. Ackroyd, at Preston, as a sign that the English artisans were turning their backs on free trade. The very fact that "reciprocity" was to begin by taxes on food, ought to have been enough to settle the fate of the agitation in the eyes of everybody who knew how small is the proportion of the British population engaged in agriculture, and how large the proportion whose industry is absolutely dependent on the cheapness of food. A protectionist movement which proposed to do nothing for the farmers, might have some chance of favor in the manufacturing districts, but the farmers are the very class which the Fair Traders are compelled to affect most concern about in order to make any show of political strength. Curiously enough, however, they do not even seem to hold the farmers, for at a meeting of the Committee of the Farmers' Alliance in London a resolution has been passed condemning the reciprocity movement as likely to be, if successful, injurious to agriculture. The truth is that one of the great objects of its promoters is to stave off or divert attention from a radical treatment of the land question in England.

The announcement that the French Government has agreed to prolong the present Treaty of Commerce for three months in order to allow time for further negotiations for its renewal, makes its renewal almost certain. There is little doubt now that M. Tirard's peremptory attitude was due to his belief that the English would give way on the question of specific duties sooner than risk a total breakdown in the negotiations. But the more the matter was debated in France the more serious the crisis seemed for French trade, which is much more dependent on England than English trade is on France. Moreover, the more the matter was debated in England, the more hostility to any renewal of the Treaty was revealed. The Free Traders, pure and simple, began to oppose it because it was a violation of their principles to make any treaty at all, and the Fair Traders opposed it because it did not exact enough from France in return for the concessions made to her.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT GARFIELD died on Monday evening, at about half-past 10 o'clock. His death was sudden, though the physicians must have been expecting it to occur at any time during the past week. The despatches of Mr. Blaine and latterly Mr. MacVeagh to Mr. Lowell have been the record of a case slowly but surely proceeding to a fatal termination. The official bulletins have been in the main, so far as non-professional readers were concerned, either non-committal or incomprehensible; while the daily talks of Dr. Bliss with the reporters have during most of the time been those of a physician rather confident of recovery. The history of the case during the last week was as follows: On Wednesday the bulletins announced that the President had passed the night comfortably, sleeping sufficiently, and that he was "bright and cheerful" in the morning. He sat up in an easy chair for an hour and a half in the afternoon, and was "not fatigued by the transfer or change of position." Notwithstanding a rise in temperature towards the end of the day, Mr. MacVeagh at its close was able to telegraph to London that if he had gained nothing, he had probably lost nothing either. On Thursday he was again reported as having had a comfortable night, and the physicians added: "In reviewing the case of the President since his arrival at Long Branch, it may be said that in spite of the various septic accidents which have for several weeks and do still complicate his case, he has certainly not retrograded, but on the contrary has made some progress towards convalescence." In Mr. MacVeagh's despatch he was described as being "still very weak," and "as this weakness is due to the condition of the blood, while it continues grave anxiety must also continue." On Friday it was evident that the symptoms were growing worse instead of better, although the utmost extent to which the physicians were willing to go was that the President's condition could not be considered as "improved." The next day showed, however, that a serious crisis was at hand. At half-past eleven in the morning the President had a severe chill which lasted for half an hour, and in the evening Mr. MacVeagh telegraphed to Mr. Lowell that the situation was "now probably more grave and critical than at any time heretofore." On Sunday he began to sink slowly, and in the evening he had another chill. The fever which followed lasted until midnight, and during this time his pulse ran up from 112 to 130. On Monday morning he had another chill. During the day he slept much of the time, and at six o'clock P. M. the official bulletin recorded the figures which the public had come to regard as "normal." At about ten o'clock he fell into a quiet sleep, but awoke in a few minutes complaining of a severe pain in the region of the heart. He almost immediately became unconscious, and died at 10:35.

The members of the Cabinet who were on the ground at once telegraphed to the Vice-President, informing him of the death of the President, and advising him to take the oath of office without delay. Mr. Arthur received this despatch at his house in this city about midnight, but had heard the news before it came. It is reported as having affected him deeply, his servant telling the reporters that he was so overcome that he did not dare to speak to him. His first visitors after the news reached him were District Attorney Rollins, Elihu Root, jr., Police Commissioner Stephen B. French, Dr. P. C. Van Wyck, and ex-Alderman "Barney" Biglin. Judge Brady was sent for, and at about two o'clock the oath of office was administered.

The death of the President has at once brought into prominence among the Democratic politicians the subject of the organization of the Senate, which the retirement of Senators Conkling and Platt, the death of Senator Burnside, and the removal of the Vice-President has thrown completely into their hands. According to the Washington *Evening Star*, a good deal of correspondence has been going on recently with regard to this subject, which has shown a general unanimity of sentiment. The canvassing has developed the fact that all the Democratic Senators are of opinion that the Senate should be organized in the interests of their party first, and the vacancies filled by the swearing in of new Senators afterwards. Under these circumstances, the first step taken will be the election of a President *pro tem.* Senator Bayard is, perhaps, the most prominent candidate for the place.

There has been some talk during the past week of the supposed difficulty of trying Guiteau for murder in Washington should the President die at Long Branch. All doubt on the subject has, however, been removed by discovery of a New Jersey statute providing for cases where the murderer attacks his victim outside the State and the latter dies within it. If the law of the District of Columbia, as reported, requires the murder to be complete within the District to give jurisdiction to its courts, this statute enables the authorities at Washington to surrender Guiteau to those of New Jersey, for trial in the latter State. Sergeant Mason has written a rambling letter addressed to all persons who hate assassins, in which he insists that he did no more than was right in shooting at Guiteau. It seems to be undecided whether he will be proceeded against first before a civil or a military tribunal, but it is said that General Hancock has decided to detail a special court-martial for the purpose of trying him. Since the President's death the reports of meetings of masked men determined to lynch Guiteau are again put in circulation.

Commissioner Raum, of the Internal Revenue Bureau, announced last week that the tax on bank deposits of one-half of one per cent. must be imposed upon all deposits remaining in a bank after the close of business, and that checks drawn the same day and settled at the Clearing House the next day cannot be deducted. The law imposing the tax was passed sixteen years since, and the question was then settled by an official ruling the other way—that taxable deposits were those remaining after checks payable during the same period of time had been deducted; that is, the balance which the bank had the use of, and might lend and receive interest on. The Commissioner has also made a decision requiring private bankers to return as deposits all money borrowed by them to be repaid at a future day, with or without interest, whether secured by collaterals or not; and also all sums left with them as margins on purchases of stocks, produce, cotton, etc.; and that for purposes of taxation brokers who receive money in this way are to be considered as bankers. This ruling, reported in Circular No. 237 of the Internal Revenue Office, was made in the case of a bank organized under a State law, which had borrowed money for its own use on a pledge of United States bonds. A tax on this borrowed money, considered as a deposit, was levied, amounting to $8,350. After a hearing, however, on the subject of the bank tax before the Commissioner, he decided on Wednesday that the banks are entitled to deduct from the amount of their daily deposits the checks received from the Clearing House on the following day; the practice having heretofore been to deduct the checks sent to the Clearing House. The gross amount of the tax collected will not be changed by this; but the question whether money borrowed on call by bankers and brokers is taxable as a deposit is held under advisement.

The report of the Board of Visitors appointed by the President to be present at the June examination of the Military Academy at West Point, has been submitted to the Secretary of War. The position and rank of the officers were found in accordance with the law, with the one exception that the command at West Point constitutes a military department of which the Academy is a part, and the Commanding General is the Superintendent, instead of being in charge of a colonel of engineers. In the opinion of the Board there never has been at the Academy a more competent academic board than at present. A rigid system of discipline has been found necessary, attempts to relax the discipline having herctofore resulted disastrously. Imprisonment does not seem compatible with the character of the cadets, and should be followed by dismissal. Hazing, in spite of rigid discipline, still continues to some extent. The amount of money allowed for the support of the cadets was found ample for the purpose, and it is recommended that, with a few exceptions, no other funds be allowed in the possession of the student. Fault is found with the custom of charging the cadets for their clothing more than it costs, in order to raise funds for buildings and the Quartermaster's salary. Cadets are also unjustly taxed to meet laundry accounts. Better arrangements for lighting and for ventilation of bedrooms are needed, as well as an officer to look after the quality and the mode of serving the food. Of the new candidates, no less than forty-nine out of one hundred and eighteen were rejected. The erection of new buildings for cavalry barracks and for the Board of Visitors is recommended. A minority report signed by three members of the board was also submitted, which, among other things, recommends the establishment of a preparatory school and the years seventeen and nineteen instead of seventeen and twenty-two as the maximum and minimum age for the admission of cadets to the academy.

Since the decision of the Supreme Court of Minnesota invalidating the Constitutional amendment of 1860 and the adjustment act of last winter, Mr. Selah Chamberlain, the principal holder of the railroad bonds in question, has renewed his proposition for a settlement in the spirit and terms of that act—that is, he will take half the debt in full payment in the shape of new 30-year bonds at 5 per cent. interest, provided immediate legislation be had to sanction it. Governor Pillsbury accordingly issued on Monday a proclamation reciting the above facts, and calling an extra session of the Legislature to meet on Oct. 11. He states that the court decided "that full and final power and authority to provide for the settlement of said bonds is vested in the Legislature"; that more than $2,000,000 of the whole issue of $2,275,000 are already deposited with the State auditor for exchange; that accepting the settlement offered will effect a saving of $300,000; and that to wait for the regular session of the Legislature would involve repudiation, as most of the bonds mature before that body could make provision for them.

The complete returns of the special election held in the Second Congressional district in Maine for a successor to Representative Frye, now United States Senator, show that ex-Governor Dingley, the Republican candidate, polled 11,007 votes, against 5,554 for the Greenback, 214 for the Democratic, and 66 for the Prohibition candidates respectively. His majority, 5,173, is to be compared with 3,000, the largest ever before cast by the Republicans in that district. We should have called this a political "straw," but the *Tribune* says it by no means ought to be "passed over as a small affair," and that "the result is in reality of great significance, and has a direct bearing as showing the drift of public sentiment upon the canvass in New York and Ohio."

An active canvass is going on for delegates to the Republican State Convention, the adherents of Mr. Conkling making a very energetic contest, in which they are led by the ex-Senator in person. In Utica he has openly engaged in "fixing" the caucuses for delegates, of whom it is said he fully means to be one. It is understood that Comptroller Wadsworth and State Treasurer Wendell are

not candidates for renomination, Mr. Wadsworth being desirous of succeeding State Senator E. G. Lapham as Representative at Washington.

At the opening of the Court of Sessions on Tuesday, the 13th inst., it appeared that the reason why the District Attorney was backward in bringing Mr. Sessions to trial for legislative bribery was his inability to secure Speaker Sharpe for a witness. When Gen. Sharpe was first wanted he was reported out of the State, and when he returned he was vainly sought for in a hotel in this city of which he seems to have enjoyed the privileges without ostentation.

The Governor has refused to approve the Mayor's act in removing Police Commissioners French, Mason, and Nichols for their failure to clean the streets. In his letter to Mr. Grace on the subject, he says that he thinks the Mayor's right to remove for this neglect was taken away by the repeal of the law which imposed the duty of cleaning the streets upon the Commissioners. He refers to the clause in the charter relating to removals of heads of departments, and says that they can obviously only be removed for some actually existing cause. The only cause mentioned in the Mayor's certificate is a neglect of duty imposed by Chapter 677 of the Laws of 1872, repealed by the Legislature after the commencement of proceedings by the Mayor. This repeal, the Governor thinks, blotted out the old statute and all proceedings under it.

The case of the alleged bandit Randazzo, or, as he calls himself, Rebello, has been decided by Commissioner Osborn in favor of the Italian Government. The case turned mainly on the question of identity, and the Commissioner in his decision admits that there is a mystery as to who the man is, but thinks that the prisoner ought to have cleared this up himself. It is said that the case will be carried up to the Secretary of State, many witnesses having testified in favor of the man that he was in New Orleans when the crimes for which the Commissioner has decided that he must be surrendered were committed. His counsel have insisted throughout that the question of identity ought to be tried in New Orleans, where he had undoubtedly lived for many years. The representatives of the Italian Government contended, on the other hand, that owing to the danger of intimidation of witnesses, etc., the examination could not be carried on properly there, and Mr. Osborn decided the point in their favor.

The opening of the Germania Theatre in its new house (formerly Wallack's) on Broadway on Thursday evening was a notable theatrical event. Hitherto the German drama here has, as it were, lurked in side streets or in unfashionable thoroughfares. Now the attempt is made, which merits success, to attract the support of the English-speaking public as well as of the German.

On Tuesday of last week the militia were called out by Governor McEnery on account of the labor troubles in New Orleans, and martial law was proclaimed there. But these extraordinary measures were revoked on Thursday, the peace of the city having been assured by them.

Prof. S. A. King, accompanied by Mr. Upton of the Signal Service and five newspaper reporters, started on a balloon voyage eastward from Minneapolis on Sept. 12 for the purpose of making meteorological and other observations. After a favorable start the wind died out, leaving the party for a while hovering over the Mississippi. When night came on the anchor was thrown out. The storm on the following day did so much damage to the balloon that the plan of making another ascension had to be abandoned.

In spite of sporadic relief by scanty rain, the general droughty condition of the country continues, and large areas at the North, in California, and in Canada are still being devastated by fires. Governor Jerome, of Michigan, issued on Friday an appeal to the people of the United States for relief, stating that in the four counties chiefly afflicted 200 persons have perished by burning and suffocation, and that it is estimated that 15,000 men, women, and children are shelterless, destitute, and suffering. They need clothing, the commonest utensils, tools, seed, etc. In all the great cities subscriptions have been opened, and the gifts in money have been liberal. Here the amount reached on Monday upwards of $50,000.

To complete the curiosity of this season's weather, snow was reported along the line of the Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific Railroad as far west as Omaha at the close of last week.

Mrs. Susan May Bonaparte, widow of the late Jerome Napoleon Bonaparte, the son of the First Consul's brother Jerome by his American wife Elizabeth Patterson, died at Baltimore on Thursday morning, at the age of sixty-nine. One of her sons is married to a granddaughter of Daniel Webster. General Burnside's remains were conveyed on Thursday, with a military escort, from Bristol to Providence, where they lay in state at the city hall. The burial took place on Saturday, amid a great public demonstration.

FOREIGN.

The Irish Land League Convention met in Dublin on Thursday. About one thousand delegates were present. Mr. Parnell presided and delivered an address, in which he advised the farmers to distrust the Land Act, and not to appeal to the Land Courts until a number of test cases prepared by the League had been submitted. A number of resolutions were passed calling for national self-government, and denouncing coercion and "landlordism," urging the condition of the laborers on the consideration of the farmers, and calling for the bestowal in the promised County Government Boards of the power of compulsory purchase of land for the laborer's use.

The Committee of the Farmers' Alliance meeting in London has passed resolutions condemnatory of the Fair-Trade movement. The Trades-Union Congress has also made a demonstration against it by applause of passages in the President's address, and by the expulsion from the hall of persons accused of holding Fair-Trade opinions. The agitation still continues in England. Mr. James Lowther in a speech declares that it does not aim at a tax on grain.

The French Government has officially announced that it will prolong the operations of the existing Treaty of Commerce with England for three months to allow time for further negotiations. The British Commissioners accordingly went over to Paris on Monday.

The Lancashire cotton spinners have determined to break up the Liverpool cotton corners by working on half-time or stopping. Thirteen cotton mills at Ashton-under-Lyne, representing 600,000 spindles, closed on Saturday for one week. The Trades-Union Congress has passed resolutions calling on Parliament for legislation prohibiting commercial corners.

There has been much excitement among sporting men over the winning of the St. Leger, at the Doncaster races, by Iroquois, the American horse which won the Derby. He was ridden by Archer, the same jockey who rode him at the Derby, and is the tenth winner of the former race who has within a hundred years won the other also.

The meetings of the Methodist Ecumenical Conference in London have continued. Among the practices condemned in strong terms were dancing, theatre-going, the sale of liquor on Sundays, the opium trade, and the habit of sending Methodist children to Romish schools. The higher education of the young was insisted upon. In a session devoted to a discussion of the press, religious and secular, Bishop Holland accused the religious papers of being too narrow-minded. The American press was praised for its willingness to report church services. Mr. Marshall advocated the establishing of a well-endowed church newspaper, which would have an influence equal to that of a great university. A paper was read by the Rev. J. Green on Methodist missionary work abroad. The Templar Mission and Anti-Slavery Society, on Sept. 15, gave a public breakfast in honor of the colored bishops and other representatives of African Methodist churches in America, as a demonstration in favor of the principle of the social equality of the white and colored races.

The situation at Tunis is considered grave by the European press. The Arabs cut the aqueduct from Zaghouan which supplies Tunis with water, and it was repaired and is protected with difficulty. General Corréard's advance on Khairouan, a town of the interior, considered sacred by the Arabs, has led him into a difficult country, where the desultory attacks of the enemy are very annoying and water scarce. The Bey finds his position so disagreeable that he threatens to abdicate. Great sensation has been created in France by a circular of the Minister of War directing the strength of all battalions sent to Africa to be raised to 600 by calling in the reserves and furloughed men. This is in direct breach of a promise made by the Cabinet before the election, and excites alarm about the prospects of the campaign in Africa. The disapproval of the circular by the other Ministers is reported to have led to a strong debate and the offer of General Farre's resignation. French relations with Tripoli are said to be again friendly.

The German National Liberals, after a vain attempt to frame a common programme for all shades of Liberals, have issued an electoral manifesto declaring that they will unite with the other groups in opposing the Conservative and clerical combination, and that they will resist attacks on the Legislature and the Constitution, as well as excessive taxation and dubious experiments in social politics. In an article in Moritz Busch's *Grenzboten*, one of the papers inspired by Bismarck, a violent attack has been made on the Jews, and the Chancellor's policy extolled. The writer of the article, who professes to be a German residing abroad, says the Jews originated the cry about Bismarck's "going to Canossa," as well as the anti-Semitic movement, for which they alone are to blame. In Russia a decree has been issued, in which the "pernicious" influence of the Jews on the masses is alluded to. On Sept. 12 four hundred Russian Jews passed through Germany on their way to America.

The Egyptian mutineers summoned 150 notables from the country districts, and on their arrival Sherif Pasha undertook the formation of a ministry, and received the complete submission of the army, which the notables guaranteed. England announced her intention to act in concert with France in the beginning of the troubles, which Sherif Pasha's ministry is not considered likely to bring to an end. The English press demand the disbandment or reduction of the Egyptian army and the use of Turkish troops to maintain order. Turkey is said to be unwilling to interfere. Considerable anxiety still exists among the foreign representatives at Cairo.

At Venice on Thursday the King and Queen of Italy formally opened the Geographical Congress, and M. de Lesseps delivered the inaugural address. A day or two later it adopted a resolution highly approving the canal through the Isthmus of Corinth projected by General Türr; but the cable is silent as to the ground of its approval.

The international chess tournament, which opened at Berlin on August 28, was concluded on the 17th instant. Mr. Blackburne, of London, took the first prize, as the winner of fourteen games. The American representative, Mr. Mason, of New York, won nine and a-half games.

TUESDAY, September 20, 1881.

PRESIDENT GARFIELD'S DEATH.

PRESIDENT GARFIELD'S death has been so long expected, and has twice already seemed even to the doctors so very near, that there has been no shock of surprise in it. It would have seemed very terrible if it had followed close on the assassin's shot, as Lincoln's did. Since then his prolonged struggle for life and the patience and heroism with which he bore it have excited an interest so pathetic that neither political anger nor alarm had any place in it. During the greater part of his illness people almost forgot that he was either a President or a statesman in the sympathy and admiration excited by the manly and simple way in which he met a very cruel fate. The popular imagination was touched in an unusual degree by the circumstances of his career. It was universally recognized as a typically American career. He had risen from nothing to various high places, had filled them all adequately, and without either self-distrust or undue elation. The simplicity, too, with which he revealed how largely his political success contributed to his domestic happiness, by such incidents as his kissing his wife and mother immediately after being sworn in on Inauguration Day, struck a chord in the popular heart which Presidents do not often reach. It must have seemed to hundreds of thousands a sort of seal of success of which they had often dreamed as among the possibilities of their own lives, and have brought the man who had realized the dream before their eyes as very near to them, and as dear to them as a stranger could well be. The attacks on him after his inauguration, therefore, missed their mark, because they assailed one for whom the public had already contracted a certain tenderness, in whose good intentions it had come to believe thoroughly, and whom it was not only prepared to forgive a good deal, but to like all the better for having to be forgiven.

All these holds on the popular affection were strengthened by the immense drafts which his long illness made on popular pity and hopefulness. The anxiety about his fate, in which the whole civilized world shared in an unprecedented way, in spreading through the country grew stronger through sympathy. It is impossible to feel but slightly what every one is feeling, and at last it seemed as if the President's sick bed stood in every house, and every family in the land were watching around it. There has been something very touching about this—something which, had he survived, must have constituted an experience such as no other man has perhaps ever had, and which must in his own eyes have worked a kind of consecration of all his talents and faculties. He would unquestionably have felt that all excuse for errors and shortcomings was thenceforward denied him; that with no human being could he thereafter share, in never so small degree, the responsibility which had been put upon him. No observer of public opinion during the last three months can have failed to be struck, too, with what may be called the retrospective action of the popular sorrow. It not simply clothed President Garfield with every kind of brilliant and consoling promise for the future, but it credited him with all the performance in the past which the most partial affection could have desired for him. People were unconsciously determined that he should not only be hereafter worthy of their love, but that there should be no day in his past career when he had not fully deserved it. His assassination, in fact, made him the martyr of a cause which we believe, had he lived, he would have served faithfully, but towards which his attitude in the first months of his administration had been disappointing.

He will now always remain one of the saints of American story, without a spot on the whiteness of his garments, one of the few Presidents who have left the White House amid universal reverence and regret. The last touch was given to the pathos of his fate by his dying on the anniversary of what was perhaps after all the greatest day of his career, that of the battle of Chickamauga. It was a hard-fought field in which he did good and conspicuous service and which he must have remembered with the purest pleasure of a man's life: the pleasure of knowing that on its most solemn and exacting occasion he had played his part well.

The task which the successor of President Garfield has before him is no enviable one. While it is the highest ambition of our public men to be Presidents of the United States, scarcely any of them would wish to mount the Presidential chair under circumstances such as surround General Arthur. We are sure that he did not wish it. But it is important that the peculiar nature of the difficulties confronting him should be well appreciated by him as well as by the country. The Presidential chair was made vacant by the hand of an assassin who, whatever his real motives may have been, pretended at least to serve a political end by his crime. No candid observer of the currents of popular sentiment will deny that this view of the meaning of the murderous act was accepted by the instinct of the masses far more generally, and with deeper feeling, than might have been concluded from the temperate tone of the press. However abhorrent Guiteau's crime may have been to the man to whom it opened the way to the Presidency—and it certainly was as abhorrent to him as to other good citizens—every official act of his administration will be liable to be watched with peculiar jealousy to ascertain how far Guiteau's supposed political programme goes into effect, and President Arthur will therefore find himself exposed to a kind of criticism which not one of his predecessors has had to meet.

President Garfield's administration, with which General Arthur was in disaccord, was in some respects open to legitimate criticism. But the profound sympathy called forth by Guiteau's deed, and by the long suffering of the President, have effaced those vulnerable points from the popular mind and left there only an ideal conception of President Garfield's intentions and of what he would have done had he lived. He might possibly not have been able to realize that ideal himself, but it stands in the popular mind as firmly as if he had given the most certain guarantee of its accomplishment. This popular conception President Arthur will have to meet at every step. The measures and the general tone of his administration will be apt to be judged not altogether upon their own independent merits, but according to the Garfield standard as it stands grand but undefined in the popular mind.

This tendency is not unlikely to be strengthened by another result naturally following President Garfield's death. His personal popularity, which was owing not only to his merits as a statesman but in a great measure to the winning heartiness of his nature, has by the touching spectacle of his sufferings been turned into a sort of blood relationship with the whole American people. His party especially became bound to him not merely by the ordinary bond of interest and party loyalty, but by sentimental attachment. He had become the head of his party probably in a larger sense than any American President has been. President Arthur cannot hope to fill that place; in fact, no man could fill it under existing circumstances. What was considered the natural, legitimate chieftainship of the Republican party is therefore vacant, and that feeling of party allegiance among leaders and followers which ordinarily is one of the strongest elements of cohesion, and which, had President Garfield lived, would have been peculiarly powerful, will in the existing situation of things be apt to show itself less potent than it has been for many years in the support of the Administration.

To-day President Arthur receives from all parts of the country assurances of good-will and of sincere wishes for his success. These assurances come from journals and from men of all political parties and shades of opinion, who esteem the welfare of the country a higher consideration than the fortunes or fate of any man, and we have no doubt they are sincerely meant. Every good citizen shares the feeling which inspires them, and will be heartily glad to find in President Arthur's administration much to praise and support, and little to condemn and oppose. Nevertheless, it must be remembered that these expressions of sympathy and good-will are given in advance, and that President Arthur's ultimate relations with the people will depend entirely upon the manner in which he understands and performs the duties of his high office.

THE FRENCH IN NORTH AFRICA.

THE South African question, which occupied the attention of Europe so much in the last two years of Lord Beaconsfield's Ministry, already seems a small matter compared to the North African question, which is looming up on the horizon, and apparently promises before it is settled to set Europe by the ears. Curiously enough, too, it is undoubtedly the outcome of the long-standing Franco-German quarrel, and may before it is over clear the German sky of the cloud of French revenge, which has since 1871 cast such a deep shadow on German industry and finance. In other words, France has, to all outward appearance, found the attack on Tunis a trap into which she has been led by the desire of restoring her military prestige at a cheap rate. The French Ministry seem in an evil hour to have come to the conclusion that the Re-

public could not afford a policy of peace or recuperation any longer; that something must be done to satisfy the electors that Republican government was not too *épicier*, and that the easiest thing to do to show that the Republic could fight was to attack Tunis. This scheme was undoubtedly running through the heads of the French envoys at the Berlin Conference, for they sounded Lord Salisbury about it and got his acquiescence. It is all but certain that they sounded Prince Bismarck, too, and if they did they were certainly encouraged to strike hard and strike quickly. It was the thing of all things which best suited him. In no possible place could it gratify him so much to see the new French army actively employed as in Africa. There it was sure to find plenty of work about which he would not have to trouble his head; and when he found M. Waddington boasting of having obtained a foothold in Egypt on equal terms with England, and had made sure that the African bee had once more got into the French bonnet, he must have smoked one of the happiest pipes of these latter years.

Everything has gone as he must have wished. France, with this scheme in her head, broke off from the European concert by her refusal to coerce the Turks into obedience to the Berlin Treaty and by her subsequent abandonment of the cause of the Greeks. She then plunged into the attack on Tunis, with excuses so flimsy and so soon exploded that the expedition from the first moment excited English hostility and distrust. The only thing that could have compensated for this hostility and distrust was such rapid and easy success as would have dazzled the eyes of the French people and satisfied them that the Republic knew how to do great things at small cost. But this compensation has been denied them. They were lucky in having all the successes of the expedition—the capture of Tabarca, Biserta, and Kef, and the reduction of the Bey to the condition of a French vassal—before the late elections. But since then everything has gone wrong. The whole African coast, from Egypt to Morocco, has apparently risen or is ready to rise on them, and the defence of Sfax, for which the Arabs fought from house to house with an obstinacy worthy of the old and great days of Islam, would have shown that the insurgents were thoroughly in earnest, even if their horsemen had not begun to carry fire and sword along the whole frontier. The reduction of Tunis was supposed, when undertaken, to be an affair of ten thousand men and $2,500,000. Sixty thousand men have already been despatched to Africa, or are on the way, and $20,000,000 have been spent or called for, and the end is nowhere in sight. The military prospect, as seen by the Minister of War, General Farre, is so serious that it annoys his colleagues, and there is talk of his resigning. It is impossible to catch the bands who are ravaging the settled districts, because they are mounted and have Sahara behind them; and in Sahara all the men in France could not at this season capture or dislodge them without seizing long lines of far-off wells, which serve Arab purposes by furnishing water occasionally to a passing tribe or band, but which could not support for a month a European garrison. Nor is the trouble confined to the attacks of the nomads, or of the malcontent Tunisians or Tripolitans. There is much apprehension of a general rising in Algeria, where the French colonists are still but a handful, living in isolated villages and farms in the midst of swarms of Mussulmans who have accepted French rule when it seemed inevitable, but have never swallowed the belief that it was interminable. What adds to the complication is the beginning of fresh trouble in Egypt at the moment when the whole French resources would not be too much to maintain a bold front in the division of the Egyptian spoil, and when the meeting of the three Emperors seems to make it most desirable that France should seem formidable and worth courting.

If the stories which are now told by all those who profess to be acquainted with what is going on in the Mohammedan religious world be true, or even half true, the French troubles are, however, by no means simply the result of Tunisian or Tripolitan dislike of foreign aggression. They are the result of the Mussulman revival which has now for twelve years been spreading among the Arabs, and of which vague accounts have been during all that period reaching the West. This revival is, or is represented to be, a result of the rapid decline of the Sultan not only in power but in prestige, owing to his governing his dominions under Christian dictation. His spiritual headship or Caliphate of Islam was originally, it is now said, a usurpation, is not two centuries old, was never acquiesced in by the Arabs, and has, through Turkish ignorance and sloth, been fatal, or very injurious, to religious progress. In other words, the true faith has been used and abused simply to build up the temporal power of the Sultan; and even if this was tolerable when the Sultan was able to defend it and propagate it, it is intolerable now that he has become a mere tool of the Giaour monarchs and only holds his dominions on sufferance. There is therefore a strong and growing movement among the Arabs in favor of setting up a real Caliph of the race to which the Prophet belonged, and to which it owed its earliest and greatest successes. No great increase of religious fervor in any sect takes place without a terrible increase of hostility to unbelievers, and in the Mussulman world this hostility, which occupies even in ordinary times a foremost place among the virtues of the faithful, during a revival glows with a white heat. The French are unlucky in having just now to bear the brunt of it. They would probably, owing to their position in Algeria, have experienced more or less trouble from it even if they were in their most peaceable and least aggressive mood. Their dropping down into Tunis, however, at this most unpropitious moment makes them to the Mussulmans of Arabia the representatives of all that is most odious and dangerous to the true faith.

THE COPYRIGHT TREATY.

ACCORDING to recent cable despatches, a member of a well-known firm of London publishers has come out against the proposed copyright treaty on the ground that it is "utterly selfish." His principal objection is the three months' clause, which, it has been evident from the first, is the most serious point of disagreement among the negotiating parties. By this clause an English author is given three months in which to make his bargain with the American publisher after first publication in England, and if he does not do so his book becomes at the expiration of this period public property, or, to speak more accurately, the property of any one who desires to steal it.

The explanation of the insertion of this clause in the treaty is that if no time is fixed the foreign author may prefer not to take out any American copyright at all, which would be a truly terrible state of affairs. The notion that any English writer is likely to restrict himself to an English copyright when he knows that he may increase his profits tenfold by getting one in this country, is one which it must have required considerable ingenuity to conceive; but apart from this, and assuming—as we may fairly do, in view of the general expressions of approval which the treaty as a whole has thus far met, both from authors and publishers—that there is no opposition to the insertion of a clause requiring a copyright to be taken out within *some* definite period, the question what the period should be still remains open. The objections to fixing it at three months are very serious. Writers of established reputation, whose books always find a ready sale in our market—novelists, historians, poets, and so on, whose names are already well known in this country—would find no difficulty in such a clause, because they would probably under the treaty always be able to complete negotiations with an American publisher in advance of publication in either country, so that their books would be simultaneously put on the American and the English market. But new and unknown writers would be in a different position. If they published first in England, there would be only a very small chance that they could in three months succeed in finding an American publisher ready to take their book; and to expect any American publisher to take the risk of the publication of books by new and unknown foreigners before their work has been tested in the home market, is of course absurd. The result would be that they would be driven, as they now are, to take any English publisher they could find, and that unless the book had an immediate and unusual success, the publishers in this country would simply hold off until the expiration of the three months' period, and then they too would do just as they do now—that is, they would proceed to republish without paying any copyright. In other words, with regard to this large class of books, the treaty would leave the matter just where it is now.

The period fixed by the treaty should obviously be long enough to test the value of the copyright in the home market. For this purpose a year is not at all too much. In the course of a year after publication the immediate money value of any new book is ascertained. The successful author can generally, before that time has expired, say to the American publisher: I have a thing for sale here which the public desire to buy. What will you give me for the right to sell it?

The present copyright agitation differs from all which have preceded it in having the support of the leading publishers of this country. But it should not be overlooked that the reason it has their support is not because they have become suddenly impressed with the immorality of international piracy, but because the "courtesy of the trade" has broken down, and they find that the legal possession of foreign copyrights is the only thing which will protect them from the "cheap and nasty" pirates who republish for a mere song whatever the others announce that they are going to republish for an ordinary price. In this sense it is true that their support of the treaty is "selfish:" they are at work to protect their own trade and not that of authors. They cannot do this without incidentally benefiting authors, but it should not be forgotten that this is merely an incidental matter with them, and their proceedings with regard to the treaty will bear a good deal of watching on the part of those interested in international copyright as a question of property. We are not likely to get international copyright at all if we do not get it by treaty, nor at any future time if we do not get it now. The small pirates who are now publishing cheap editions of foreign books are really supplying the enemies of international copyright with the one argument they needed for the support of piracy—the demonstrated fact that the public is now supplied by means of piracy with a literature which is good and cheap at the same time. It used to be the favorite argument of the great publishers that an international copyright meant "dear books." Now they find that this is just what they want too.

AN AMERICAN IN HUNGARY.

PRAGUE, August 30, 1881.

I HAVE just returned from attending, in a semi-official capacity, a "consistory," part ecclesiastical and part educational, held at Kolosvár, the old capital of Transylvania; and, as this is an opportunity that has befallen no American before me, one or two points of observation may not be unwelcome. Indeed, since Mr. Brace's memorable visit in 1850, I cannot learn that any American has been before me in Eastern Hungary, excepting a young theologian, Mr. Morison, who visited the country in 1873. The name itself, Kolosvár (which you find "Klausenburg" on your maps), is a token of the remoteness of this Magyar population and its self-chosen isolation from the common field of European culture. With a certain felicity not quite accidental, they have taken English as their medium of communication with European thought, and circumstances which I need not dwell on led to my appointment as delegate to their educational congress. This was composed of about fifty official members, clerical and lay, most of them representatives of the Székelys, or Szeklers, of Eastern Transylvania, Magyars of the Magyars, who claim to have held their "seat"* in these highlands since the great invasion of Attila.

This race may be described as a sort of peasant nobility or aristocracy. It is the same that held that outpost of Europe for ten centuries, and broke the tide of many a Turkish and Tartar invasion. They were also the backbone of Kossuth's republic in 1849, and to look at them, one may well believe that they made a formidable power in that year of reaction, holding even Russia, it is said, at bay: a sturdy and solid set of men, such as one seldom sees, most of them full-bearded, and the country squires and parsons wearing their high, well-polished boots after the fashion of a century ago.

The proceedings of the council of course were all in the Magyar, or Hungarian, tongue; but understanding that till within fifty years the debates of the Hungarian Parliament were held in Latin, I prepared my own brief address in that language, and was, as I was told, readily understood by every one present. The presiding bishop's allusion to the presence of an American delegate had been greeted with a hearty chorus of *Éljen!**—an enthusiasm which I need not be shy to acknowledge, as it means that American sympathy in 1849 is one of their liveliest and tenderest recollections to-day. I spoke of this sympathy at the public dinner that followed, in words which were at once rendered into Hungarian by a friend, and met an increased warmth and cordiality of response.

These sturdy men hold that "much meat and much wine" are true conditions of living—an experiment which was most generously compelled upon me during my stay. It would be difficult to make the wealth of their hospitality understood to one who has not encountered it; or the singular readiness and energy of their eloquence. Every man seemed equally ready—no hesitation or embarrassing consciousness; and I listened that day to several hours' uninterrupted flow of speech in a tongue not a syllable of which suggests any likeness to anything that the ordinary student of languages has ever learned. Two monosyllables (which stand for wine and beer) besides the dissyllables I have quoted, are all that I can promptly recall, after the floods of Magyar discourse to which I listened without weariness during those days, besides a play, admirably represented on the local stage. The language may be described as very fluent and very energetic. It is delivered by the speakers with frequent pauses that turn it into a sort of rhythm. I have heard that it is very easily and rapidly improvised in verse. Its modulations now and then recall German or French. Once I seemed to hear a Spanish word or two; but I was unable to liken the speech, as a whole, to anything I had ever heard. Its vocables suggest absolutely nothing to the Indo-Germanic comparative philologist, and its study may well be believed to be very difficult. I find it hard to decide whether it is a greater misfortune for this splendid population of eight millions to be thus cut off by an impassable barrier from the common field, or good fortune that its race-quality and flavor should ripen—as it must rapidly, under the great impulse it is receiving—without alteration from outside. A race of great pride and self-sufficieney, any contribution it makes to the common stock must be purely its own. They claim, even now, that theirs are recognized as the best lyrists and romancers.

I was surprised at the unembarrassed freedom of expression as to the past and present history of the country. Of course the native Hungarians crave political independence; and their feeling as to the Eastern Question, which touches them so nearly, may perhaps be best explained as an irritated alarm at the hint of a Slavic power in the southeast which should swamp their dear-bought nationality under a flood of what is immeasurably inferior. At present, however, they accept with extreme and loyal content their standing in the twin-empire. The Emperor is personally esteemed, and in Buda-Pesth I was told more than once of the tears which the Empress shed for Deák. This magnificent capital, astonishing in its new growth as Chicago, as stately as Vienna, and as noble for situation as Edinburgh, is not greatly out of the range of common European travel. It is reached without effort by the Danube, and should be better known than it is as the splendid type and pride of Hungarian nationality. Kolosvár is an important station midway between Buda-Pesth and Bucharest, and this line must become one of the most frequented of Eastern travel.

The clean and careful culture of the Hungarian grain-fields contrasts strangely with the poverty in the look of the peasantry and their squalid huts. But in this I speak of Central Hungary, before its wide prairie is cut sharply by the remarkable mountain portion of Transylvania. To speak of the races one encounters, especially towards the east—the gaunt Wallachs, the music-loving and swarthy gypsies, and the "everlasting Jew"—would lead me too far from my object, which is little more than to illustrate, by one touch of personal experience, the existence and the singular interest of that unique population whose acquaintance it was my good fortune to make.

* *Szék* is Magyar for "seat."

* In sound almost exactly "alien," but with the *l* often quite suppressed.

GALIANI'S LETTERS.

PARIS, August 30.

THE Abbé Galiani is well forgotten in our age, though he had once a sort of popularity in France. He was the correspondent of Madame d'Épinay for twenty years; he was a friend and correspondent of Madame Necker, of Madame Geoffrin, of Diderot, of Grimm, of D'Alembert, of D'Holbach. He was one of the minor stars in the rich constellation of genius and wit which may be called the constellation of the philosophers. There have been already two editions of his letters, both very incomplete, both published in 1818, one by Barbier (librarian of Napoleon I. and of Louis XVIII.) and Salfi (an Italian who continued Ginguené's 'Literary History of Italy'); the other by a literary pirate named Serieys, who had procured copies of the autographs, and brought out his edition simultaneously with the other. Both editions, however, are very defective. A new edition, which is the work of MM. Lucien Perey and Gaston Maugras, has been made with great care, and constitutes really an original work.

"Galiani," says Sainte-Beuve, "is one of the most vivacious, original, and gay figures of the eighteenth century." He was born December 2, 1728, in the kingdom of Naples, at Chieti; he was an apt student, and, as his uncle was archbishop, Galiani entered the church. He made himself known at a very early age by an essay on 'Money.' Economic questions were very much the fashion in the second part of the eighteenth century, but were little understood, as the science of political economy was still in its infancy. Galiani became a member of all the academies of Italy. At the age of thirty he was appointed Secretary of the Neapolitan Embassy in Paris. He was delighted to be sent to a place which he called "the *café* of Europe," and which was then the intellectual capital of the world. He was, however, disappointed at first, as many foreigners must be, who find themselves plunged for the first time in the ocean of what I might call Parisian indifference. Galiani was an *enfante gâté*, a pet, in Naples; at Paris he was at first nothing. He writes in this melancholy vein:

"This country seems to be made for an obscure and forgotten life; each man has only his own caprice for a law. . . . The bad air, the detestable water, everything does violence to my Neapolitan temperament; but the most cruel violence of all is done constantly to my good sense and to my nature. . . . Tuesday last I was presented to the Duc de Choiseul, who con-

descended to look at me for one second. I suppose he does not examine affairs as he did me; it would be a little superficial. . . . Documents which in other countries are framed to elucidate serious matters are here bare facts, of such a disgusting frivolity that you feel ashamed not only to note them, but to know them. And why should you know them? It would be better to try to count the waves of the sea than to try to know all the follies which occupy a superficial and passionate people, full of fire and of levity. . . . I am disabused, and see that I am not made for Paris. My dress, my features, my way of thinking, my natural defects, will always render me insupportable to the French and to myself."

This was the first impression. Gleichen and Grimm presented the lively little Italian secretary to Madame d'Épinay, to Madame Geoffrin, to the Duchesse de Choiseul, to Holbach. Galiani had much natural *esprit*, and he soon found himself adopted. We shortly find him at home at Madame d'Épinay's, at her country house "de la Chevrette," thus depicted by Diderot:

"We were in the sad and splendid salon of the Chevrette, and formed, with our groups, a rather agreeable picture. Towards the window opening on the garden Grimm was sitting for his portrait. Madame d'Épinay was leaning on the back of a painter's chair; an artist, sitting on a *placet* [what we call now a *pouf*, a seat without a back], drew his profile with a pencil. . . . M. de Saint-Lambert read in a corner the last pamphlet, which I have sent you. I was playing chess with Madame d'Houdetot. The good old Madame Desclavelles, the mother of Madame d'Épinay, had about her all her grandchildren, and spoke with them and their tutor. . . . The Abbé Galiani entered, and with the *gentil abbé* came gayety, imagination, wit, folly, pleasantry, all that makes one forget the sorrows of life."

Diderot speaks of Galiani's wit as inexhaustible. Madame d'Épinay became his intimate friend. She needed friends, as she was much neglected by M. d'Épinay, "a man," says Diderot, "who has eaten two millions without saying a clever thing, and without doing a kind thing." Galiani was one of the happy few who dined with the wise Madame Geoffrin. Grimm much admired the natural good sense which was concealed under Galiani's originality; for this is the striking note of the correspondence of the Italian abbé—his judgment is excellent, he is not led away by the love of paradox. He quickly perceived the defects and the absurdities of the philosophers. He remained himself; though not a sectarian, he lived with sectarians. "I cannot surrender myself to anybody," said he, "not even to the devil." It would not be very interesting to explain at length how Galiani fell into disgrace with the Duc de Choiseul, and why he was suddenly recalled to Naples in 1769. His recall was a great blow; it now seemed to him that he could no longer live away from Paris—from this choice society which, with all its defects and failings and absurdities, had taken complete possession of him.

Naples had only three or four salons: the English Ambassador Hamilton, Lady Orford, the Princess Belmonte, the Princess Ferolite kept open house. The manners of Naples were an exaggeration of the worst French manners. There was some taste, some respect for appearances, some decorum in the lightest French society: the ladies of Naples were perfectly cynical; they spoke of their lovers as naturally as of their husbands. "I heard a curious conversation," says Madame de Saussure in her journal, "at the Princess Ferolite's. She called the Duchess Castel-Pagano by the name of her lover, Count Vorbrand [Wurmbrand was the Austrian Minister]. The Duchess answered: 'How odd! I often have such distractions; I have called Count Vorbrand all the morning Count Kaunitz' [Count Kaunitz was her lover before Vorbrand]." One day Madame de Saussure goes to the Princess Belmonte's and sees a great procession. "What was a second spectacle for me was the joy, the agitation of the ladies who were on the balcony, and whom I see almost every day at the houses of the Princesses Ferolite and Belmonte, when they recognized in the procession some of their friends or lovers: 'Ecco il tuo innamorato! Ecco il mio! Ah! come è bello, figlio mio, gioja mia! Dio lo benedica!'"

Galiani consoled himself with collecting, and writing letters. He made a splendid museum of cameos, of medals, of bronzes, of pictures, of arms. His library was chosen with great taste. He became Minister of the Crown Domains, and had besides many other functions. His house was open to all foreigners of distinction. It is a curious fact that he always preserved serious tastes, though he liked the most frivolous society. He wrote a treatise on 'The Instincts and Habitual Tastes of Man'; another on 'The Duties of Neutral Princes towards Belligerent Princes, and the Duties of Belligerents towards Neutrals.' His correspondence has, here and there, pages which might be called short essays. He constantly refers to his books on the commerce in grain, a favorite subject with him; he was, in fact, one of the fathers of political economy.

It is impossible to analyze a correspondence such as that of Galiani and Madame d'Épinay; it is a perpetual exchange, not only of news, but also of ideas. Here is a good specimen of Galiani's best manner:

"I confess that Voltaire's chapter on *curiosity* is magnificent, sublime, novel, and true. I confess that he is right in everything; he has only forgotten to say that curiosity is a passion, or, if you like, a sensation, which can only be excited when we feel ourselves in a perfect state of security. The least danger takes away all our curiosity, and we at once only care about ourselves and our individuality. You see in this fact the origin of all our plays. Give safe places to all the spectators, and then exhibit before them a great risk or danger. The safer the spectator feels, the greater the risk he sees, the more he will be interested, and there you have the key to all tragic art, comedy, epic poem, etc. You must present very embarrassed people to other people who are not in the least embarrassed. This is so true that you give some comfort to the spectator. If it rained in the boxes, if the sun shone on the amphitheatre, the play would be abandoned. This is also why in every poem, dramatic, epic, etc., the versification must be happy, the language natural, the diction pure. Every bad, obscure verse is like a draught of air in your boxes. Thus, curiosity is a consequence of idleness, of security, of peace; the more happy a nation is, the more curious it is. Paris is the capital of curiosity; Lisbon, Naples, Constantinople have less curiosity. . . .

"Another reflection which Voltaire ought to have made is this: It is a sensation peculiar to man—the animals have not even the idea of it. . . . You can frighten beasts; you cannot make them curious. And, as I have said, fright is the very opposite of curiosity. The curious man is more man than another man. Newton was so curious that he enquired into the causes of the motion of the moon, of the tides, etc. The most curious people is therefore richer in men than any other. This is the best eulogy that can be passed on the *badauds* of Paris."

As Galiani himself observes to Madame d'Épinay, this is a profound thought, and you will find in it a corner of the human heart: man can be defined "a curious animal." Such essays are apt to become tedious where they are carried too far and are too long; but the hand of Galiani never becomes heavy, though he was an economist. He had essentially acquired the Parisian art of never exhausting a subject.

Poor Galiani was never able to return to Paris. He was loaded with honors by his sovereign, but also with duties. "I live not, having nobody with whom I could live." He died on the 30th of October, 1787, aged only fifty-eight years. He was buried in the Chiesa dei Celestini a Chiaja. Voltaire wrote, on his 'Dialogues on the Commerce in Grain,' to Diderot: "It seems as if Plato and Molière had worked together to write this book"; and in another letter Voltaire says to D'Argental: "Never has any one been more gayly in the right." Galiani was, indeed, a curious mixture of Neapolitan gayety and of Italian wisdom. His letters will be read with much interest by those who are very familiar with the French society of the eighteenth century.

Notes.

Lee & Shepard, Boston, announce for the coming season Mrs. Browning's 'He Giveth His Beloved Sleep,' illustrated from designs by Miss L. B. Humphrey; E. R. Locke's dialect poem 'Hannah Jane,' freely illustrated; two juvenile picture-books—'Our Little Ones,' edited by Oliver Optic, and 'The Four-Footed Lovers,' by Frank Albertson; and 'Ralegh,' in Mr. Geo. M. Towle's series of "Heroes of History."——A. C. Armstrong & Son's list also caters to youthful tastes in 'The May-Blossom; or, the Princess and her People,' and 'Shaksperian Tales in Verse,' both adorned with colored prints; and in 'Peter Trawl,' by the late W. H. G. Kingston. They will publish besides: 'A Picturesque Tour in Picturesque Lands,' a holiday gift-book with many woodcuts; 'The Nature and Function of Art, more especially of Architecture,' by Leopold Eidlitz; 'History of Religion in England,' by John Stoughton, D.D.; 'Apologetics,' by the late Prof. Henry B. Smith; more volumes in the series called "Heroes of Christian History"; and finally, a 'Primer of United States History.'——'The Land of Gold,' a tale of '49, by "a well-known Californian," is in the press of A. Williams & Co., Boston.——Harper & Bros. have prepared a new edition of W. Hamilton Gibson's 'Camp-Life; or, the Tricks of Trapping and Trap-Making.'——'Cat's Cradle,' an original rhyme and picture-book for children, with colored illustrations, will be shortly published by R. Worthington.——Reprints of Hill's 'Veterinary Pathology,' Fleming's 'Veterinary Surgery,' and Armatage's 'Veterinarian's Pocket Remembrancer' are promised by William R. Jenkins.

—A General Index to the ninety-six volumes of the *Eclectic Magazine* is the latest of the Q. P. Index series (Bangor, Me.). Typographically it is one of the most open and attractive, but as those who consult it cannot be expected to master the numerous signs from * to ‡‡, it is a pity a running key was not given at the foot of each page, as in the pronouncing dictionaries. The Index to *Scribner's* will be ready by Oct. 15.

——The eighteenth volume of Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society is to an uncommon degree occupied with biographical notices of deceased members, and these by no means all of recent date. This deprives the contents of some of their freshness, though the notices are generally entertaining. In that of the late George Sumner, Prof. G. W. Greene institutes an interesting comparison between him and his brother the Senator. In other respects the general reader will find his taste best consulted by Prof. Young's amusing account of the orations for the degree of M.A. at Harvard from 1655 to 1791; the controversy over Puritans and Quakers between Dr. Ellis and Mr. Whittier; and Mr. Winthrop's paper on the John Hampden portrait at the White House. Mr. Winthrop exposes once more the erroneous tradition that Hampden came over to Plymouth Colony in 1622 for a brief visit. Yet the mistake has been propagated anew in Munro's 'History of Bristol, R. I.,' published this year (p. 31). The illustrations are chiefly portraits, but there is an

exceptionally valuable early print of Harvard College, in dingy fac-simile, though we believe it has already been published, somewhat freshened up, in the 'Harvard Book.'——The Curator of the Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology laments in his fourteenth annual report the loss of a number of co-workers, together with the cessation of explorations on behalf of the Museum for want of funds. His list of acquisitions during the year ought to prompt the liberal to endow the institution effectively. ——The somewhat belated report of Commissioner J. D. Hague and his assistant Mr. G. F. Becker on the mining exhibit of the Paris Exposition of 1878 possesses many points of interest even for laymen. Particularly is this true of the chapters on Portugal and Greece. At the model Saint Domingo mines the remains of Roman workings for three centuries after Augustus, at those of Laurium the remains of Greek, are described with sympathetic detail. At the latter, modern companies are now smelting the ancient slag and waste, whose volume indicates a lead and silver product of $345,000,000 in a period of seven centuries, active and inactive.——The *Bookseller* announces the intention of the Messrs. Longman to issue some of their "first-class copyright books" at popular prices, as is evidenced by their selling Mrs. Brassey's 'Voyage in the *Sunbeam*,' with all its woodcuts, for sixpence. The movement seems an important one.——Smith, Elder & Co. have in press the journals and letters of Caroline Fox, the intimate friend of Wordsworth, Coleridge, Carlyle, Sterling, Whewell, Bunsen, etc.——In the *School Bulletin and N. Y. State Educational Journal* for September, apropos of some expurgated American editions of Shakspere, it is incidentally mentioned that the writer lately "visited a certain Union school in this State" and found the teacher innocently engaged in using George Sand's 'Elle et Lui' as a text-book for his class of "four or five young ladies." He wanted "something standard," supposed anything of George Sand's to be, and took the work whose catalogue price suited him. He was disabused before the readings had gone too far.

—An original kind of journal began publication in Berlin on September 1. It is called *Die Tägliche Rundschau: Zeitung für Nichtpolitiker*, and is edited by Friedrich Bodenstedt, assisted by a large number of literary men and scholars. We suppose no daily was ever before started with the avowed object of eschewing politics, or treating such subjects but incidentally. The editor of this *Daily Review*, however, is convinced that there are "hundreds of thousands of newspaper readers who are tired of the squabbles of parties and sects, and long for a journal which shall coloriessly report the simple facts, without discussion or leading articles, and, while entirely ignoring religious questions, shall keep the reader fully informed of the progress making in all other spheres of human activity. It will give an equal amount of space to purely entertaining matter." This, moreover, is by no means the only point in which the *Rundschau* will be superior to previously existing journals. In contrast to these, "which have lived but a single day, the *Rundschau* will not grow old 'twixt dawn and eve, but will be a storehouse of literary treasures, so as daily to supply the place of a weekly and monthly journal." The price is as attractive as the prospectus, being but $4 per annum.

—Edward Strahan's article on Frederick A. Bridgman in the October *Harper's* unites rare literary excellence with sound criticism, and displays personal intimacy with and regard for its subject without abandonment of private judgment. These qualities make it the leading article of the number; but we must add that nowhere will one find sketched more graphically, in so few words, the traits of atelier life in Paris, and that several fine woodcuts after Bridgman's paintings exhibit well the versatility of this skilful artist. Edward Strahan pronounces his archæological work a misdirection of talent, like their common master's, Gérôme, at seeing one of whose Oriental pieces lately an Arab "spat on the ground in token of utter rejection." So, thinks our writer, "the implacable Clio, wherever in the immensity she is, looks upon the Egyptians and Assyrians of our best restorers, and spits ambrosially upon the ground." A theme of a very different order, "Cotton and its Kingdom," is treated forcibly and with knowledge by Mr. Henry W. Grady. He shows how the cotton-growing area has been enlarged by the use of fertilizers, so that the "area of low production" is moving away from the Atlantic States. He also traces the splitting up of the great plantations at the South after 1867, and points to signs of a counter-movement—"a sure though gradual rebunching of the small farms into large estates, and a tendency towards the re-establishment of a land-holding oligarchy." This has arisen from the system of credits of which we heard so much a few years ago, but which we incline to think has begun to correct itself more than the reader is left to infer. Northern capital, as Mr. Grady notes, has gone into the South to an enormous extent, and is competing with the usurers directly and indirectly; more and more that section is supporting itself by provisions of its own growth; factories are rapidly multiplying, and "during the present summer, the hottest ever known, not a Southern mill has stopped for one day or hour on account of the heat"—which cannot be said of the North. This disproves for the hundredth time the old climatic excuse for slave labor. Mr. Grady remarks the easily-explained fact that though cotton is the main crop with which the negro is concerned, "it does not enter into his social life, catch his sentiment, or furnish the occasion for any of his pleasures. . . . None of those tuneful melodies with which he beguiles his work or gladdens his playtime acknowledge cotton as a subject or an incident." One asks if it will always be so, when the memory of the taskmaster shall have faded away. Those of our readers who enjoyed a year ago the series of letters on "English Journalism" published in the *Nation* will be glad to return to them with the aid of the portraits and other illustrations to Mr. Joseph Hatton's first paper on "Journalistic London," and of the additional gossip he is able to furnish. He disclaims, perhaps unnecessarily, all intention to be formal and orderly in the presentation of his subject, and, beginning with Fleet Street and its adjacent courts, contrives to say more of *Punch* and the *Daily News* than of any other papers. Incidentally he controverts the *Nation* correspondent's estimate of the provincial press, as based on their relations to Mr. Gladstone. Portraits of Mr. F. C. Burnand, now the editor of *Punch*, and of Messrs. J. R. Robinson, F. H. Hill, Archibald Forbes, and Justin McCarthy, of the *Daily News*, will be new to most of *Harper's* American subscribers. The charming illustrations of "A Berkshire Road," by Mr. Wm. H. Gibson, and of "Adirondack Days," by Mr. Henry Vane, are fresher than their titles. The Editor, in his Easy Chair, has some proper comments on the social rehabilitation of Baker Pasha.

—One is reminded by renewed mention of the humble but devoted bequest of the late Dr. S. Habel to the Smithsonian Institution, in Prof. Baird's report for 1880, how singularly this beneficent agency has been overlooked by liberal givers ever since its foundation. Fifteen hundred dollars, yielding six per cent., is, we believe, the total endowment apart from Smithson's bequest and the Government subventions; and accordingly ninety dollars is solemnly dedicated to the annual prosecution of ethnological and archæological research. The sum of $850,000 is needed to raise the endowment to $1,000,000. Meantime, however, the National Museum has been built to Prof. Baird's entire satisfaction, at a cost of "less than $3 per square foot of ground floor," or "about six cents per cubic foot of capacity." The Centennial and other collections in the Armory Building are being transferred to the Museum, but the Armory will still be used as a sort of storage and lumber room, particularly in connection with the U. S. Fish Commission. The cost of the international exchanges of which the Smithsonian is the medium has grown with the business itself till now it is nearly $10,000 a year, and Congress is to be approached with a request for a special appropriation to meet this invaluable outlay. In the enumeration of accessions to the Museum it is remarked that Mr. F. A. Ober's collection makes the "series of West Indian birds by far the most complete of any in existence." The same can nearly be said of Mr. W. G. Binney's addition by gift to the American Land Shells. Of exceptional interest when repaired and put in good shape will be the late George Catlin's collection of Indian paintings and customs. The archives of the Centennial Commission of 1876 are to be deposited in the Museum. Probably no other institution in the world observes the practice of the Smithsonian (established by Prof. Henry) of stereotyping or electrotyping everything published by it. The wisdom of this from a commercial point of view has often been discussed, but that nothing should be allowed to get out of print seems a sound principle when "the diffusion of knowledge" is the sole object.

—The Census Office has recently published, in a bulletin, the statistics of the production of copper in the United States. Thirteen of the States and Territories are producers of this metal, the principal facts in regard to which are as follows:

	Product lbs. of Copper.	*Value of Product.*
Michigan	45,830,262	$7,979,232
Maine	85,080	10,115
Maryland	164,640	1,200
Missouri	230,717	25,730
North Carolina	1,940,000	350,000
Pennsylvania	476,508	5,030
Tennessee	Not reported.	
Vermont	2,647,894	403,495
Wisconsin	18,087	1,549
Colorado, Arizona, Idaho, California	5,704,460	Not rep't'd

The total production reported was 56,855,648 pounds of ingot copper. To this is to be added the small production of Tennessee, in which State 294 tons of copper ore were mined. Of the total production of the country not less than four-fifths was derived from the upper peninsula of Michigan. One county of Michigan, Houghton, produced more than 70 per cent. of the total product, and, it may be added, a very large proportion of this came from one highly successful mine, the "Calumet and Hecla." Professor Pumpelly shows that the net income from all copper-mining property is very nearly two and one-half millions of dollars, a proportion of the total capital invested of nearly eight per cent. It requires 62 cents capital to produce a pound of copper yearly. Of this capital 77 4-10 per cent. is in land, 18 39-100 per cent. is in the plant, and 4 21-100 per cent. is required to carry the current expenses. About one-third of the value of the product is paid as wages and one-sixth for supplies. Since 1870 the product has increased 116 41-100 per cent. in weight and 70 25-100 in value. The number of employees has increased only 13

7-10 per cent., while the capital has increased 303 per cent. The gain in production per hand has increased 90 per cent., owing to the great yield of the Calumet and Hecla mine, which controls, in large measure, all these averages, and to the more extended use of machinery and high explosives.

—From another bulletin by Prof. Pumpelly it appears that iron ore is mined in twenty-three of the States. The total number of "establishments" (by which term is presumably meant distinct mines) is given as 801, having a *possible* annual output estimated at 18,395,233 tons. The actual product of these mines during the census year was but little over one-half this amount, namely, 7,006,417 tons. To this is to be added what Professor Pumpelly terms the "irregular product," that is, the ore mined by private parties in a small way, which amounts to a little over a million tons, making a total product of 8,022,398 tons (the ton of 2,000 pounds being everywhere understood), estimated to be worth at the place of production $22,975,345. Of the iron-producing States, Pennsylvania takes the lead, with 2,173,415 tons, followed by Michigan with 1,834,712, and New York with 1,239,959 tons. New Jersey produced 799,545 and Ohio 604,241 tons. Virginia, with a capacity for an annual product of 1,404,440 tons, produced but 170,099. The mines which produce ore for the manufacture of Bessemer steel come nearest to the possible product. It is worthy of note that the ores of Michigan are valued at a much higher rate than those of Pennsylvania, or, indeed, of any large-producing State, on account of the higher percentage of iron which they contain, and this in spite of their greater distance from a market. Further, the total production exceeds by more than 300,000 tons the amount reported as consumed in iron-manufacturing establishments, by Mr. Swank, in Bulletin No. 94. In view of the fact that there was a scarcity of iron ore in 1879, and that, consequently, many new mines were opened whose stocks failed to reach consumers before 1880, the two results are easily to be reconciled. A great advance over the returns for 1870 is in general apparent. In the number of establishments there is a gain of 90 per cent.; of employees, 109 per cent.; of product, 106 per cent. The discrepancy between the last two items is due to the fact already noted, that many new mines were opened in 1873-80 which were not immediately productive. The amount of wages paid has increased 28 per cent., that paid for material 120 per cent., and the total capital, 249 per cent. The value per ton of product has decreased between 25 and 26 per cent., but the total value has increased 74 per cent. In conclusion Professor Pumpelly says: "Viewing the iron lands returned as a whole, they are capable of keeping up the present annual yield for an indefinite time." Furthermore, taken as a whole, the present valuations of iron property are very far from extravagant, though the period during which they were made, the summer of 1880, was a time of great activity in this interest.

—It may be worth the while of weather-observers to note the approximate coincidence between the interval separating the two dark days in New England (May 19, 1780, and September 6, 1881) and nine times the sunspot cycle of eleven years.

—Sir John Lubbock's address at the Jubilee Meeting of the British Association, at York, on August 31, consisted of a summary of the principal scientific discoveries of the last half century, with especial reference to those with which the Association was directly concerned. The report of the lecture takes up six closely printed columns of the London *Times*; and some idea of the comprehensiveness of modern science is given by the fact that the lecturer was nevertheless obliged at the end to regret that there were almost innumerable researches of great interest and importance during the last fifty years to which he had been unable to refer. In no department, perhaps, has so complete a revolution taken place as in biology, which, indeed, was not accepted as a term for a distinct section of the society until 1866, and only after much controversy, although it has been rightly said that at the present day biology proper and its subsection anthropology form, as a rule, the most interesting meetings of the series connected with the Association. Considering Sir John's own useful labors in biology, it was but natural that he should begin with it. In a few dozen lines he gives an admirable synopsis of the Darwinian theory. The four axioms on which he says the theory is based are worth quoting. They are: (1) That no two animals or plants in nature are identical in all respects; (2) that the offspring tend to inherit the peculiarities of their parents; (3) that of those which come into existence only a small number reach maturity; (4) that those which are, on the whole, best adapted to the circumstances in which they are placed are most likely to leave descendants. The grand result of the establishment of these principles has been to show that the differences in form and color and organization of living beings all have a *raison d'être*, being conditioned by surrounding circumstances, and another still grander result has been the classification of organic beings not on principles of external resemblance but on community of descent, "the hidden bond which naturalists had been unconsciously seeking." In embryology, which "may almost be said to have been created in the last half century," the great law has been established that the history of the individual is a mere recapitulation of the history of the race, or, as the lecturer puts it, "just as the contents and sequence of the rocks teach us the past history of the earth, so is the gradual development of the species indicated by the structure of the embryo and its developmental changes." From data furnished by Dr. Günther, the conclusion is drawn that as regards descriptive biology by far the greater number of species now recorded have been named and described within the last half century. The total number of animals described up to 1831 was only 70,000, while now the number is at least 320,000. But even now the British Museum contains some 12,000 species of insects alone which have not yet been described, and Sir John thinks that there is not a single species which would not repay the devotion of a life-time.

—After brief allusion to Darwin's discoveries relating to the devices which flowers resort to in order to secure the visits of insects for purposes of cross-fertilization, Sir John passes on to the theory of spontaneous generation, which received so much attention at the recent medical congress at London, in connection with the germ theory of diseases. Coming to anthropology, on which he is himself an authority, he expresses the opinion that we have no satisfactory evidence as yet of man's presence in pre-glacial or even miocene times, although he thinks it well established that man inhabited Europe during the milder periods of the glacial epoch. In geology the theory of violent periodical convulsions has been superseded by Lyell's doctrine that the forces in operation at the present day suffice to account for all the changes of the past; and as regards the physical character of the earth, the theory that it consists of a fluid interior covered by a thin crust has yielded to the evidence that it is a solid body. It has also been clearly shown that most of the great Swiss and Italian lakes occupy true basins scooped by glacier-ice out of the solid rock, and that in the main volcanic cones have acquired their form by the accumulations of lava and ashes ejected from one or more craters. Astronomers have discovered the planet Neptune, and increased the number of known minor planets from four to two hundred and twenty, and shown that our earth is but a fraction of one out of at least seventy-five million worlds. Comte predicted in 1842 that man would never succeed in finding out the chemical composition and mineralogical structure of the heavenly bodies, but spectrum analysis has within a few years accomplished this supposed impossibility, "showing how unsafe it is to limit the possibilities of science." As to the future of our solar system, Helmholtz has shown that the sun's heat is due to his continued shrinking, and will continue, with little if any diminution, for several million years. Some seventeen millions of years hence, however, the sun will probably be dead and cold, like so many other worlds the existence of which has been demonstrated by astronomers. Helmholtz's discoveries and Gladstone and Geiger's speculations about the color-sense and various phenomena of color are also referred to in poetic language, after which the various applications made of electricity in the telegraph, telephone, microphone, etc., are briefly mentioned. In economics "the establishment of the doctrine of free trade as a scientific truth falls within the period under review." In education much yet remains to be done in behalf of science. Indeed, Sir John regards the present system of education in England as "little less than a national misfortune."

—Upwards of two years ago we noticed the first cartographical fruits of the topographical survey of Attica undertaken by the Imperial German Institute at Athens ('Atlas von Athen,' Berlin, D. Reimer). The two maps of the city and its suburbs contained in that beautiful work—one showing the ancient city superimposed on the modern—are now reissued as part of the general map of Attica, with some modifications and with a complete indication of ancient remains down to this year's discoveries. The enlarged map of S. W. Athens contained in the 'Atlas' is omitted, but instead we have on the original scale of 1:12500 two maps of the Peiræus Peninsula, ancient and modern, quite equal in delicacy and fineness of execution to those of the capital proper. The illustrative text, in quarto shape, which accompanies the folio, dwells chiefly upon the archæology of the port, and is well supplied with diagrams. If Bismarck wishes to enjoy it, he must reconcile himself to the Roman print. From the same house we have received a new map of Middle Italy, showing, on a scale of a quarter of an inch to the mile, the topography of that interesting region with a fulness and authority never before approached except in the divers sources to which Dr. Kiepert has resorted, some of which, notably the latest Italian Government surveys, are not yet accessible to the public. Special attention has been paid to indicating the heights of mountains and the sites, even if ruined, of ancient towns and cities, of which the classical names everywhere accompany the modern; while the old Roman roads are laid down in red as far as they are known or can be conjectured. An enlarged side-map exhibits the environs of Rome. The whole work is calculated to be of the greatest utility to scholars and tourists, and, being in four plates, can be conveniently carried, either unmounted or mounted and between quarto covers. Like the one above mentioned, it deserves to be in every higher institution of learning. We ought to add that the district embraced includes ancient Latium, Campania, Samnium, with the southern parts of Etruria

and the country of the Sabini, and that the nomenclature is wholly Italian and Latin.

—Still another map of Dr. Kiepert's, that of the Southeastern European Peninsula, is completed by a third sheet just issued by Reimer. It shows the southern half of Greece and the Archipelago, together with Crete and part of Asia Minor; while a side-map gives in detail the Hellespont and vicinity, including, of course, the sites of Hissarlik and Bunarbashi. Finally, a large share of middle Europe is embraced in a fine political wall-map of Germany, in nine sheets, revised by Richard Kiepert. Copenhagen and part of Sweden on the north; Norwich and Ipswich, Rouen and Chartres and Bourges on the west; Modena on the south; and Temesvár on the east, indicate its generous scope. Taken together, the foregoing publications exhibit in greater or less detail nearly the whole of the Continent eastward and southward from the Rhone and the Seine as far as the meridian of the Bosphorus.

—Fräulein Brandt, of Berlin, and Herr Winkelmann, of Hamburg, have already gone to Bayreuth to study their rôles of *Kundry* and *Parsifal* under Wagner's personal instruction. To prevent any repetition of the accidents which occurred in 1876, and also to give more variety, Frau Materna, of Vienna, and Herr Vogel, of Munich, as well as Herr Jäger and Frau Vogel, will alternate with Brandt and Winkelmann in these parts. The other parts have been assigned to Scaria, Siehr, Reichmann, Beck, Schelper, and Hill. Lilli Lehmann, who sang and swam the rôle of the first Rhine daughter at Bayreuth, and is now a leading vocalist at the Berlin Opera, has requested the manager, Herr von Hülsen, to accept her resignation. The reason assigned for this step is that she feels offended because the rôle of *Dinorah* has been taken from her and assigned to Frl. Tagliani. According to the usual custom Hülsen will now lay the matter before the Emperor, who will refuse to accept her resignation. This will be interpreted as a compliment by Lilli, and in consequence all parties will be satisfied and happy. Next summer Frl. Lehmann will again make her appearance at Bayreuth, this time as leader of the flower-girls.

THE SOUTH OF TO-DAY.

The South of To-day. A Series of Letters. New York *Tribune* Extra No. 81, August, 1881.

We desire to call the special attention of our readers to these letters upon the South which have appeared from time to time since the beginning of the year in the *Tribune*, and are now reproduced in a "*Tribune* Extra." They are a contribution of exceptional importance to our knowledge of the actual conditions of the Southern States. The author went to the South for the purpose of observing the state of society in all classes and in all regions, and of reporting his observations. With these objects he has visited during the present year every Southern State, has associated familiarly with men of every condition, has seen life both in town and country, on the plantation and in the factory, has examined schools and prisons, and given attention to whatever might enable him to form a comprehensive and correct judgment concerning the social, political, and industrial conditions and tendencies of the Southern community. The extent and variety of his observations give to them, however, the least part of their value. No one can read these letters without speedily discovering that their writer possesses unusual qualifications as an observer; that he unites quick and well-trained faculties with sound and balanced judgment; that he is well equipped for his work by previous study of social questions and reflection upon them; that his candor is conspicuous, and that he is free from any partisan prejudice or personal prepossessions which might warp the statement of his conclusions. We have seldom read a record of travels that gave evidence of more absolute trustworthiness. And this is not the result of simply a dry and cold intelligence, for the letters are full of strong but reserved feeling, and frequently display a shrewd wit and cheerful humor. From a merely literary point of view they are excellent; they are free from newspaper slang, and written in direct and often vigorous English, though they exhibit not infrequently the marks of haste in composition, and lack of opportunity of revision.

We are well aware that in thus speaking of these remarkable letters we lay ourselves open to the charge of being prepossessed in their favor, by the fact that they very strikingly confirm the views expressed by the *Nation* during the past ten years or more in respect to the condition of the South, and the true methods of dealing with the problems of reconstruction. The principles we have maintained find full justification both in the bright and in the dark side of the South of To-day. We cannot but congratulate the *Tribune* upon its independence and frankness in thus giving to the public the most effective confutation of opinions which it has maintained with persistency, and of doctrines which it has asserted as essential to national salvation. And even the *Tribune* will, we are confident, agree with us that since the publication of Mr. Olmsted's admirable book concerning the South before the war, there has been no published study of the conditions of the Southern States so valuable as this by its own special correspondent.

From a work in which all is interesting and instructive it is difficult to select any special passages as of more interest than the rest, but we would call particular attention to the writer's vivid representation in various letters of different aspects of that state of semi-civilization characteristic of a large portion of the Southern people, by which the political problem—the problem, that is to say, of a republican government and the orderly administration of the laws—is so gravely complicated. The three letters on "The Southern Side of the Story," "The Suppression of the Negro Vote," and "The Evils of a Corrupted Ballot," are masterpieces of fair statement, and are full of information equally needed at the North and at the South. We should be glad of space to quote largely from them, but they deserve to be read in full by every one who desires to take an intelligent part in the discussion of Southern affairs. As the writer justly says: "Acquaintance on the part of the American people with the essential facts of the case must be the basis of any method or course of action which is to lead to real improvement in the 'Southern situation,' or to any genuine solution of its difficulties." As yet the people are very inadequately informed. "The need of reporting as distinguished from advocacy or argument, and from novel-writing, cannot be too strongly emphasized. There is excellent opportunity and abundant material for the construction of novels and romances dealing with Southern life and its conditions, but such works of art" (we commend this to Judge Tourgee and his admirers) "do not furnish the best method for conveying to the Northern people the knowledge which they require, to enable them rightly to understand the actual facts of Southern life, and of the relations between the two races."

The conclusions arrived at by the writer after his wide tour of observation have, as was to be expected, a twofold character. On the whole, hopefulness predominates in his general view. He finds the great need of the South, as it is the great need indeed of the North also, to be education, intellectual and moral. The South, according to his report, feels this need widely, and in many regions is making creditable effort to supply it. It is eager that the National Government should assume the duty of assisting in the work. "The 'subsidy' view of government is strongly held in the South, and henceforth the most determined champions of centralization will be found in that part of the country." The South now feels herself part of the Union, and means to take advantage of being so. She has put the war behind her; she has resolutely set her face forward and not backward. Wherever the writer of these letters went he found in this respect the same spirit.

The *modus vivendi* established between the whites and the blacks is on the whole not a bad one, though in many places the black cannot secure his legal rights as a voter. This deprivation is likely to be temporary, for in the long run its evil consequences will affect the white no less than the black race, and the break-up of the "solid" South now in progress will lead to attempts by the leaders of rival parties to draw out rather than to suppress the black vote. The negro is not about to belong for ever to the Republican party. The suppression of the negro vote is nothing more than was natural, nay inevitable, as we have often shown, under the conditions of the reconstructed States. It is a proof not so much of the perversity of the Southern whites as of their perplexity. They were in a desperate dilemma, and they chose that horn of it which seemed to offer the best chance of protecting the immediate material interests of society. New England itself, under similar circumstances, could not be trusted to choose differently. Improvement in education, improvement in material conditions, the gradual increase of confidence in established order, the slow diffusion of property among the negroes, and the consequent quickening of their intelligence, will ultimately make the ballot-box as open and as honest in Mississippi as it is in New York. The shotgun and the tissue-ballot are already dropping out of use.

The remarks of the writer on the labor question generally, in reference to white as well as to black labor, on the question of emigration, on the growth of Southern manufactures, and on the results of the common lack of thrift among all classes, are distinguished by sobriety and good sense. In fact these letters are so full of matter of importance that deserves attentive consideration, they are of such historic value as a truthful record of aspects and conditions of society such as have never elsewhere existed, that we trust they will not only have a wide circulation in their present shape, but will also be reprinted in a volume for preservation. We are confident that a publisher would find it for his interest thus to reprint them, and the permission for their republication could undoubtedly be obtained.

BUDDHIST SUTTAS.

Buddhist Suttas. Translated from Pâli by T. W. Rhys Davids. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1881.

We are glad to have another work on Buddhism from so capable a writer as Mr. Rhys Davids. It is not long since we reviewed in these columns the first volume of his 'Jâtaka Stories.' We now have before us this book of 'Buddhist Suttas.' The author speaks in his "General Introduction" of the difficulty of choosing, "from the stores of a nearly unknown literature," a collection of texts affording "a

sample of what the Buddhist Scriptures, as a whole, contain." This "nearly unknown literature," according to Mr. Childers ('Pâli Dict.,' p. viii.), is eleven times the size of our own Bible; Mr. Davids, on the other hand, has calculated that the words of the Buddhist Scriptures, including all repetitions, do not exceed twice the number of words in our Bible, and a translation from them into English would be about four times as long ('Buddhism,' p. 20). Anyhow, the selection of a representative text or two out of this large mass of literature must be a work of some difficulty.

We have in this volume a translation of seven Suttas or texts, which contain a fair sample of the substance and method of Buddha's teaching. The fault to be found with all such translations is that without a running paraphrase they are almost unintelligible to Western readers. Our author has tried, and well tried in most cases, to select English expressions to convey the idea of the originals; but even so, the reading is very dry. Let us take, as an example, a paragraph on p. 300 of the volume and see what can be made of it:

"But the wise man, brethren, the disciple walking in the Noble Path, who perceives the noble ones; who comprehends, and is trained according to the doctrine of the Noble Ones; who perceives good men, who comprehends, and is trained according to the doctrine of good men; he understands both what things ought to be considered and what things ought not to be considered—and thus understanding, the things that ought to be considered, these he considers; and the things that ought not to be considered, those he does not consider."

Now this, to say the least, is puzzling. What is it "to *perceive* good men"? What is it to perceive the "Noble Ones"? Are these "noble ones" the same in either case, or do the capital letters make any difference? And then the idea of walking in a "Noble Path" is somewhat confusing. No doubt (or, we may say, *probably*) the Noble Path is here the same as the Noble eight-fold Path, frequently referred to by Mr. Davids in his books; but in any case the word "Noble" appears an unfortunate one. If the epithet "ariyo," in the expression "Ariyo atthangiko maggo," is not altogether a Sinhalese introduction, we yet cannot doubt that the idea intended to be conveyed by it was not akin to *nobility* but to *orthodoxy*, and the Greek word ὀρθός accurately represents this idea.

Mr. Davids (p. 295) suggests the use of the word "fault" in a "geological sense" for the Pâli "âsava." But why not use the same word "fault" in a moral sense, as *culpa* is used in Latin? The ninth article of the English Church, for instance, tells us that "original sin" stands not in the following of Adam, but is a "culpa naturæ" (a blemish of nature). The word "blemish" or "fault" (in the sense indicated) appears to correspond very closely with the Buddhist "âsava."

The discovery of this Pâli literature has, at any rate, brought new students into the field of Buddhist enquiry, and this augurs well for our better knowledge of the subject generally. It is strange how little we know even yet about the very elements of this religion. To say that the Buddhists do not believe in God, for example, seems to come to this: that they do not believe in the God, "the Pot-maker" (Ghatikâra), of the Brahmans. But let any one take the definition of God as it is found in Cudworth, for instance, or in the words of the celebrated Mr. Norris, the Rector of Bemerton, near Sarum (in England), and let him compare with these words the general confession of the Buddhist Church, and then see whether the idea of God in its highest sense is altogether absent from the latter. "The essence and idea of God does consist in *Being* itself," so says Norris ('Treatises upon Several Subjects by Mr. John Norris,' London, 1697, p. 14). We know no saying of Buddha that would contradict this; he opposed root and branch the idea of a God having "body, parts, or passions" (the word "parts" here corresponds with "skandha"), but he never denied, to the best of our knowledge, pure and unconditional existence. In fact, is it not allowed on every hand that the "First Cause" with him was not denied, but simply declared "unthinkable" (*acchinteyya*) (see Childers, 'Pâli Dict.,' viii., n.)? We will not ask our readers to enter on a consideration of the endless Nirvâna discussion, but we can safely say it is a question still *sub judice;* and, until both Northern and Southern Buddhist texts are before us, it would be rash to dogmatize on the subject.

The most interesting Suttas in this collection, to our mind, are the first and second. The book of the "Great Decease" (*mahâparinibbânam*) gives us an account of the last journey of Buddha, from the Vulture Peak to Kusinârâ, where he died. It reads throughout like a pious fraud. No man at his time of life would preach such sermons as we find here. Still, there is much to be admired in the old man's dying words: "Behold now, Brethren, I exhort you, saying, 'Decay is inherent in all component things! Work out your salvation with diligence.'" This seems to be the refrain of all his teaching—to escape from the perishable world and attain the imperishable condition, and with this aim to use the highest degree of self-control: a noble purpose, and one not beneath our serious notice. A curious episode in the history of the last days of the saint is the reappearance of his old enemy Mâra, the Tempter. Formerly, under the Shepherd's tree, after his enlightenment, Mâra had besought the sage to die, as having finished his work. But this temptation was resisted, on the ground that his work was not done, nor would be done till his pure religion should have "been well proclaimed amongst men," and that till then he would *work*. But now the Tempter comes again and takes him at his word: "The time has come for the Blessed One to die; this pure religion of thine has been well proclaimed; pass away, then, Lord, from existence." And when he had thus spoken, the Blessed One addressed Mâra: "Make thyself happy. At the end of three months the Tathâgata will die."

These are singular features in the Buddhist legend—we mean this familiarity with the denizens of other worlds, good and bad. There is nothing like it in the Greek mythology: the Greek stream of Aryan tradition seems to have carried away with it a knowledge only of powerful and happy gods; the idea of a Tempter, or Mâra, or Ahriman, to all appearance, sprang up in the Iranian branch of the race—in fact, it seems to have been this quarrel as to who should be the Devil that led the Iranians, properly so called, and the Indian Aryans to separate. But, to give Mâra his due, Mr. Davids might have told us that he approached Buddha respectfully, and "upasamkanitvâ, ekamantam atthâsi." This surely means something more than "standing beside" Buddha; he approached, as others did, with respect, and having so approached he took his place on one side—*i. e.*, he went away some distance—and then, turning towards the Lord, he spoke.

This excellent translation of the story of the Great Decease will throw light on the tone of the early Buddhist Scriptures. We have been rather satiated by the unmeaning phrases and endless repetitions of such books as the "Lotus of the Good Law," but here at any rate is an attempt at history. The journey of Buddha to Kusinâgarâ (Kasia) can be traced out easily on our maps, and this of itself gives a reality to the narrative. The only exception to the probability of the thing is the miraculous flight of the sage over the Ganges, "the only miracle," as Mr. Rhys Davids observes, "in his entire history." We will let this one exception pass without discussing the general question, and be thankful for the comparative sobriety of the rest of the book. We have no space, unfortunately, for a lengthened reference to the second sermon, the "Foundation of the Kingdom of Righteousness," which is in all respects as interesting and important as the former. The "kingdom of righteousness" is the kingdom of religion. Buddha founded this kingdom when he preached at Benares and converted his first disciples, five in number. It is extremely curious that this idea of a religious kingdom should also take so conspicuous a place in the teaching of Christ, who, though the son of David—*i. e.*, of the royal line of kings—refused any claim to temporal power, though the people and his disciples would have thrust it on him, and became a homeless preacher, with no place to lay his head. It is not too much to say that the time has come for a thorough investigation of these constantly-recurring parallels in the two histories, and we are sorry that Mr. Davids has declared so emphatically that there can be no historical connection between the two (p. 166). Perhaps when this "nearly unknown literature" is further investigated, and the Northern books collated with it, a different opinion may be forthcoming.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Neptune Vase. By Virginia F. Johnson. [Franklin Square Library.] New York: Harper & Bros.

Reseda. [Franklin Square Library.] New York: Harper & Bros.

Cape Cod Folks. Boston: A. Williams & Co.

School Girls. By Annie Casey. New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.

The Skeleton in the House. From the German of Frederick Spielhagen, by M. J. Safford. New York: George W. Harlan.

'THE NEPTUNE VASE' is an Italian story, but with the fresh background of Siena. If the author is a little apt to make up the setting with the names of pictures and *bric-à-brac*, guide-book fashion, there is still enough of delicate and graceful drawing to make a charming story. Katy Osmund is again the American girl abroad, but of the old, sweet Hilda type—Hilda the woman, not the artist, for "Katy Osmund had not been endowed with any special gift of genius by nature which absorbed itself to the exclusion of other lives." "Her mission was to take care of people, to divine and supply their wants by a thousand trifling and delicate attentions." She comes an orphan to the solitary home of Dr. Brent, the American consul, who is the enthusiastic connoisseur and collector of curios, while the Signora Argenti, the owner of the "Neptune vase," is a poor, faded, gracious, gentle woman, the embodiment of the clinging love of the last of a race for its heirlooms. It is the privilege of some lives to do good by the mere fact of their existence, the simple force of being, and such it seems for Katy and her frank young lover, the new professor in the Tolomei College. Their story has hardly incident enough to sketch here by itself, but we shall not be alone in our satisfaction with such a companion-picture to sundry portraits at which we have sighed the more because we could not deny their truthfulness. With an unconsciousness too unstudied not to be real, and therefore all the more effective, the author has made Katy Osmund in the dull waiting-room at Empoli, on her flower-decked balcony, or at the Lizza in Siena, the

American girl who vindicates her traditions and her training with simple, innocent dignity. For ourselves, we could have done without the episode of the Villa Giraldi, and would rather have left it in the mysterious shadow of the first chapter, and the fate of Henry Osmund to the dim suggestion of his wife's letter; but such discoveries belong to the accepted machinery of the novelist's trade.

'Reseda' is made up of three several stories. That of Mignonette is much after Mrs. Oliphant's pattern—a child left by herself in an old manor-house with the rectory and the rector's handsome sons close by. As usual, the heroine fares forth into the gay world and has wealth and titles laid at her feet, a cruel mystery threatens her peace, but at last the *ami d'enfance* wins her. It is a flaw in the logic that her father consents so readily; or is the cruel parent disappearing from fiction? The story of the step-sister lacks nothing of the wildest sensation—cheating at play, a sham-marriage, murder, forgery, and death in a duel. So far we have but the familiar material of the second-rate novel, but the history of Mignonette's father, Sir Clement Wychwood, has something in it less commonplace. After long mourning for Mignonette's mother, he is won by the wiles of a beautiful Mrs. Roston as the two are returning from India. Flattered by her devotion to himself, partly real and partly feigned, Sir Clement has no suspicion of the past, nor any misgiving as to her sedulous concealment of it. There had been a doubtful episode in India with a certain Captain Lauriston, though such passion as there might have been had so decidedly cooled that the gentleman finds it a positive relief that the offer of marriage which he feels bound to make after Col. Roston's death is refused by the lady, who, on her side, has no fancy for poverty. Each, however, believes the other as fond as ever, and gratified vanity keeps up a spasmodic correspondence. Completely as Mrs. Roston has exceeded her own expectations in her marriage to Sir Clement, she still feels that she has cheated herself when Captain Lauriston most unexpectedly becomes the rich Lord Hexham. At her suggestion he makes Sir Clement's acquaintance and becomes his frequent guest. No one suspects evil, for the best of reasons, that there is none to suspect; for nothing remains of the earlier attachment but this mutual delusion as to the other's feeling.

It will be seen that the situation is novel, and might have been developed so as to make a remarkable book; but to undeceive the two, to save for Lady Wychwood her husband's respect, to make her no mere adventuress, required too delicate handling. She is made guilty of deceptions of the most hackneyed and vulgar kind, even when practising a sisterly devotion that alone might have redeemed her. Sir Clement's love is supposed to survive all sorts of discoveries, but when a chance meeting reveals the identity of Captain Lauriston with Lord Hexham he believes all the old stories and imagines a legion of new ones. He leaves Lady Wychwood a virtual prisoner at the manor, and flies off to the Continent. Lest stern morality should be shocked by the lady's frequent escapes from detection, she dies in the railroad accident which seems to have been set apart in fiction as a special sort of divine judgment. Whoever begins this book will be drawn on to finish it, for it is full of incident and the scenes are not ill managed; but any one who stops to think over the plot will agree with us as to the curious "might have been" in it.

The author of 'Cape Cod Folks' is so successful in her sketches of real life that it is a pity she has not confined herself to them. It is only a new illustration of the fact that the power of reproduction is quite other than that of creation. What she saw or knew she has given with vivid force. The drowning-scene has evidently had much care spent upon it, but in weird, tragic effect it comes nowhere near the departure of 'Lihu's funeral procession. The first is of the universal stock-in-trade, the last is unique, unparalleled. The story of the "fisherman" is out of place and out of tune. We doubt even of the parting with 'Ren Nightingale, and we are sure the incident upon the pond is either so improbable as to be absurd, or is an outrage. Either way it is a positive blemish in the book. A note from the publishers implies that some offence has been taken at the frankness of the portraiture of local manners, but surely not by the delightful, impossible, actual "Cedar Swampers" themselves, for the tone of the book as a whole is one of hearty appreciation: for one example, the recognition of the beauty and power of their singing, and the part played by such music in a simple, primitive community—their one fine art. The impression of the book that will linger longest may be the refrain of the hymns swelling and dying above the monotone of the surf.

To quote humor is to do it no justice, but here is one bit: "'Never—you—trust a neat man,' impressively. 'Never you trust 'em—for why? They wasn't made so. God made 'em. God made 'em to clutter.'" From the graver pages, we think this glimpse of the country school the best:

"Ah! what to do with them through the long hours of the day—beautiful creatures! by no means unlovable, with their bright clear eyes, their restless, restless feet, their overflowing spirits; their bodies all alive, but with minds unfitted by birth, unskilled by domestic discipline, to any sort of earnest and prolonged effort. Long, weary hours, therefore, not of furnishing instruction to the hungry and enquiring mind—ah, no! but of a desperately-sustained struggle, in which, with every faculty on the alert to discover the truest expedients, with every nerve strained to the utmost, I strove for mastery over this antic, untamed animal, until I could throw the reins loose at night, and drop my head down on my desk in the deserted school-room, tired, tired, tired!"

One graphic description tempts us to copy it for its simplicity:

"I could watch the ocean on one side and the clam-diggers on the other; could see grandma on her hands and knees, a dot of broad good-nature in the distance, always remaining apparently in the one place, and always, somehow, getting her basket full of clams, as she gradually sank deeper and deeper into the briny soil; but no true Cedar Swamper ever caught cold by soaking in the brine. I could distinguish Adelaide wandering lightly about among the rocks, scraping off mussels with her hoe; and the Modoc, the champion clam-digger of all, spreading her tentacles here and there, and never failing to come up with a bivalve. It was a picturesque scene viewed from the great rock; and when the tide began to sweep in again, George Eddie sent a piercing whistle along shore to call the stragglers together; clams, children, and all were loaded into the cart, and jostled gayly homeward, chased by the fresh sea-breezes."

'School Girls' might be left undisturbed in its mediocrity but that we find their home, Montagu Hall, pronounced by critics a school of "a very superior and enjoyable variety." By the showing of the book itself, not from the scholars, it appears that the principal instructor was "a stern man, but a clever, good (?) teacher. Quick, industrious, and attentive pupils could and did appreciate his instruction; but the slow and the timid quickly lost their footing. He had no power of sympathy with dulness or timidity." The French governess is "extremely passionate," of obvious vanity and dubious sincerity. No pains of description are spared to make the head-mistress a model of every virtue and grace; but, with all due respect for the subject of her discourses, it is certain no living girls would listen to them. It goes to prove that her own pupils did not, that she is in the habit of putting even grown-up girls under lock and key—not new scholars either. Nor have they learned not to play practical jokes of the most cruel and aggravated kind. As to the intellectual level of this "superior" school, all that one can gather is that one girl reads Keats's 'Hyperion' in the arbor, another fails in her examination because she has spent the hour in writing "verses to Balder the Beautiful," and Bach's fugues are left in the dining-room. Except a ballad of Schiller, we find no other mention or pre-supposition, so to speak, of literature (not school-books) in the story—none of that school-room chit-chat of books and music and stories such as makes Miss Yonge's work so attractive. Girls like to read books of this kind, and there would be no better way to do them good than to write truthful, natural stories of school—truthful not in the petty sense of truth to single facts, but truthful as presenting in its whole round the many-sided life, the daily striving, the beautiful hope of the school-world.

'The Skeleton in the House' is as good as a play. It is a piece of clever mystification, which introduces us to the household of one of the great northern merchant-princes. The lovely bride is brought home by her husband, not in the anticipated triumph, but hurriedly, stealthily, before the appointed hour. The garrulous housekeeper chatters on about "it" and "it"; the old servant-man staggers in with knees shaking from terror; and the sobbing kitchen-maid protests, "It's a sin and a shame to tell such things about our master." The "Hausfreund," Dr. Bertram, blindly and tormentingly explains the pathology of the skeleton in the house, while Lebrecht, the handsome young husband, is in silent despair at his own folly and cowardice. Does it answer the old question, "What did the *first* wife see?" when the bride tremblingly takes the veritable Bluebeard key, and finds—"the family treasure, sparkling and glittering, but on the treasure sits the skeleton, rattling and grimacing: 'My best greetings to you, my darling; you and I now belong together, for you probably know that you have married me with the old house'"? How Lebrecht's wife was confronted by "a handsome young face, with soft, brown, waving locks, large blue eyes twinkling roguishly," is a puzzle within a puzzle, which it is well worth while to read the book to find out. Moreover, the story is a good-natured satire on German class-prejudice, and a hearty tribute to the power of woman's love to overcome such barriers. It will be a most welcome addition to the lists for the school-room, which are so scantily provided with short, bright stories of contemporary German life.

TWO WORKS ON ALGEBRA.

Algebra for Schools and Colleges. By Simon Newcomb, Professor of Mathematics, United States Navy. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1881. 8vo, pp. xi.–454.

Elements of Algebra. By G. A. Wentworth, A.M., Professor of Mathematics in Phillips Exeter Academy. Boston: Ginn & Heath. 1881. 12mo, pp. v.–280.

It is hardly possible in the present age that an "Algebra for Schools and Colleges" should be the medium for communicating new truths. Its merit must consist in the manner in which it tells what, in one way or another, has already been told. The work first on our list is divided into two parts, the first containing "about what is commonly required for admission to college, and the second for the more advanced general student." The preface is in itself a little essay that will repay perusal on the part of all teachers. Prof. Newcomb says that he has "omitted several subjects usually inserted in treatises having

the same object," and gives good reasons for the omission Among those subjects is the process for finding the greatest common divisor of several polynomials. We admit the force of his reasons for believing that the time of pupils can be better employed ; but it must be remembered that we are all obliged to learn many things in which the labor of acquirement seems altogether to overbalance the advantage of attainment. To find the greatest common divisor of two polynomials is a very frequent requirement of examination papers for admission to college. We suppose this is required, not so much for its own sake as because the operation brings into play nearly all the elementary processes of algebra, and thus saves the necessity of asking many other questions. We have before us the examination papers for Sept., 1880, for admission to Harvard. The second requirement of the paper for algebra is : "Find the greatest common divisor and least common multiple" of two long polynomials. Whether the examiners would have rejected or conditioned a candidate who failed to accomplish this we cannot say, but most candidates would certainly like to be prepared to do it. No such objection applies to the omission of the other subjects mentioned.

We will now look at the book from a higher standpoint. There are two main distinctions between arithmetic and algebra. The first is that algebra has a far more extensive language of symbols, by which it is able to present to the eye and the mind propositions and processes which, expressed in ordinary language, would be either unintelligible or would require so great and such long-continued mental exertion that the efforts of a life-time would carry us but a little way. The human mind has never invented a labor-saving machine equal to algebra. The second distinction is still more important. In arithmetic, considered as dealing with abstract numbers, all operations are concerned with only one kind of unit. Everything is regarded merely as existing and as susceptible of repetition and division. De Morgan, in his treatise on functions, has in substance defined arithmetic to be the *art* which teaches what can be done with 1. Algebra introduces a new idea. In addition to the category of quantity it brings in the category of quality ; it teaches what can be done with different kinds of 1s. Elementary algebra gives us two different units +1 and —1 ; the higher algebra adds to these what is usually called the imaginary unit ; the highest algebra, as it appears in Grassmann's *Ausdehnungslehre*, teaches what can be done with an unlimited number of essentially different units. Those who are able to read between the lines will see that Prof. Newcomb's work is a continuous illustration of the ideas which we have thus briefly and imperfectly expressed. He has endeavored to make the pupil skilful in the translation of mathematical ideas from ordinary language into the language of algebra ; but, above all, he has endeavored by explanation and illustration to make the pupil understand that he is working a sort of double-entry arithmetic where two opposite kinds of quantities are continually playing against each other. The introduction of illustrations from geometry, although not peculiar to Prof. Newcomb's work (see the algebra of MM. Briot and Bouquet, of the École Polytechnique), is, we think, more felicitously carried out than in any other.

Perhaps the general character of Prof. Newcomb's text-book may be best expressed by a comparison with another. In 1861 Hermann Grassmann, one of the greatest mathematicians that ever lived, published an algebra for the use of high-schools. Following the example of Newton, he called it "Arithmetik," dropping Newton's qualifying adjective "universal." He contended that his method of presenting algebra was not only the best among several possible methods, but the only completely scientific and consistent method. As an abstract summary of the principles of algebra it is, so far as it goes, almost perfect. Prof. Newcomb's book presents many striking analogies to that of Grassmann, but there is this capital difference : a boy, say sixteen years of age, well prepared in arithmetic, of the average capacity of candidates for admission to college, and of perhaps a little more than average perseverance, would probably be able to learn algebra out of Prof. Newcomb's book without the aid of a teacher. Of course, such an attempt would not be advisable except under peculiar circumstances. We doubt whether such a boy would ever master the first ten pages of Grassmann's book.

We will venture one or two suggestions. In §§ 23-25, which treat of the rule of signs in multiplication, we think it would have been well to state the rule in the ordinary short and convenient form : *Like signs*, in multiplier and multiplicand, *give plus, unlike signs give minus.* The omission is probably merely an oversight, because in § 28 we read : "Hence the rule of signs is the same in division as in multiplication, namely" ; and the rule for division is then given in a form corresponding to the above. Again, Prof. Newcomb uses the words "like" and "similar," when applied to terms, as synonymous. We think it would be better, as some mathematicians have done, to use the word "similar" to denote terms having the same literal factors, and to confine the word "like" to similar terms having the same sign.

The second part, or "Advanced Course," possesses the same qualities of clearness and what may be called mathematical tact as the first. We have room only to notice the admirable chapter on imaginary quantities. The epithet "imaginary" was applied to these quantities when they were regarded as being merely the symbols of the absurd and the impossible. The name still clings to them as a mark of distinction, although the reason for it no longer exists. These quantities generally appear in mathematical investigations in the form of a binomial composed of a real and an imaginary quantity. Mathematicians quite commonly apply the word "imaginary" to these binomial expressions. Prof. Newcomb usually and rightly calls them "*complex* quantities," but he frequently falls into the old form of speech. It would certainly conduce to the clearness and convenience of mathematical language to adhere strictly to the distinction between real, imaginary, and complex quantities, even when speaking of the roots of equations, and to apply the word "imaginary" only to expressions into which real quantities do not enter except as factors. We would also suggest the use of the Roman letter i, instead of the Italic *i*, to denote the imaginary unit. The Roman letter looks more like a unit, and, as the Italic letters are generally used to denote quantities other than unity, there is less danger of confusion. It would also be better to place it in all cases immediately after the sign and before the other factors, whether literal or numerical, as is usually done in the case of the real unit where it is expressed.

The introduction of imaginaries enables Prof. Newcomb to treat in a philosophical manner the functions *sine* and *cosine*. As these functions are usually defined and treated in works on trigonometry, the student is led to suppose that they are something peculiar to triangles. He afterwards learns, if he ever learns at all, with surprise, that "every number has a *sine*" and a *cosine*, and that all the propositions of trigonometry can be stated and demonstrated without any reference to triangles. We will hazard another suggestion which we consider a small contribution to the philosophy of mathematics. Neither Prof. Newcomb nor, so far as we are aware, any other writer has stated the rules which govern operations with imaginary quantities in the form which seems to us most consistent with their nature and best calculated to show their relation to real quantities. The rules for multiplication will serve as the key to all the others, the deduction of which would find a more fitting place in a mathematical journal or treatise. We use the word "imaginary" in the strict sense above indicated. The first rule is : *The product of two imaginary quantities is a real quantity.* The second rule is the rule of signs for imaginary quantities : *Like signs give minus, unlike signs give plus.* Keeping these two short rules in mind, the manipulation of imaginary quantities becomes very easy. If, two centuries ago, mathematicians—especially those who were cultivating the newly-discovered science of analytical geometry—had asked themselves the question, May there not be quantities susceptible of the distinction of positive and negative, and yet of such a nature that plus into plus and minus into minus gives minus, and plus into minus or minus into plus gives plus ? and had they perseveringly striven to discover the results to which such a supposition led, it is possible that the subsequent history of mathematics might have been quite different from what it has been.

The second chapter of the book on imaginary quantities treats of their geometrical interpretation. Here these quantities become actual, so that we can lay them off with the rule and compasses. We would strongly recommend the study of this chapter to every student who intends to push his studies into the higher departments of mathematics. It is a well-constructed introduction to a class of ideas which have hitherto been exclusively confined to advanced mathematicians ; it is the entrance to a new intellectual world.

A comparison between the work of Prof. Newcomb and the Algebra of Mr. Todhunter naturally suggests itself. We must confine ourselves to a few general remarks. The perusal of Mr Todhunter's books leaves the impression on the mind that he regards mathematics very much as a clear-headed stoker who, by long and faithful service, has worked himself up to the position of engineer, regards an engine. Of the laws of heat and elasticity and motion he knows nothing ; but he knows exactly how to manipulate his machine, and may be, by all odds, the safest man on the road in a case of emergency to run an express sixty miles an hour. There is no living mathematician who has a more accurate knowledge of the whole machinery of mathematics, from arithmetic up to the calculus of variations, than Mr. Todhunter ; and there is no living mathematician who is freer from even a suspicion of genius. His highest reason for any process is that mathematicians have generally agreed to follow it, and that if you try it you will find it very convenient. To Prof. Newcomb's whole work we may apply the remark which he makes on page 402 in regard to a particular case : "This example illustrates the consistency which pervades all branches of mathematics when the reasoning is correct."

We have noticed several misprints ; the following are of some importance. In the equation at the end of § 329 (p. 398) the imaginary unit has been omitted from the second term of the right-hand member ; and in the "Remarks" on page 400 *i* is several times misprinted for *u*. We hope soon to see the key which Prof. Newcomb promises.

Prof. Wentworth's work would, we should think, be a very good working-book in a school.

The number of exercises and problems is unusually large. A boy who had actually worked even one-third of them would have little to fear on his examination for admission to college. In his preface Prof. Wentworth calls attention to the chapter on "factoring." The chapter is very good, but the larger portion of it is an anticipation of the theory of quadratic equations, and, we are inclined to think, would find a more fitting place under that head. He also calls attention "to the method of presenting choice and chance." By "choice" he means what is usually called the theory of permutations and combinations, or the combinatory analysis; by "chance" he means the theory of probabilities. We see no advantage in changing the ordinary terminology. The word "choice," especially, is often quite inapplicable to the questions treated. The brevity of the words is no doubt a recommendation, and then the alliteration, "choice and chance," is very tempting. The following curious statement we quote without comment: "To avoid trespassing upon the works of recent American authors, no American text-book has been consulted."

A GREAT CATALOGUE.

Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. A. Authors and Subjects. Vols. I., II. A–Cholas. Washington. 1880, 1881.

AFTER a delay of only a year the second volume of the 'Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office' has appeared. It goes only as far as Cholas. At this rate the alphabet will fill a baker's dozen of volumes, or over eleven thousand pages. All other catalogues pale before it. The Advocates' Library has one of the best of mere author catalogues, but it is content with six volumes, printed in a type much larger than is ever used for the purpose in this country. The Boston Athenæum promised for a time to have the largest "dictionary" catalogue, but its 8,500 pages shrink into insignificance before this monster. Only a Government could print it. Our national passion for magnificence ought for once to be satisfied. Nor is the size attained by the use of large type and open spacing: Dr. Billings has crowded an immense deal into his pages by skilful typographical arrangements. To use small type for notes and the lists of contents of works, and even for what are called analytical references (that is, references to the articles in magazines and collections), is nothing new; but Dr. Billings has gone further than usual in economy of space by running these latter all together into long paragraphs, instead of beginning a new paragraph with every item and so furnishing the printer with much "fat"—that is, blank space. Owing to this economy the two volumes of only 1,878 large octavo pages contain, besides 21,549 authorities (representing 12,965 volumes and 16,208 pamphlets), and 20,550 subject-titles of separate books and pamphlets, the enormous number of 71,914 titles of articles in periodicals.

One naturally turns to the subject Bibliography to see what predecessors Dr. Billings has had. There is nothing equalling him in bulk; so far as we know, there is nothing equalling him in excellence. Yet his list is a long one—12 pages; and this leads us to make a slight complaint of his method. He divides these 12 pages into 8 parts—General Works; Catalogues of Public Libraries, of Private Libraries, of Booksellers; Literature of Countries and Localities; Dissertations and Theses; Indexes; Manuscripts. Making the divisions is a good plan; Dr. Billings might even have added to them Special Subjects and Periodicals. But in order to find out what the divisions are, one has to turn through the whole twelve pages. A few lines prefixed to the article, stating the arrangement, would have saved the consulter considerable time. The same criticism is to be made of the article Boston, which is a little longer, and is even more in need of an explanation because the titles placed under "Boston," simply, are indistinguishable in subject from those put under "Boston (municipal ordinances and reports of)." But these are trifles. It could not have been an easy task to determine the rules that should be followed in such a catalogue. The course adopted is in general judicious. One practice, however, seems to us of doubtful wisdom. It is this: "In indexing journals and transactions, the general rule has been that only original articles should be taken, but occasionally important papers are indexed in several periodicals, and sometimes a reprint is indexed when the original is not in the library." If an article is worth referring to at all, it is worth while to refer to it wherever it occurs. It takes little more space to add a second reference, and may lead to the satisfaction of an enquirer when the original article is out of the library; for the books under Dr. Billings's care are circulated, with a wise liberality, throughout the Union. As it is now, the unindexed reprints might as well not be in the library at all, since no one knows where to find them. That part of the typography which depends upon the printer is not of equal excellence. For some reason the Government Printing Office has always used poor type—poor, that is, in form, cut according to the taste of the last generation. Till lately, too, United States publications have appeared on wretched paper; but the paper of this catalogue is excellent, and the heavy-faced type, if not handsome, is at least distinct.

The work which Dr. Billings is doing is of almost as much importance to other libraries as to his own. Just so far as their books and periodicals coincide with his, is his index-catalogue their index-catalogue; and his collection is so large, especially in periodicals, that every medical library must coincide with his to a great extent. His work may also be very useful to public librarians in another way. Since medical literature is estimated at one-thirtieth of that of the world, public libraries, which generally offer themselves as catch-alls to those who are clearing out closets, attics, and lumber-rooms, are likely, even if they do not buy much in that line, to have a very considerable number of such books to deal with. Now, as the diversity of medical nomenclature is remarkably great, there having been three entire revolutions within a century, cataloguers have been often puzzled to know under what headings to enter a large portion of the literature. Hitherto there has been no authority to which all could refer, but we fancy that Dr. Billings's catalogue will be at once accepted by every one as relieving them entirely of the necessity of independent thought.

A French scholar travelling in this country remarked lately that what surprised him most was the great interest Americans showed in bibliography. He was told that it was because Americans of the Brahmin or reading caste enjoy literature so much that they take pleasure in all that is connected with books, like to read about them as well as to read the volumes themselves, and taste the pleasures of a collector at an expense of time alone. This explanation was all very well, and no doubt true of the books which *are* books, and their lovers, but would hardly apply to Charles Lamb's βίβλια ἀβίβλια, the mere tools of a trade or a profession. They certainly cannot be supposed to excite such enthusiasm in any one's breast that association should give charm to a bare list of their names. What could induce any man to spend years of labor in getting together and printing tens of thousands of titles of pamphlets and magazine articles treating of fevers, and consumptions, and wounds, and abscesses? Here other motives must be supposed, and among the chief, no doubt, is the desire to be of public service—a feeling very strong in all Americans, except perhaps politicians. Americans, too, have a national appreciation of labor-saving machines, and every scholar who has spent hours in searching for some communication in an old file of magazines, or, rather than waste his time thus, has left his own work incomplete, will appreciate the potential saving offered him by Dr. Billings. It always remains a question in regard to such mammoth indexes, whether the number of times they are used multiplied by the average saving equals the cost of their preparation. Probably not; but the deficit is made up by the various investigations which they render possible, and the scientific accuracy which without them would have been utterly unattainable.

BAPTISM AS A HEATHEN RITE.

Ueber die Wasserweihe des germanischen Heidenthumes. Von Konrad Maurer. Separatabdruck aus den Abhandlungen der K. Bayer. Akademie der Wissenschaften 1 cl. xv. B. iii. Abth. München. 81 pp. quarto.

IN these pages Dr. Konrad Maurer gives us an exhaustive monograph on infant baptism as practised among the heathen Teutons, an important historical fact which has not before been properly treated. To be sure, Rudolph von Sydow, in his 'Darstellung des Erbrechts nach den Grundsätzen des Sachsenspiegels,' called attention to the fact that, according to ancient Scandinavian laws, the right of inheritance on the part of children depended on their having received baptism; and Jacob Grimm, in his 'Deutsche Rechtsalterthümer,' p. 457 (ed. of 1828), showed that in the old Norse heathendom the father was permitted to expose his own child only before it had been sprinkled with water. But no one has heretofore taken the pains to collect all the references to infant baptism, and investigate not only how extensively it was practised among our heathen forefathers, and what its real significance was, but also how far it was the result of or modified by Greek, Roman, and Christian influences. Maurer has now done this, and he has done it with that marvellous learning and acumen for which he is justly celebrated. In the work before us we find a careful sifting of every passage referring to this subject not only in the old Icelandic and Norwegian, but also in the Swedish, Danish, South-German, and Anglo-Saxon historical documents.

In the old Norse Sagas, the usual term by which baptism is designated is "at ausa barn vatni"—that is, "to sprinkle the child with water." This expression occurs several times in the Elder Edda (thus, in the Lay of Rig, stanzas 7, 21, 34, and in Hávamál, stanza 158), and countless times in the Sagas; Maurer gives a large number of instances. It is also to be noted that in the old Scandinavian Christian records baptism is exclusively designated by the word "skirn" (cleansing), from the verb "at skira," meaning to purify. But the points of similarity between the heathen and Christian rite are very striking. The heathen baptism was performed in connection with the *naming* of the child. Furthermore, a peculiar bond was established between the person baptizing and the one baptized—a relation corresponding to that of godfather and godmother among Christians. Finally, it was customary to give presents corresponding precisely to the actual *Pathenschencke* among the Germans. The re-

corded instances of infant baptism among the old Scandinavian heathen are numerous and striking. Maurer has made a careful study of the legal importance of the baptismal rite, and shows that children who were to live were immediately after their birth exhibited first to the mother and then to the father. Thereupon they were placed in the arms or on the lap of the father to receive a name and be sprinkled with water. Children, on the other hand, who were not to be brought up, were neither shown to the parents nor sprinkled with water, but were straightway exposed or slain. So sacred was held the rite of baptism that it secured the child's life even when the ceremony had been performed by an improper person, and was not, consequently, strictly legal—an excessive regard for form for which the old Teutons were noted, and which still to a considerable degree characterizes their descendants.

A large portion of Maurer's monograph is devoted to showing how the ceremonies connected with heathen baptism were adopted by the Christian Church, and in tracing to a heathen source the rights and privileges secured to children by baptism in the Church. The author suggests that the laying at the breast was a recognition of the child on the mother's part, and that the granting of the rite of baptism was a recognition of the child on the part of the father, and that this was the chief significance of the latter ceremony ; although it would seem from Hávamál, in the Elder Edda, that spiritual blessings also were secured to the infant by the sprinkling of holy water. Baptism made the child an *heir* both among the heathen and among the old Teutonic Christians, and the fact that among both it had so many things in common—that it took place soon after the birth of the child, and was connected with the naming of it; that there were godfathers and godmothers, and that presents were given—makes the question an exceedingly interesting one.

But the author goes further, and proves from ancient laws of the Germans, Visigoths, and Anglo-Saxons that the rite of baptism is to be performed within the ninth day after the birth of the child; and here he calls attention to the ancient Roman custom of giving the name to a female infant on the eighth and to a male infant on the ninth day after birth, and quotes Roman law to show that this naming-day was of legal importance to the child. A similar custom is also found among the ancient Greeks, where the seventh day after the birth of the child was celebrated with *cleansing*, gifts, sacrifices, banqueting, and other ceremonies. Maurer suggests that this seventh day of cleansing among the heathen Greeks was of the same legal value to the child as the day of sprinkling with water among the ancient Teutons, and that it determined whether the child should live or be exposed. Roman law establishes the fact that the eighth day after birth for girls and the ninth for boys was a *dies lustricus*—that is, a day on which a religious rite (*lustratio*) for infants took place and on which names were given to them, whence it is also called *solemnitas nominalium*. The day was observed by bringing the infants to the temple, by banquets, etc. (see on this point Marquardt, 'Das Privatleben der Römer,' i., pp. 81, 82). We find, therefore, among the old Greeks and, what is of vastly more importance, in the old Roman laws a day set apart for infants on which they get their names, and this naming connected with the observation of certain ceremonies. What the precise nature of these rites was we are not told; but, inasmuch as the Roman documents designate them by the term *lustratio*, there can scarcely be room for doubt that it must have been a symbolic cleansing by means of water. And, since the *dies lustricus* confessedly secured legal rights to the infant, the question lies near at hand whether the old Teutonic heathen borrowed the baptismal rite from the ancient Romans, or whether baptism was an original institution among the Aryans before they became divided into Teutons, Romans, etc. There can be no doubt, on the one hand, that the *dies lustricus* of the Romans obtained among the Christians in fixing the day for baptism, especially since it corresponded so nearly with the Mosaic day for circumcision ; and, on the other hand, that, just as many of the old Teutonic feasts were turned into Christian festivals, so the form of the Teutonic baptism was largely adopted by the Christians in northern Europe.

We will add that the author inclines to the opinion that the rite of sprinkling infants with water was introduced among the heathen Teutons as a consequence of their intercourse with Christian peoples—in other words, that the Christian ceremony was adopted by the heathen. We believe, however, that the facts are susceptible of another explanation. As Anton Edzardi and before him Mannhardt have suggested, there were among the old Teutons a number of sacred fountains and a wide-spread fountain cultus. Water was regarded as a healing agency and played a conspicuous part in religious ceremonies of which many seem to cling to the holy water of the Christian Church. A person's fate and character were determined by the sacred norns who presided over births. The person's name was supposed to be an expression or omen of his character. And when we consider the intimate connection of the norns with the fountain of Urd (the norn of the past), the conclusion seems reasonable, that the sprinkling of infants when they received their names had reference to the holy fountains, and that the heathen *form* of baptism was adopted by the Christian Church ; for surely there is no intimation in the Bible that baptism was ever applied to infants, nor do we find a word in the New Testament connecting *the giving of the name to a person* with baptism.

Manchester al Mondo: A Contemplation of Death and Immortality. By Henry Mountagu, Earl of Manchester. London : Pickering & Co. 1880.

THE writer of this little work, a successful lawyer and courtier, was originally a commoner, and won his various titles, culminating in that of earl, by his own exertions. He was born in 1563, and died in 1642. The niche that he occupies in history might easily be passed unnoticed, for all that he succeeded the celebrated Coke as Chief-Justice of the King's Bench, and pronounced sentence of death on Sir Walter Raleigh. Just before the end of his life, when holding the office of Lord Privy Seal, he was implicated in proceedings relative to ship-money, and was impeached by the House of Commons. As to the immediate inheritors of his name, while his son Edward, on whom his earldom devolved, went so far as to sympathize warmly, for some years, with the popular party, his son Walter joined the Church of Rome, became confessor to Queen Henrietta Maria, consort of Charles II., and was banished from England in 1649. One of his four remaining sons, George, was father of the first Earl of Halifax. His brother James was Bishop of Bath ; and several other Mountagus, members of his family, are recorded as having achieved political or ecclesiastical distinction.

'Manchester al Mondo' was composed when its author was nearing three score and ten, and is his sole literary production. Little as it falls in with the taste of our day, at least the student of the seventeenth century in its inner life will find himself rewarded for turning over its pages with some attention. Curious is the reflection that it specially recommended itself, for its treatment of the most solemn of all subjects, to the generation that took delight in the fantastic and voluminous dreariness of 'Pharamond,' 'Polexander,' and 'Parthenissa.' Within sixty years after its first appearance it went through fifteen editions, and perhaps more—a fact indisputably authenticating its popularity. Nor is that popularity wholly to be ascribed to what was æsthetically peculiar on the part of those to whom it so long proved acceptable. Merit it has, though not of a very distinguished order ; and if, instead of being in good part made up of shreds of Latin, it were couched in smooth modern English, doubtless it would have many willing readers even now. We are informed that, before it lapsed out of vogue, it came to be included in the class of books which, like 'The Whole Duty of Man' and Bishop Taylor's 'Holy Dying,' it was once the custom to distribute at funerals.

The editor of the careful and elegant reprint before us, Mr. John Eglinton Bailey, who has executed his task in a way that leaves nothing to be desired, sums up the characteristics of the work, with just appreciation, in terms which, as none better can be selected, we transcribe :

"The subject of the contemplation of the noble author of the present treatise, which is creditable alike to his head and heart, is dealt with in a becoming manner. Upon Death itself he is the reverse of distasteful, and his thoughts tend to modify materially that 'kingly abhorrence of death' which it is said the French monarch displayed. They also rebuke the vulgar accompaniments of death—those signs which, as Lord Bacon, the author of the 'History of Life and Death,' said, 'showed death terrible,' and which Montaigne and Taylor alike reprehended. Our author argues gravely and philosophically, but here and there enters into the regions of fancy. He has always at hand an array of learning, in which St. Augustine is a favorite author. Like that old Father, the Earl was fond of putting his sentences in the form of apophthegms and antitheses, which, combined with their beauty or significance, give them a ready lodgment in the mind."

A few excerpts will suffice to convey a notion of the occasional quaintness and other noticeable traits of 'Manchester al Mondo': "Lazarus's sores will make as good dust as Jezebel's paint." "Heaven is full of good works ; hell, full of good wishes." "A man cannot look up to heaven with one eye, and down to the earth with the other." "Ere long, two ells of earth shall serve whom scarce a world could satisfy." "Men commonly discard those sins they can best spare, but retain those they love best." "Some of the passages," as Mr. Bailey pertinently remarks, "will recall ideas familiar to us by reason of their occurrence in more modern literature."

The author, though he wrote in the time of Charles I., when it was no less the custom to venture strange words than it has now again come to be, indulges in comparatively infrequent freaks of diction. Of interest to the philologist are his verbs *angelize, obambulate, pleasant, repartite, resurge, superinvest;* his substantives *incipient* and *subsapient;* and his *knownest* and *unknownest*. *Amative*, which he uses, has escaped lexicographers, save as a modernism ; in his verb *unweary* he forestalls Dryden ; and he is, probably, an early authority for such an expression as his "that which love *operateth* by affection."

The Foreigner in China. By Lucius N. Wheeler, D.D. With Introduction by Prof. W. C. Sawyer. Chicago : S. C. Griggs & Co. 1881.

'THE Foreigner in China' is a fair title for this book if the reader adds, "as viewed from the

missionary standpoint." It is a rapid account of the course of events in China brought about by the advent of Europeans, and their commercial, political, and religious connection with the country since 1516. It includes a comparison between the merchant, diplomatist, and missionary as to success in China, to the advantage of the latter; a favorable account of the Taiping rebellion, and a flattering description of the city of Peking and of the splendor of Chinese ceremonial. We fancy some of the old residents of that city would be surprised to find that they were living in the midst of such attractions without knowing it.

Mr. Wheeler refers to the indifference, not to say antagonism, of the commercial residents in China to missionaries and their occupations. He ascribes it principally to the pernicious effect of that *bête noire* of American writers and diplomatists, the opium traffic, and partly to the fact that "they sometimes indulge their passions without regard to human or divine law." He might have thought of an easier and more charitable solution. The supporters of missionary enterprise in the United States and England are not a large section of the community, and, circumscribed as this section is, it is principally its women who are interested. It needs a very sympathetic and emotional nature to see the call for sending emissaries for such a purpose to distant countries, when, as most men are apt to think, there is an inexhaustible field at home. It may be taken for granted that the missionary section comprises very few of the hard-headed men of commerce; and it is of course the offshoots of that class whom the missionary meets in China. He is the sort of man who dislikes to hear Sunday called Sabbath, and is not overfond of Scripture phraseology, though he may be conscientious, liberal, and charitable in his own way. We think it likely he is illiberal in his view of missionary effort and enterprise, but it is not worth while to ascribe it to an unworthy cause. As for the Taiping movement, it would be well for the reader to look elsewhere before he accepts Mr. Wheeler's favorable views of the morality and aims of the rebels, and his denunciation of the part taken by the English against them.

Mr. Sawyer's introduction is good, especially his manly denunciation of the late treaty in regard to Chinese immigration.

Histoire de l'Empire Ottoman depuis les origines jusqu'au traité de Berlin. Par le Vicomte A. de la Jonquière, ancien professeur d'histoire à l'école militaire du Coumbar-Hané à Constantinople. Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern. 1881.

As far as race is concerned, there was little in common between the peoples which spread the doctrines of the Koran throughout Arabia, carried them triumphantly along the north of Africa, crossed into and subdued Spain, poured into France, went down under the hammer of the Frank, were driven out of Spain by Ferdinand and Isabella, and withered away almost to the original source—between these peoples and the Ottoman Turk. Nationalities, however, disappear under the all-embracing type of a religion which, perhaps more than any other in history, has absorbed the whole existence of the state. In no particular does the religion of Christ stand in sharper contrast to that of Mohammed than in the former's saying, "My kingdom is not of this world." His self-styled vicegerents did, no doubt, introduce a good deal of confusion as to the boundaries of the two realms, but when modern civilization began to draw the lines again, great temporal changes were compatible with the preservation of the spirit of religion. The Koran, on the other hand, comprised the civil law of Islamism, and was that of a half-barbarous people. It was based upon war, despotism, slavery, and, above all, polygamy and the inferiority of woman in all respects. Therefore the Turk, not merely as Turk, but as Mohammedan, is what he has been for centuries—somewhat milder, certainly, for a sultan does not now celebrate his accession by the deliberate murder of all his brothers, and a prime minister, on being dismissed, is merely sent into exile instead of being presented with a halter; but the utter futility of all real attempts at reform is more and more apparent.

A more consistently dismal story it would be difficult to invent. From the time when, about the year 1000, the Turks, with the Mongols and Tartars, began to pour down from the regions of the Caspian, their history is that of continuous bloodshed and destruction. Their incessant wars have reduced some of the fairest portions of the earth's surface to a desert. Countries which in the time of the Roman Empire were filled with flourishing cities, with agriculture and commerce, are now the habitations of wild beasts or of scanty tribes of nearly as wild human beings. One might turn from the history in disgust were it not that as the "Eastern Question" it forms a part of European politics to-day. The work of M. de la Jonquière, as is almost unavoidable with a single volume dealing with so long a space of time, is little more than a compendium, but it is clearly written and valuable as a book of reference. The first chapters give the geography and ethnography, and the latter affords some idea of the enormous difficulties of a reorganization of the empire. All the races and all the languages which have flowed from Asia into Europe seem to have deposited their strata on the great highway; and, as if these elements of discord were not enough, the three great religions, Latin, Greek, and Mohammedan, find here a focus of collision. Next follows an account of Arabia, of the rise of Mohammedanism and of the Turks, with an analysis of the Koran. The mediæval history is bewildering, and yet, as Macaulay says of "Paradise Lost," fascinating, from the number of sounding and half-familiar names introduced—Selims and Suleymans, Mahmuds, Murads, and Bajazets. The confused struggles with Poland and Hungary, the ebb and flow of conquest, are chronicled in a manner to be very useful in a study of comparative history. The most interesting part is, however, the narrative of events in the present century, and of the rise of the various nationalities—Egypt, Greece, Rumania, Servia, and Bulgaria—to independence, and the gradual but inevitable approach of the period when the Sick Man's inheritance must be divided.

Four maps are added to the book, good enough in themselves, but which have, with the exception of that relating to the Treaty of Berlin, the not uncommon defect of being apparently taken from some other work, with very little reference to the text.

Our Western Empire. By Dr. L. P. Brockett. Philadelphia: Bradley, Garretson & Co.

In this thick book, containing more than 1,300 royal octavo pages, the attempt is made to set forth, within the limits of a single volume, the varied resources of all the States and Territories west of the Mississippi. Its purpose is to furnish emigrants and workingmen in our Eastern States and in Europe, who may desire to seek new homes and fortunes in the great West, with such information as will guide them in the choice of a location and career. The author has sought to embrace within the scope of his work almost every conceivable branch of the subject, from the geology, natural history, mineral and agricultural resources, and industrial development of the country down to the minutest detail affecting the social life and relations of its inhabitants. The larger part of the book is compiled from miscellaneous sources, such as official documents, Government and State reports, and, apparently to a considerable extent, newspaper correspondence, with an occasional reference to some well-known authorities. The degree of accuracy attained is probably quite as high as could be expected, considering the varied character of such sources of information. While the treatment of some of the special branches shows, here and there, a lack of accurate knowledge on the part of the writer concerning the details of the subject, he has, nevertheless, been fairly successful in the accomplishment of a somewhat difficult task. The book will give a good deal of useful information to the class of readers for which it is intended.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Dr. C. C. Primitive Industry. Salem: Geo. A. Baker.
Beesly, A. H. Sir John Franklin. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Cooke, Laura S. H. Dimple Dopp, and Other Stories. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1 25.
Cook, Rev. F. C. Bible Commentary: Romans to Philemon. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $5.
Conway, M. D. The Wandering Jew. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Cummins, A. H. Grammar of the Old Friesic Language. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 25.
Damen's Ghost: a Tale. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1.
D'Aubigné, Rev. J. H. M. History of the Reformation. 5 vols. in one. New York: Robert Carter & Bros. $1.
De Amicis, E. Spain. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
De Forest, Julia B. Short History of Art. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Feuerbach, L. The Essence of Christianity. 2d ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Fothergill, Dr. J. M. Animal Physiology, for Schools. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Gardiner, Prof. S. R. English History for Students. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $2 25.
Geraldine; a Souvenir of the St. Lawrence: Poetry. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Greene, W. B. Three Vows: Poetry. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 25.
Halsey, W. McD. Beginners' Latin. New York: W. R. Jenkins.
Hickey, W. Constitution of the U. S. A. New ed. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co.
Holmes, O. W. Poetical Works. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2 50.
Howe, J. B. The Common Sense of Money. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Johnson, Helen K. Familiar Songs, and Those Who Made Them. New York: Henry Holt & Co.
Lange, Prof. F. A. History of Materialism. Vol iii. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3 50.
Lillie, A. Buddha and Early Buddhism. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2 50.
Lindsay, J. T. French Exiles of Louisiana: a Tale. New York: W. B. Smith & Co. $1.
Long, Rev. J. Eastern Proverbs and Emblems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3 50.
Meredith, Owen. Lucile: a Poem. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $6.
Merrill, Rev. S. Galilee in the Time of Christ. Boston: Congl. Pub. Soc. $1.
Newman, Mrs. With Costs: a Tale. New York: Harper & Bros. 15 cents.
New Testament: American Version. Second ed. New York: Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.
Nicoll, Rev. W. R. The Incarnate Saviour. New York: Robert Carter & Bros. $1 25.
Oliver, Dr. G. The Harcgate Waters. Philadelphia: Presley Blakiston. $1 50.
Plutarch's Essays. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Vol. XVIII. 1880-81. Boston.
Rivulet and Clover Blooms: Poetry. New York: American News Co.
Robinson, Rev. C. S. Spiritual Songs for the Sunday-School. New York: The Century Co. 50 cents.
Rogers, J. E. T. Loci e Libro Veritatum, illustrating the condition of Church and State, 1403-1458. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: T. Nelson & Sons.
Row, Rev. C. A. Reasons for Believing in Christianity. New York: T. Whittaker. 75 cents.
Schüssler, Dr. W. H. Cure of Diphtheria. New York: Gavin Houston. 40 cents.
Schütt, O. H. Reisen im südwestlichen Becken des Congo. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer; New York: L. W. Schmidt.
Scudder, H. E. Boston Town. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 50.
Selections for Responsive Readings for Use in Public Worship. New York: The Century Co.
Smyth, Rev. N. The Orthodox Theology of To-Day. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1 25.
Southworth, Mrs. E. D. E. N. The Bridal Eve. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.
Stearns, W. A. New England Bird Life. Part I. Oscines. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $2 50.
Stoddard, W. O. The Quartet: a Tale. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.
Vincent, F., jr. Norsk, Lapp, and Finn. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50c.
Vincent, F., jr. The Land of the White Elephant. New ed. New York: Harper & Bros.
Wales, W. Rockland Cemetery Illustrated. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co.
Walker, J. E. Campaigns of General Custer in the Northwest. New York. 75 cents.
Walker, J. B. Experience of Pioneer Life in the West. Chicago: Sumner & Co. $1.
Wheeler, Rev. L. N. The Foreigner in China. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1 25.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 29, 1881.

The Week.

THE manifestations of popular sorrow over President Garfield's death from all parts of the country, which seem to grow hourly in number and intensity, form a tribute such as no man's memory in this country or perhaps in any country has ever received. The manner, too, in which the news has been received abroad is unprecedented. Before the days of telegraphy his illness could not have been followed from day to day with the continuous minuteness of detail which has done so much to quicken the sympathy felt with him and with the American people. But, in addition to this, his career has been of a kind to touch the foreign imagination in an unusual degree; not simply because he rose from small beginnings—for the American "self-made man" is not always a dazzling object to the European eye—but because he rose not only in station, but in culture, and in breadth of capacity and of interest. He was a statesman of the type which is commoner in England than here, and to which the successful American politician does not always belong. Mr. Lincoln, for instance, much as he was loved and admired abroad, was not nearly so well equipped a man intellectually as General Garfield, and his success therefore was less comprehensible to the European mind; in fact the man himself was less comprehensible. General Garfield was understood, however. In the eyes of Englishmen he was a man like Gladstone, or Goschen, or Lowe, and he became so, it was plain, without any of their artificial advantages, by sheer force of talent and character. Then there was something very Roman in the variety of his achievements. The success of the same man both in the field and in the forum is something which was common in ancient Rome, but in the modern world has only been seen in England and America, and it is a kind of success which all Englishmen desire and few have ever achieved. General Garfield thus had a claim on their admiration which none of his predecessors, even if they had all been well known abroad, possessed, and it is amply acknowledged in the sorrow over his unhappy fate. The Court mourning, an unexampled tribute, too, is not simply the expression of the Queen's sympathy, deep as this is. It expresses also the national sense of fitness and propriety.

President Arthur's inaugural address was in all respects what the occasion called for. It was brief, because having declared with sufficient explicitness his intention to adopt the ideas, so far as practicable, of his predecessor, he had no policy to sketch, and his tribute to the memory of the deceased President was as respectful and sympathetic as any one could desire. This, moreover, seems to have satisfied the spectators that he fully realizes the solemnity of the occasion, and is sensible of the limitations which the peculiar manner of his accession to the office, and the state of popular feeling, necessarily impose on him in the use he will make of his great powers and opportunities. We have commented below at some length on the most important passage.

Attorney-General MacVeagh has informed President Arthur that when he offered his resignation he meant it; and he has also told the public that "he recognized fully the propriety of President Arthur selecting as his confidential advisers gentlemen who had heretofore sustained relations not only of personal good-will, but also of political sympathy with him," and that "he did not think any Administration could be strong if there was any ground for suspicion or distrust among its members." Mr. MacVeagh's attitude with regard to his own resignation is that of an honorable man who has the pride of independence in him, but his generalizations as to the principles upon which Cabinets should be constructed, if intended to be strictly adhered to in a Government like ours, are too sweeping. That a President cannot be expected to keep in his Cabinet men who do not "sustain with him relations of personal good-will" goes without saying. But that he should confine his choice exclusively to those who have "heretofore sustained relations of political sympathy with him," is not so clear, if this "political sympathy" is taken in the narrow sense. In that case a President who had been identified with a faction in his party would be bound to compose his Cabinet entirely of members of that faction. Such a course would, in a majority of cases, be disastrous. No President who wanted to hold his party together has ever attempted to do any such thing. There has probably not been a single Cabinet since the formation of the Government which did not contain representatives of different "political sympathies" within the party in power. Neither does it follow that if a Cabinet is constructed upon this broad basis there must be "any grounds for suspicion or distrust among its members." If the members of a Cabinet are only men of honor, they will be able to sustain with the President, as well as among themselves, relations of perfect frankness and cordiality, and there will be no ground for distrust or suspicion, no matter whether their opinions on some subjects differ, or whether they have kept different political company.

A few days ago a paragraph from a Western journal was telegraphed as news by the Associated Press, and thus gained general circulation, stating that the German Emperor and Prince Bismarck had been singularly remiss in their expressions of sympathy with the people of the United States in their great bereavement, having "violated international decency in allowing Prince Bismarck's mere house-servant Busch to express the sorrow of the German Government." This is evidently unjust. Dr. Busch, who signed the despatches in the name of the Government, is Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs under the Chancellor. Moreover, we were already on the 21st informed from Berlin by Atlantic telegraph that "the Emperor and Empress have personally cabled to Count Beust, the German Chargé d'Affaires at Washington, to express their deep sympathy with Mrs. Garfield." And to-day the Atlantic telegraph reports that Dr. von Schloezer, the German Minister to the United States, who has for some time been on leave of absence, but is now on his way back to this country, "takes with him to Washington autograph letters of the Emperor William and Prince Bismarck, expressing their heartfelt condolence with the widow of the late President." It appears, therefore, that, while the feelings of the German people were always above question, the German Government have not only not been remiss in expressing their sympathy, but that both the Emperor and the Chancellor have done so in a manner which they intended to be most personal and emphatic.

Business in every department was affected during the week by the general indisposition to consider any other subjects than the death of the late President and preparations for his funeral. The day on which this occurred was made a legal holiday. Although foreign exchange was at no time strong during the week, yet there was no profit in importing gold; $903,000, however, which had been previously shipped, was landed here late in the week. From August 1 to September 28 the receipts of foreign specie have been $15,482,517, against $25,711,944 a year ago. The Treasury continues to accumulate money at a rate which with other influences at work threatened the loan market, and the Secretary has been urged to buy bonds. On Saturday his programme was published, and it is to redeem $20,000,000 of the three-and-a-half per cents on December 24th, and to redeem $2,000,000 each week in October at par and accrued interest. It is considered doubtful whether many bonds will be presented for redemption in October, and there is, therefore, still much anxiety about the money market. The railroad war was not settled during the week, although there was much negotiation on the subject. At the Stock Exchange, railroad shares and bonds advanced. Money in London has become somewhat easier. Silver bullion there was steady at about 51¼d. per ounce, and here the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar was about 86⅜ cents.

The accounts of Mr. "Sam" Lowery, who has just beaten Mr. Conkling in the convention at Utica, and will come here as a delegate to the State Convention next month, putting Mr. Conkling in the ludicrous position of contesting the seat from his own home, are very interesting. It appears he is a small Irishman, "mild visaged" and "oily spoken," and when not occupied with politics is occupied with the manufacture of knit underclothing. He is an Ulster Protestant, but

popular with the Catholics, and has for many years made it his life work, a correspondent of the *Sun* says, to "whittle down the Conkling Cæsar to ordinary mortal proportions." He has kept at this steadily for many years, and would have doubtless accomplished it before now but that he has had occasionally, for some unexplained reason, "to keep out of sight." He never, however, allowed any of the whittling he had done on the Cæsar to be repaired, or puttied over, or anything of that kind, so that when he resumed his operations, there never was anything to be done over again. He must in fact long ago have damaged the "magnificent torso" more than the world knew. This whittling, too, is described as having been a labor of love with him. He is a "master of political intrigue," but does not seek office, and will be satisfied with the honor of ousting Mr. Conkling from a seat in the Convention and occupying it himself. He is not an orator, but excels in "drastic retorts." He certainly seems from all this to have been made for the humiliation of the "great Senator."

Mr. F. W. Whitridge has an article in the *International Review* for next month in which he examines Mr. Conkling's claims to "greatness." For the purpose of finding out on what these claims rested Mr. Whitridge was at the pains to examine every speech which he ever delivered in the Senate, and most of his speeches outside the Senate, the laws he has introduced into Congress, and the reports of cases which he has argued. The following are the results of his investigation: Mr. Conkling in the House served upon the Reconstruction Committee, but was author of none of the important measures proposed by it; in the Senate he has served upon the leading committees, but is not the author of a single one of the great measures of his time. "His admirers, in answer to enquiries recently made, have, so far as appears, claimed for him the authorship of only three important laws. These are the present law governing the election of United States Senators, the law confirming the titles of pre-emptors and settlers to lands along the lines of railroads claiming lands from the Government, and the trademark law. Of these the latter was declared unconstitutional as soon as it got before the courts, and the others were amendments of old laws, and he had nothing to do with proposing or carrying either the laws or the amendments." On the whole, his actual services as a proposer or forwarder of legislation "might have been rendered equally well by any of fifty men who could be picked from the New York or Massachusetts Legislature."

If we turn from what he has done to what he has treated with indifference, we find that the latter head covers all the most important questions of his period of service. Tariff reform, our commercial relations with other countries, methods of taxation, the relations of corporations to the State and national governments, Chinese immigration, the condition of American commerce—"all these have no more vexed him than the passing shadow of a cloud." In financial matters he has taken no part in shaping legislation. "In the evils arising from the condition of the South he has been deeply interested, but rather as party weapons than as questions for his solution; and it is an historical fact that those evils have diminished in proportion as the use of the remedies advocated by Mr. Conkling has been discontinued." He has never attempted to cut a figure as an author, while as an orator his speeches, whatever their immediate impression as "efforts," have contributed nothing to the thought of the country. As a lawyer Mr. Conkling has appeared in only six cases in the Supreme Court since 1862, in two of which his political position may have had something to do with his being retained; in the Court of Appeals of this State he has had but five cases, and two of these may be called political. His last appearance, in the People agst. Dennison, covered him in the eyes of the profession here with ridicule. The question which of course arises in any one's mind on examining this analysis is what in the world Mr. Conkling has been actually doing all these years, for he has not been an idle man, and until a few months ago his "greatness" seemed to be rising and increasing steadily. Mr. Whitridge does not answer this question, but we all know what the answer would be. What he has really been doing all the time he is doing still, and probably will continue to do as long as he lives. In the past he has found that it paid better in the way of producing "greatness" than anything else he could do, but then his ideas of "greatness" are different from those of Mr. Whitridge.

The platform of the Massachusetts Republicans goes one step further than any party platform has hitherto done in the minuteness of its definition of a "thorough reform in the methods of making and obtaining appointments in the civil service." One reason why so little attention has hitherto been paid by men in public life to the utterances of party conventions on this subject is that they have generally been extremely vague. They seldom go beyond the expression of a general desire for an improvement in the civil service, and the selection of competent and honest men by proper methods. In such expressions even those who are secretly most opposed to any change are always ready to join. It would be impossible to find a politician in or out of Congress who would declare himself opposed to the entrance of "good men" into the service, and the enforcement of a rigid accountability in all public servants. In the region of general propositions, in fact, civil-service reform meets with no opposition whatever. It is only when we get down to the details of the machinery by which the reform is to be effected, or, as Congressmen call it, to "this particular measure," that we discover that there is any difficulty in the way of our having as much reform as the most enthusiastic reformer can desire. It is only, therefore, by pinning Congressmen down to a definite programme that any progress whatever can be made in bringing about Congressional action, or in making the subject a real political issue. The Massachusetts Convention thus defines the reform:

"The maintenance of the constitutional prerogative of the President to make nominations on his sole responsibility, and of the constitutional prerogative of the Senate to confirm, or refuse to confirm, such nominations free from executive dictation; the relief and exclusion of the members of the legislative branch from the business of selecting officeholders in the department of the administration; the prohibition of assessments upon the salary of officeholders for party purposes, appointments to clerkships to depend, in the first instance, upon successfully passing a proper examination, open to all applicants without distinction of party, and, secondly, upon satisfactory service during a period of probation; tenure of office during good behavior or for a reasonable fixed term, with promotion for meritorious performance of duty, and no removals except for cause."

It will be difficult for any Massachusetts Representative at least to get round the above in any creditable way. It will not be open to him to plead "pressure" as an excuse for dunning the departments for offices for his friends, or to declare that the blame of his doing so rests upon his constituents. Nor will he be able very well to accept the aid of assessments on clerks' salaries, or to participate in demanding them, much less use threats in enforcing them, as was done during the last national canvass. He will be cut off, too, from sneering at competitive examinations as the "schoolmarm test," or pretending that they are meant to be a substitute for what every business man knows is the only real test—actual trial in discharge of the duties of the place. The platform expressly puts these examinations forward as a substitute only for the Congressman's nomination. They are to be followed, as his nomination is not, by a period of probation. The protégés of Congressmen go through no probation. They are quartered on the public for better or for worse, and even if found incompetent, their removal is attended with difficulties which a head of a department who submits to the Congressman's dictation seldom cares to face. Moreover, the Massachusetts Representatives are cut off by the platform from the work of barren criticism. They cannot hereafter confine themselves to pricking holes in the Pendleton bill or any other bill, or to doubting the general practicability, in the existing state of American human nature, of any scheme of reform whatever.

The fight for some time expected between Ayub Khan and Abdurrahman Khan has come off, and must make the English Liberals again chuckle with satisfaction over the withdrawal of the English army from the country. We attempted a week or two ago an explanation of Afghan warfare. At that time Ayub Khan had just come up from Herat, and defeated Abdurrahman, who was abandoned on the battle-field by a portion of his forces going over to the enemy. Ayub then had his own way for a while, but made no progress, and Abdurrahman got another army together; and now they have had another engagement, and this time a portion of Ayub's forces have deserted him, and he in turn has been defeated, and has had to retreat to Herat. And so the game will go on until the weather gets too cold for active operations; and so it has been going on ever since the days of Alexander the Great. It would be an amusing game if it were not that England has just been trying to stop it at a cost of many thousand lives

and over $100,000,000, and that the Minister who thought he had made Afghanistan into "a strong, friendly, and independent" monarchy is still mourned by the Conservatives as a prodigious loss to the country.

It is not uncommon for subjects to lose their king or to get rid of him; but a monarch still upon the throne and yet in danger of losing his subjects is something of a novelty. This seems to be the position of King Kalakaua, of the Hawaiian Islands, who arrived in this city last week. In the course of an interesting conversation with a reporter of the *Evening Post*, his Attorney-General, Mr. William Armstrong, said that "the native element" of the islands "cannot survive long, having been destroyed by such civilization as came to them on the whaling ships of New England"; that "nothing can save the people"; that "few children are born, and still fewer live to grow up." One object of the King's travels is to find some other people to take their place. We often hear of infusing fresh blood into a nation, and the beneficial effect of immigration is beyond doubt; but repeopling a country outright is a different experiment. Naturally enough, no more New England whalers are wanted; and it is questioned by Attorney-General Armstrong whether Englishmen or Americans are fitted by their constitution and habits for the life of a tropical climate. Of all the men who have been examined as to their qualifications the Portuguese settlers in the Azores seem to be the most satisfactory. Fifteen hundred of these have been secured and a thousand more have been ordered; and it is to be hoped that before long the islands will be comfortably full. The further and official denial of the report that the Hawaiian King was looking up a market for his kingdom was scarcely necessary. As Attorney-General Armstrong says, it would be as reasonable to talk of Mayor Grace's selling the city of New York.

The haste and secrecy with which the decision of Commissioner Osborn, in the Randazzo case, has been followed by the delivery of the prisoner to the Italian Government are, to say the least, very surprising. The prisoner's counsel had given notice in open court of their intention to apply to the Secretary of State for a review of the case, and the question whether the man ought to be surrendered or not was therefore still open. The Secretary of State was absent from Washington, and the department in the hands of an acting Secretary. In this state of affairs for the representatives of the Italian Government to hurry away and secure an extradition mandate was a very peculiar proceeding. Now that the prisoner is out of the country and beyond its jurisdiction, he is no longer in a position to take any steps to rectify the injustice that may have been done him. The great advantage a foreign Government always has in extradition proceedings is that if it can once get bodily possession of the prisoner, no matter how, he cannot be taken away again, and, as a rule, no one continues to have sufficient interest in the matter to inquire what becomes of him. Arguelles was kidnapped and carried out of the country by Spain without the slightest pretence of justification, and has never been heard of from that day to this. Yet the Arguelles case never created much feeling. The part played in the matter by persons in the employment of the United States was made the subject of complaint in Congress, but the whole affair died out very quickly, and probably few people in the country know now what the Arguelles case was. In the present case the proceedings of the Italian Government have been from the first formally regular; but it is very doubtful whether the procurement of the mandate from Washington, though legal enough, was not in violation of an understanding that the case was to be reviewed by the Secretary of State. How far that understanding went does not appear; but the Commissioner is reported as stating that the issuance of the mandate was a surprise to him, and that he supposed there would be a final hearing at Washington.

Mr. Parnell has announced his programme for the Land League with regard to testing the new Land Act. He is going first to present cases which are not cases of rack-rent, and then cases of improvements long since made, and cases of recent improvements last. His theory is that the Land Courts will strain every nerve to favor the landlords, and therefore, as the first cases likely to come before them are cases of exorbitant rents, he thinks the Courts, by making reductions in these, which, after all, will not make the rent moderate, will be enabled cunningly to establish a high scale of moderate or "reasonable" rents, by which they will afterwards govern themselves. This he purposes to thwart at the outset by cases of his own selection. He is also satisfied that the Courts will do what they can to prevent tenants obtaining any compensation for their improvements, and will, therefore, whenever an improvement is of long standing, try to make out that it is exhausted and valueless. This he means to circumvent by selecting his own cases of old improvements for trial. The new improvements, on which the Courts would be less likely to indulge in fraud and corruption, he will bring in last. This is a somewhat dangerous experiment, however, for the Courts, like the Bessborough Commission, may incline strongly to the tenant's side, and if they do, on Mr. Parnell's own tests, where will he be? It must be said, too, that his programme is based on a theory which if sound would show Irish society to be so rotten that no political change could possibly save it. If there are no just men outside the Land League, the Irish cause is hopeless. The Land Commission, by the way, has published a most lucid circular, explaining to the tenants, point by point, all the advantages they can obtain through the bill, and we suspect it will have a great deal more effect than Mr. Parnell's test programme.

Mr. Baden Powell has been reading a paper before the British Association on a matter which has a good deal of interest for Americans, inasmuch as it touches the question so often asked in the tariff controversy—Should we have prospered without Protection?—and which is generally supposed by Protectionists to be sufficiently answered by saying: "See how we have prospered with protection." Two of the Australian colonies, Victoria and New South Wales, have, in the most obliging manner, tried the experiment, side by side, starting with equal advantages, and possessing similar soil and climate. Victoria is highly Protectionist and does duty frequently in the Protectionist newspapers in this country as an example of a British colony which has found out the humbug and mischief of British Free Trade. New South Wales is, however, Free Trade in its policy, but one seldom sees any mention of it in the Protectionist publications. Mr. Baden Powell now comes with a mass of statistics, and shows that in the development of manufactures the two colonies have fared about equally well, but the Free-Trade colony has a far larger revenue per head of the population. Moreover, the revenue from the customs has greatly increased under the New South Wales low tariff, and has barely maintained itself under the Victorian high tariff. In the Free Trade colony, however, the general prosperity, as indicated by the growth of trade and population, has been far greater than in the Protectionist colony. We do not know of any effective answer that our friends who are publishing the Iron and Steel tracts can make to this except saying that New South Wales is running against "the analogy of nature," and is like a human body without clothing and "exposed to aggressive, injurious, and outside influences," while Victoria is keeping up free intercourse between the kidney, the lungs, and the blood, and the stomach and the liver. There is, however, one other answer, though not of the same order, viz.: That Mr. Baden Powell is corrupt, and has been hired with gold by the British manufacturers to throw discredit on high tariffs by the aid of cooked statistics.

The Liverpool people are evidently not afraid that any change in British policy as regards foreign commerce is impending. Their own port has been built up by Free Trade, and they evidently expect Free Trade to continue. They have just made an enormous addition to their docks. How these docks have grown the Prince of Wales, who opened the new ones the other day, set out in some figures in his speech. In 1846 they numbered 27; they now number 58. In 1846 the area of water in them was 122 acres, it is now 543. The docks which have just been opened added 110 acres to this area, and 6½ miles of solid stone quay to the accommodation which Liverpool offers to shipping, which is not bad in the way of "exposure to aggressive, injurious, and outside influences." The chairman at the dinner, however, the chairman also of the Mersey Docks and Harbor, made a speech in which he made it plain that he thought one of the most important incidents in the history of these vast and splendid works was their having received some attention from the royal family. "These docks of the Mersey," said he, "which are not conducted for any purpose of private profit, but as a public trust for the benefit of the port, have enjoyed at other times the notice of the members of the royal family," and he then mentioned as among their foremost claims on English pride, that one was named an Albert Dock and another an Alfred Dock.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

THE remains of President Garfield lay in the Francklyn cottage at Elberon during Tuesday last, and on Wednesday were taken to Washington and placed in the rotunda of the Capitol, where they lay in state till Friday, when funeral ceremonies were held, President Arthur and Cabinet occupying the most prominent mourners' seats. Selections of Scripture were read by the Rev. E. J. Rankin, Congregationalist, prayer was offered by Mr. Isaac Erritt, and an address delivered by the Rev. Mr. Power, the pastor of the Christian Church at Washington. The exercises were over at about 5 o'clock, and the funeral train started for Cleveland soon after, almost every one at all intimately connected with the Government and its late head accompanying it, except the new President. The remains lay in state in Cleveland, where elaborate preparations had been made to receive them, until Monday, when they were interred in the Lake View Cemetery, the late President's wife and mother following them to the vault. The day was everywhere observed as a holiday. Services were held in all the churches. As noteworthy as any commemoration was a meeting of Americans at Exeter Hall, London, which Minister Lowell, Bishop Simpson, Mr. John Jay, and others addressed. The funeral decorations in this city have been remarkable for elaborateness and universality.

The expression of sympathy in Europe has been universal. The morning after the President's death the various consulates were visited by officials anxious to send messages of condolence to the United States Government and to Mrs. Garfield. In England the public buildings of the chief cities displayed flags at half-mast, and the church bells were tolled. In Liverpool, at the conclusion of the Cathedral service, the organist played the "Dead March in Saul," the large congregation standing, and many weeping. The royal standard was displayed at half-mast during the day at St. Martin's Church, London. The Lord Mayor, on taking his seat at the Mansion House, expressed profound sorrow at the news. Earl Granville telegraphed Mr. Lowell, "I am deeply grieved," and sent also a cable message to Mrs. Garfield and the Government through the Secretary of State. Queen Victoria sent a personal message to Mrs. Garfield, and, on the day of the funeral at Washington, a wreath of flowers. The English court were directed to wear mourning for eight days from the 21st. Messages of condolence were sent by the Prince and Princess of Wales, and by Prince Teck and his wife. The Ecumenical Methodist Council passed resolutions of sympathy. The people generally, of all classes, and the press joined in expressions of regret.

In Paris the official announcement of the President's death did not reach the United States Legation till the middle of the day; but all through the morning Mr. Morton had been receiving visits of condolence at his residence from officers and other people of distinction. The second meeting of the Electrical Congress was adjourned on receiving the news, and the foreign commissioners to the Congress went in a body to the United States Commission to express their sympathy. M. Cochery, Minister of Posts and Telegraphs, postponed his official reception. In Berlin the flags raised in honor of the marriage of the Emperor's granddaughter with the Crown Prince of Sweden were lowered to half-mast. The Emperor directed that his sincerest sympathy should be sent to Mrs. Garfield and the Government. The King and Queen of Italy sent messages of condolence. The Belgian and Spanish Courts were directed to wear mourning for eight days. There have been also messages of condolence from the Government of Holland; from the Parliaments of Victoria, New South Wales, South Australia, and New Zealand; from the Government of Italy on behalf of the King and the people, and from Cardinal Jacobini, the Papal Secretary of State, on behalf of the Pope; from the Swiss Federal Council; from the Municipal Council of Dublin; and from various boards of trade and private business men. Monday was generally kept in Europe as a day of public prayer, the services being timed, so far as possible, to coincide with the funeral ceremonies at Cleveland. The streets of the chief cities showed flags at half-mast, and the shutters of business houses were partly closed. The bells of parish churches were tolled. The Lord Archbishop of Canterbury, who earlier in the week had, in his official capacity, forwarded a message of condolence on behalf of the clergy, delivered the address at St. Martin's-in-the Fields. In all the royal palaces the blinds were drawn. The London Stock Exchange was closed three hours earlier than usual, and the American department was closed all day.

The autopsy performed on Tuesday revealed a wholly unexpected and unpredicted course for the fatal bullet. Entering the back at the right side, it fractured the eleventh rib, passed through the spinal column in front of the spinal canal, fractured the body of the first lumbar vertebra, sending small fragments into the adjacent soft parts, and then lodged below the pancreas, about two and one-half inches to the left of the spine and behind the peritoneum, where it became completely encysted. The wound was of a nature to ensure death, and had the locality of the ball been known, any attempt to extract it would have been futile. Hemorrhage from one of the arteries adjoining its track, rupturing the peritoneum, was the immediate cause of the President's death. The suppurating channel treated as the track of the ball was due to the burrowing of pus. The liver and lungs were free from abscesses, but marks of severe bronchitis were found in the organs of the chest.

Dr. Boynton, President Garfield's family physician, though not connected with the care of his last illness, is reported to have already begun an attack on the treatment of the case, and to have intimated strong doubts as to the perfect accuracy of the report of the autopsy, which he broadly hints was bungled, to say the least. Advance sheets of a review of the case by Dr. Hamilton in the *Medical Gazette* have been published. In the course of this résumé Dr. Hamilton says that from the first great uncertainty existed in the minds of the medical attendants as to the course and situation of the ball; that there were no evidences of malarious effects before the removal from Washington, but that the change was highly beneficial to the President's spirits and comfort; and that death was "sudden and unexpected, although in no sense unanticipated," and is fully explained by the revelations of the autopsy. As to determining the course of the ball by probing, Dr. Hamilton observes that "every anatomist will see that it was impossible." The "system of antiseptic surgery advocated by Mr. Lister" was rigorously employed, so far as it was possible. There was no time "in which we felt absolutely certain that what we recognized in the fossa as a point of induration was the ball." Dr. Hamilton avoids controversial discussion of disputed points in the main, and also says nothing in explanation of the confidence he at one time expressed of the President's recovery, which he prophesied from data which he then considered it only a temporary necessity to keep secret.

Guiteau was informed on Monday that he would probably be indicted next week. District Attorney Corkhill offered to telegraph for any counsel the prisoner might desire, and a telegram was accordingly sent to Guiteau's brother-in-law, George M. Scoville of Chicago, coupled with the request that Emory Storrs of the same city, and a prominent Stalwart orator, be also retained.

The fund for the benefit of Mrs. Garfield reached $312,903 86 on Monday.

President Arthur, who took the oath of office before Judge Brady of the New York Supreme Court last Tuesday, renewed the pledge in a more formal manner on Thursday in the Vice-President's room in the Capitol at Washington, the oath being administered by Chief Justice Waite. There were present ex-President Grant, and Senator Jones of Nevada, who accompanied the President to the Capitol, ex-President Hayes, the Cabinet, Senators Sherman, Dawes, Hale, Anthony, several Representatives, Speaker Sharpe of the New York Assembly, ex-District Attorney George Bliss, and a few others. The President, after taking the oath, proceeded to read a brief inaugural. In this he announced that it would be his "earnest endeavor to profit and see that the nation shall profit" by the late President's example and experience, and observed that "no adequate occasion is apparent for an unusual session of Congress," and that "the Constitution defines the functions and powers of the Executive as clearly as those of either of the other two departments of the Government, and he must answer for the just exercise of the discretion it permits and the performance of the duties it imposes." The reading of the inaugural was followed by a Cabinet meeting, all the members of General Garfield's Cabinet having, upon tender of their resignations, been requested to retain their portfolios, "at least for the present." On Friday the President issued a call for an extra session of the Senate for the 10th proximo. It is understood that the Democrats, who have a majority in that body owing to the resignation of Messrs. Conkling and Platt and the death of General Burnside, will complete the organization before the admission of newly-elected members, and that Senator Bayard will be made President *pro tem.*

The Republican State Convention of Massachusetts was held at Worcester on the 21st instant. Congressman Crapo of New Bedford presided, and in the course of his address advocated a civil service in which "continuance in office should depend upon real merit and not upon the urgency of Congressmen or politicians." The present State officers, headed by Governor Long, were renominated unanimously. The resolutions adopted call for a "metallic" currency, the silver dollar being made par with gold, for the "exemption of the civil service from partisan spoliation," for a free ballot and the rejection of Congressional candidates elected by fraud, a national commission for the revision of the tariff, national educational efforts "in States where illiteracy is most prevalent," a law defining a good method of determining the result of Presidential elections, a "wise and stable" Indian policy (the late Administration's plan of giving the Indians land in severalty being expressly approved), and the suppression of polygamy. The civil-service plank was the most elaborate of the platform and sets forth the convention's notion of the reform needed with great explicitness and some eloquence.

The Wisconsin Republicans met in Milwaukee on Wednesday of last week and nominated General J. N. Rusk for Governor, S. S. Fifield for Lieutenant-Governor, J. Timme for Secretary of State, and E. C. McLedridge for Treasurer. The platform denounces polygamy and further subsidies to railroads (though it admits that "corporations must be encouraged"), and calls for Congressional legislation relative to the counting of the electoral vote and to the question of Presidential disability.

The Republicans of the First Assembly district of Oneida county, N. Y., met on the 22d instant to elect delegates to the coming State convention, but failed to organize after much fruitless effort to do so. Consequently two conventions, Stalwart and Half-Breed, were held in the same room, the former selecting a delegation headed by Roscoe Conkling, and the latter one led by Samuel S. Lowery. Mr. Conkling will thus appear at the convention as a claimant of a contested seat.

There is a doubt as to when the term of Sur-

rogate Calvin of this county expires, and Judge Westbrook on Friday issued an order calling upon the Secretary of State to include in the list of offices to be filled next November that of Surrogate of this county, a petitioning complainant maintaining that Judge Calvin was elected simply for the unexpired term of his predecessor. In "municipal" circles the subject is an important one.

The annual meeting of the State Bar Association in Albany September 20th was uneventful, owing to the death of President Garfield, on account of which the proceedings for the day were dispensed with as far as possible, and all reports and papers submitted in silence, and printed in the minutes. The treasurer reported that the receipts for the year were $5,882 27, disbursements $1,527 07, balance on hand $4,355 20. After the re-election of the old officers the association adjourned until next September.

Esposito, the alleged Sicilian bandit, was sent to Italy on Wednesday, much to the surprise of his counsel, who had contemplated an appeal to the Secretary of State, and who characterized the procedure as a "spiriting away" of his client. No further action in the case, however, is threatened.

Mr. Peyton Wise, who is a brother of Congressman elect Wise of Virginia, and United States District Attorney L. L. Lewis, who is a brother of the Readjuster candidate for Lieutenant-Governor, met on the field of honor at Warrenton, last week, without fatal results. The quarrel concerned their brothers, but efforts at reconciliation met with no success. Both men fired simultaneously at the word, but whereas Lewis fired straight at Wise and, being unacquainted with the weapon, made a clean miss, Wise fired in the air.

The Georgia Senate passed last week by a large majority a bill appropriating $2,000 to the University of Georgia as the complement of an amount that will ensure free tuition at that institution.

Riotous proceedings consequent upon a railroad strike in Savannah, Ga., called out a proclamation from the Governor on the 22d instant.

Mr. H. J. Kimball, the Director-General of the Atlanta Cotton Exposition, makes the statement that the buildings will undoubtedly be ready for the opening on October 5th, the main building being four times Mr. Atkinson's original plan, and others proportionately large, and that exhibits have commenced arriving already. The expected daily attendance is 15,000, and 20,000 can be cared for if necessary.

A despatch from Camp Thomas, Arizona, dated the 21st instant, says that Sanchez, the leader of the hostile Indians and the head of the hostile chiefs, including the brother of Medicine Man, has surrendered unconditionally, with all his braves, and asks only to be represented by counsel before the military commission.

Another train robbery took place in the southwest on the 22d instant, Arkansas being the scene of the crime this time, three young men, "mere boys," as they are described, being the perpetrators, and their booty amounting to something over $30,000. The railroad company (the Iron Mountain and Southern) offered at once a reward of $5,000 for the arrest of the robbers, and the Governor of the State adds $500 for each conviction.

The prosecution in the notorious Malley-Cramer case, at New Haven, closed its testimony on the 20th instant, and the defence began to offer their evidence. On Thursday the perjury case against Blanche Douglass was postponed till October. On Friday another attempt was made to prove an *alibi* for the accused. None of the evidence introduced during the week has been particularly important.

Swarthmore College, near Philadelphia, one of the few Quaker institutions for the higher education, was destroyed by fire on Sunday night. It will be rebuilt, and meantime instruction will be resumed in temporary quarters in the neighborhood. The loss in libraries, general and private, is heavy, but probably not irreparable. The total destruction is estimated at $400,000.

The weather east of the Mississippi has continued very hot during the week, and two tornadoes of special violence have been reported. At Quincy, Illinois, on Saturday, a terrific thunderstorm unroofed houses, blew down spires and trees, and cut off telegraphic communication, with some loss of life. Elmira, N. Y., Sunday afternoon, suffered a similar experience, with the added discomfort of a flood. This storm is said to have been preceded by an earthquake.

The Michigan relief fund reached nearly $75,000 on Saturday.

King Kalakaua, of the Hawaiian Islands, who has been travelling in Europe for some time past, arrived in this city last week, and, upon being interviewed, mentioned that he had declined all demonstrations of welcome out of respect to the memory of President Garfield. As to Hawaiian affairs, he had little to say, except that to a small extent the result of his trip would be to induce emigration to the Islands. The countries, however, whose people he found most satisfactory, considered as possible emigrants, could ill spare any of their inhabitants, His Majesty observed. There is room, he says, for from 2,000,000 to 5,000,000 more inhabitants in his kingdom than there are at present.

A whaling vessel brought tidings on Monday to San Francisco of the revenue cutter *Corwin*, which had landed on Herald Island and explored it, and subsequently on the adjacent Wrangell Land, of which it "formally took possession in the name of the United States." Exploration was attempted here too, but the despatch does not indicate how thoroughly, or whether anything definite was learned as to the extent and insular or continental nature of this little-known region. It was found to be "desolate and sterile beyond description," with no trace of human habitation. At neither landing was there any evidence of a previous visit from the missing steamer *Jeannette*.

The Earl of Airlie, who arrived in this country a few weeks ago, died in Colorado on Sunday, very suddenly. Henry F. Vail, President of the National Bank of Commerce of this city, died on Thursday; he began his business career with Fish, Grinnell & Co. William O. Bartlett, a well-known lawyer and journalist, died at his country residence at Yaphank, N. Y., on Friday.

FOREIGN.

Twenty-eight thousand troops are said to have been despatched to Tunis from Toulon on Sunday. An engagement, described as "important," is reported to have taken place near Susa on Saturday, but no losses are given. Louis Blanc and his friends are to issue a manifesto urging the convocation of the Chambers to look into the Tunis affair. The Bey, it is said, persists in refusing his consent to the French occupation of the city, but agrees to their maintenance of a fortress in the near neighborhood.

It is now announced, or rather rumored, from Cairo that the recent Egyptian disturbances were "but a prelude to much graver events." The power of Araby Bey over his followers is said to be absolute; and it is even hinted that "the Khedive himself was at the bottom of the whole affair." Elections for an assembly of "notables" are to be held soon.

A very large reception was given Mr. Parnell on Sunday by the different branches of the Land League in Dublin. Mr. Parnell confined his speech almost entirely to the advocacy of home rule. A small riot occurred in Tobercurry, upon the release of Mr. Sheridan, on the 22d inst.

The Methodist Ecumenical Council closed in London September 20th, with the adoption of an address to all Methodists, read by Bishop Peck of Syracuse, N. Y., and signed by a representative of every Wesleyan body. The address recommends the views approved at the various sittings, calls for hearty co-operation in Christian work according to the traditions of Methodism, and declares that there should be a general call for a great spiritual awakening. The next meeting of the Council will be held in this country six years hence.

A Conference of Freethinkers opened in London on Sunday, Mr. Bradlaugh presiding.

At the International Literary Congress, now holding its sessions in Vienna, resolutions in favor of Anglo-American and American-German copyright were passed on Thursday.

The third Congress of Americanists, a society of savants and antiquarians interested in gathering information relating to America before the discovery of Columbus, was opened in Madrid on Sunday by King Alfonso.

The newly-elected Spanish Cortes met at Madrid on the 20th instant. The royal speech called attention to the need of a liberal interpretation of the Constitution in favor of liberty of conscience, and of reforms in schools and universities. The financial plans include the conversion of redeemable Treasury debts, and a petition to Parliament for special authorization to make a general settlement of the debt with state bondholders as soon as partial conversion and the general budget prove that Spain can resume full payment without new taxation. Negotiations for treaties of commerce, it is hoped, will be promptly concluded with Colombia, Venezuela, and other Spanish Republics, and also with France and England. The colonial relations are alluded to as follows: "The constitution has been promulgated and the previous censorship of the press abolished. In Cuba and Porto Rico the sons of those provinces enjoy already, as citizens of the Spanish nation, the same rights as their brethren in the Peninsula." The prosperity of the Philippine Islands since the abolition of the state tobacco monopoly was hopefully mentioned. The speech produced a favorable impression, and was followed by a rise in funds.

The Cuban Treasury has just reported that the expenditures for the fiscal year 1879–1880 amounted to $51,046,130, and the receipts to but $31,003,077.

The project of establishing a Papal Nunciate at Berlin is reported to have been abandoned, owing to the objections of the Evangelical Church to being put in a position of implied inferiority.

A despatch from Fort Amiel, dated the 26th, says that the Transvaal Volksraad has rejected the convention with England, as it was expected to do, but that nevertheless the decision causes excitement.

The Amir and Ayub Khan have at last come to blows again; and on the 22d, after the fighting had lasted from seven in the morning till noon, the regulation desertion took place—this time of two Herati regiments *to* the Amir—and Ayub Khan fled the field in the direction of Herat. The Amir has occupied Kandahar, and is reported to be planning a speedy advance on the capital of his rival. The battle cost but few lives on either side.

Intelligence from Lima *via* Panama, bearing date of the 17th inst., is to the effect that no substantial progress has been made towards peace between Chili and Peru, though the former had expressed great anxiety to terminate the contest as quickly as possible. Peru, however, refuses to cede any territory, which, of course, blocks negotiations. The centre of the difficulty is the lack of authority which the provisional President of the conquered country, Garcia Calderon, labors under, and owing to which the Chilians feel that any treaty with his Government would be a merely temporary measure. The Calderon Government, it is now said, "could not maintain itself an hour after the withdrawal of the Chilian army," and the Montaneros are reported to be increasing all over the country.

TUESDAY, September 27, 1881.

WHAT PRESIDENT GARFIELD WOULD HAVE DONE.

President Arthur said in his address on taking the oath of office: "All the noble aspirations of my lamented predecessor which found expression in his life, the measures devised and suggested during his brief administration to correct abuses and enforce economy, to advance prosperity and promote the general welfare, to ensure domestic security and maintain friendly and honorable relations with the nations of the earth, will be garnered in the hearts of the people; and it will be my earnest endeavor to profit, and to see that the nation shall profit, by his example and experience."

This shows that whether President Arthur has or has not clearly in his mind an ideal of what his predecessor would have tried to accomplish had he lived, he is fully conscious that the people have, and that he will best commend his administration to popular approval by endeavoring to discover and carry it out. It may seem at first sight as if this popular notion of President Garfield's promise was largely one of those visions of what might have been which sorrow loves to conjure up, and that his administration had really been too short and too full of trouble to leave his successor the materials for anything which can fairly be called a policy. It would certainly be difficult, even for the most commanding genius, to furnish in six months, half of which was spent on a sick bed, anything in the nature of an administrative model, and that General Garfield did this his warmest admirers will not pretend. It must, moreover, be confessed that a very large part of the time during which he was in perfect working condition was lost to the country by the unfortunate belief which seems to have taken hold of him almost as soon as he was nominated, that he was not strong enough to offer any determined resistance to the spoils system, and that instead of attacking it, it was necessary to the success of his administration to treat with it, and even use it, to secure support and assuage discontent. And one of the worst features of the spoils system is the amount of time it takes from our public men, in order to accomplish results so paltry and insignificant that there is no American who must not blush, on seeing them, to think that they should ever have for one moment occupied a statesman's attention. It took from General Garfield only too much of the three months during which he was able to bring all his powers to the service of the state. It is difficult to recall this without a touch of bitterness in one's regret, when one remembers that probably since the younger Adams no man has taken the Presidency with so good an equipment for its duties in the shape of cultivation, acquisition, and experience of public life. In fact the time he spent over the distribution of patronage may fairly be set down as pure waste. But he was, nevertheless, able to give the world an idea of his aspirations and aims, during his brief period of health, by enlarging the area of practical reform in applying and supporting its application to the Treasury Department and the Post-Office, and by actually keeping the New York Custom-House out of politics while the preliminary contest of the factions over the State Convention was pending. The funding operations, too, were carried out successfully almost immediately after he came into office, and the attack on the Star Route abuses of the Post-Office was begun. Of course, the Treasury and Post-Office Departments respectively are entitled to a large share of the credit of these things; but neither could have done the work without the instigation and support of a President who saw the value of it, and could have done it himself if necessary.

The true place after all, however, for those to go who wish to know what President Garfield's aims and aspirations were, and who seek to carry them out now that he is gone, is his speeches, and the legislation which he initiated or supported, while still a member of the House. It is here that his real views on great questions of public policy are to be found. It was these which made his fame, and which satisfied the country when he was nominated for the Presidency that if elected no great public interest would suffer in his hands. It is here, for example, that we must look for what he would have done in the matter of civil-service reform if he had not been overpowered during the canvass and after his inauguration by what seemed to him overwhelming practical considerations, such as the need of some sort of reconciliation and harmony between the leaders of the party which elected him, and the impossibility of bringing this reconciliation and harmony about except in the traditional way of "recognition" in the distribution of patronage. This was, in our view, we need hardly say, a deplorable mistake; that it was in his view a deplorable necessity there would be no difficulty in proving out of his speeches and writings. But that he too would have pronounced it a mistake and have made haste to rectify it, had he lived, we have no doubt. For had he recovered from his wound, he would have gone back to work literally disenthralled. He would have found himself so strong in popular affection, so completely delivered by popular sympathy from all bonds imposed by the envy or malice of enemies, so sure of his position, so confident that the best construction would be put on all his acts and all his omissions, that he would have felt perfectly free to follow wherever the reflection and experience of his life led him. He would, in other words, have found himself his own best counsellor, and there is no difficulty in ascertaining what the suggestions of his own mind would have been. They are set forth in the practical beginning of reform actually made, and in black and white in a hundred speeches and reports on all the momentous questions which have come up, successfully or unsuccessfully, for solution, since he entered Congress in 1863. There was nothing cloudy about his writing or speaking. In fact it is generally clearer than astute politicians would consider prudent, often perhaps clearer than General Garfield himself, struggling in the troubled waters of practical politics, found convenient. But it none the less contains a body of doctrine of which, taken for all in all, any American may be proud—such doctrine as perhaps no other man among us who for so long a period successfully retained his place in public life, could show. It is made up of conciliation and consideration towards the South, of perfect honesty and respect for the recorded experience of the human race in the management of the finances, of the removal of the civil service from the control and interference of members of Congress, of the substitution of tariff revision by experts for tariff tinkering, of the hearty recognition of knowledge and training as one of the most valuable of the national forces, and of the repudiation of rancor as a legitimate political influence.

If President Arthur, therefore, wishes to carry out either what a mourning people now vaguely think President Garfield would have accomplished, or what his recorded utterances justify us in believing that he would have accomplished, he will not confine himself to imitating what his predecessor actually did during the confusion of the first months of a Presidential term. The country will not be content with that, because it has made for itself out of the materials furnished by the whole of his career a better and more illustrious Garfield than the one who passed so much of his brief official life in an attempt to satisfy a faction in his own party. It sees now clearly enough that he was really a statesman, and that in trying to be a politician he mistook his rôle and wasted his powers. Moreover, nothing is more certain than that the bulk of the American people prefer statesmen to politicians, and would invariably give them the highest places if they could, and are delighted beyond measure when they find that, even by accident, they have raised one to power. That, considering the real admiration of the popular mind for first-rate political ability, statesmen so seldom get the first places, is one of the most striking illustrations which the history of free institutions has yet furnished of the difficulty of making political machinery produce the result aimed at. It is a difficulty, too, on which, much as it has been discussed, little light has yet been thrown. Our nominating machinery is still apparently in a condition analogous to that of firearms in the early days of gunpowder. A force of prodigious energy has been introduced into the field of politics, but the art of shooting straight and far with it has still to be acquired.

"CONFIDENCE AND SUPPORT."

There are certain demonstrations of the popular mind which repeat themselves with the greatest regularity at the incoming of every new administration, and indeed at the assumption of every great public trust by an American citizen. Whatever may have been said or thought of a man during a campaign or previous to his appointment to high office, no sooner is he invested with power and responsibility than the popular fancy endows him with all sorts of superior qualities, loftiness of character, profoundness of judgment, energy of will, etc.; and, as at the beginning of the war every little skirmish was called an important battle, and every movement of a brigade up a hill and down again deep strategy, so the first acts of a new man in power are almost always attributed to far-reaching schemes of government, and

looked up to with a peculiar kind of awe. At least so it appears in the newspapers and in the resolutions of public meetings; and from all sides the new man in power receives assurances of "confidence and support." This is a charming way the American people have of reconciling themselves to the inevitable. When they find it impossible to avert it they try to admire it and to dress it up with all sorts of fanciful excellences. In this good-natured spirit they have managed to get pleasantly over many a transition which otherwise would have caused them much trouble and anxiety.

These offers of "confidence and support" are entirely sincere when they are made; but the man who receives them, as President Arthur does at this moment, will, if he is wise, look to the history of his predecessors for information as to what they really mean. No new President ever entered upon his office without being greeted with the very same words of cheer, and these words cannot be assumed to have now a meaning different from that which they have had so many times before. Even the party in opposition has usually indulged in them as freely as the party in power; but it never hesitated immediately afterward to avail itself of every mistake made by the new President for its own advantage. And the promise of "confidence and support" by party friends never prevented the breaking out of more or less spirited criticism on their part whenever their wishes, hopes, and expectations began to be disappointed. In most cases such disappointments came shortly after the accession of a new President, as in fact they were bound to come, for the simple reason that the wishes, hopes, and expectations of different members or wings of the party in power were different and ran counter to one another. Then the admiration of the inevitable was at an end.

The promise of "confidence and support" at the beginning of a new administration, therefore, has never meant and cannot mean that those in power will be regarded as superior beings forever, and will be sustained in whatever they may do, but it means simply that they shall be credited with good intentions until they forfeit that trust; that there shall be no fault-finding merely for the sake of fault-finding, and no opposition merely for the purpose of embarrassing them; in one word, that they shall have "a fair chance." This is what the promise has always meant; this is what it means now, and in the nature of things it cannot mean anything else. Presidents who permit themselves to be carried away by the fair sound of popular acclamation, and count upon more than that, expose themselves to serious disenchantments.

President Arthur is in this respect not more favorably situated than were his predecessors; on the contrary, his situation is in some respects more delicate. Vice-Presidents who succeeded to the Presidential office, although their constitutional title was unquestioned, have in point of popular feeling always been regarded as Presidents of a somewhat lower degree than those originally elected for the first place. "His Accidency" has never been quite on the same level with "His Excellency." This feeling is sometimes apt to crop out in an offensive form when the course of accidental Presidents causes disappointment or provokes strong opposition. That it is not always just need scarcely be said, but it is an unquestionable fact that the promised confidence and support are more easily lost because of it. And here again President Arthur is laboring under some peculiar disadvantages. When a public man reaches the Presidency after a long career, in the course of which he has succeeded in making upon the popular mind a strong impression of his character, knowledge, and statesmanlike qualities, his drafts on public confidence will be considered much longer entitled to payment than when such has not been the case. The people hesitate to let the draft go to protest when the credit of the man who made it has been of long standing and general recognition. President Arthur's capital as a statesman so far consists entirely of credit advanced to him on his accession to power. There have been some items against him which in consideration of his delicate and proper attitude during President Garfield's illness were good-naturedly crossed out in the books. But he has no positive assets to draw against. Any serious mistakes on his part will not be regarded as mere unfortunate accidents, but as relapses. It is, therefore, especially important in his case that he should be very careful not to be misled by the sycophants who will crowd around him, as they have crowded around every one of his predecessors, to tell him that, if he only satisfies them, everything else will take care of itself. His most honest friends will impress upon him that he will have to act with far more than ordinary circumspection to save that "confidence and support" which are now so generally offered to him.

INTERNAL REVENUE OR CUSTOMS DUTIES.

Mr. Wharton Barker, of Philadelphia, has addressed an open letter to Senator Morrill, of Vermont, arguing that the time has now come for repealing all internal-revenue taxes. Mr. Barker thinks that we are paying off the national debt too rapidly, and that the public revenue ought to be curtailed, but only in so far as it is derived from distilled spirits, tobacco, bank checks, proprietary medicines, and other stamp and excise duties. The tariff, he argues, ought not to be disturbed, because that would be repealing the taxes which we levy upon foreigners. "Very naturally," he says, "our foreign competitors in industry, anxious to pour their productions into our markets, are prompt in suggesting that instead of lightening the burden of *our own* taxation we should diminish *theirs* by removing the duties now placed upon their goods." This means that when an American buys steel rails from an Englishman at $28 per ton and is compelled to pay $28 per ton in addition to get them through our Custom-House, it is the Englishman who pays the duty, and that he must never be allowed to escape. By repealing all internal-revenue taxes we should, of course, throw the whole burden of supporting our Government and paying the interest of our public debt upon foreigners. By parity of reasoning, if they should become like-minded and repeal their internal taxes, and clap heavy duties on imported goods, they would likewise throw their public burdens upon outsiders, and eventually all governments would be supported by taxes collected from foreigners—which would be a most convenient arrangement all around. If this is not what Mr. Barker means, he has been unfortunate in the choice of language in which to clothe his ideas.

If the present rate of taxation is kept up, Mr. Barker apprehends that the whole national debt will be paid off in ten years. This is, in his view, a dismal prospect, because in the first place when the bonds are all called in there will be no basis left for the national-bank circulation to rest upon, and because the finances of the Southern States are very much disordered, and it would tend to put them to rights if the general Government should release to them the subjects of taxation upon which it now in part relies, viz., whiskey, tobacco, patent medicines, bank deposits, etc. There would be, he says, some practical difficulties in the way, but they might be overcome. North Carolina, for instance, might devise some way to collect an excise on liquor so that it should be paid only on the amount produced and consumed in that State, and not be paid on any produced in Kentucky or Illinois; and in the same way as to cigars, lucifer matches, patent hair-restorers, etc., etc.

After giving due consideration to Mr. Barker's arguments, we do not share his apprehensions regarding the perils of an early extinction of the public debt. He overlooks one important fact, viz., that if the public debt is paid off in ten years the taxpayers will save about six hundred million dollars as against the plan of protracting it for twenty years. The debt is now about $1,500,000,000, and the annual interest (say 4 per cent. average) $60,000,000. At the end of ten years, if the principal is not disturbed meanwhile, the taxpayers will have contributed $600,000,000, and at the end of twenty years $1,200,000,000, and the original sum of $1,500,000,000 will still be due. Now, a saving of $600,000,000 is a very fair offset to the inconvenience the national banks may suffer in finding a new method to secure their circulating notes. As against a plan for continuing the debt, or some portion of it, permanently, which would seem to be the idea in Mr. Barker's head, it would be strictly within the bounds of accuracy to say that the plan of paying off the debt speedily is infinitely preferable to the plan of maintaining it forever, for in the one case a definite and in the other an endless sum has to be paid. To the superficial mind it may not be immediately apparent that the country saves the whole amount of the interest in perpetuity on a bond once redeemed and cancelled. Since railroad companies and municipal corporations find it to their advantage to borrow money and pay interest for long periods of time, why may not the Government (which is only a fiscal agency of the whole people) find the same advantage? The difference is that the Government has no means of investing money so as to yield a return out of which interest can be paid. The payment of its own debts is the only

form of investment open to it. The debt represents property lost and destroyed, and the interest on it is, strictly speaking, a diversion of the products of industry by the taxing power from one class of citizens to another—a process which is for the time being necessary, but which ought not to be protracted longer than is actually needful.

We leave to others the task of combating Mr. Barker's argument in favor of "free whiskey." We are of the opinion that the tax on distilled spirits, as a tax on a luxury, should be about the last thing repealed in the whole list of tariff duties or internal excises. The protectionists of course desire to get the public revenues to as low a point as possible in order to furnish a justification for high duties on imports; but if they run counter to the popular desire for an early payment of the national debt and excite the opposition of the teetotallers at the same time, they will have trouble at an early day.

THE POPE AND THE ITALIANS.

THE Italian Radicals are causing the Government a good deal of anxiety by their agitation on a matter towards which they know well the position of the Ministry is one of great delicacy, viz., the Papal Guaranties. These Guaranties are contained in an act passed in 1871, immediately after the transfer of the capital to Rome, when the Italian Liberals were still far from sure of their position, and overflowing with good nature even towards the Pope. They took Rome and the temporal power from him, but they were determined to show Catholic Europe that they were not the sacrilegious incendiaries they had been described to be, so that they went to work to make him compensation, and they made it on a very handsome scale. In the first place they settled an annuity of $645,000 on him. They next made his person as sacred and inviolable as that of the King, and allowed him to maintain a military guard, subject to his order exclusively, and to retain the Vatican, the Lateran Palace, and the villa of Castel-Gondolfo and the libraries and museums thereto appertaining. The Government bound itself, too, to protect the sittings of the Conclave during the papal election, and to allow the Pope to receive ambassadors from foreign states on precisely the same footing as those who are accredited to the King. To crown all, the act gave him a private postal and telegraphic service, which costs him nothing, and which he uses for his foreign and domestic correspondence.

The Pope's position when he was a temporal sovereign, and enforcing the obedience of his subjects with his own hired troops, was a very peculiar one. It became still more peculiar when, after discovering his inability to maintain his temporal power himself, he called in the assistance of the French. It is now, however, more peculiar than ever. He refuses to accept the annuity, and has never drawn one cent of it. He retains the Vatican, the Lateran Palace, and the Villa of Castel-Gondolfo, and maintains the guard and enjoys his personal immunities, but issues circulars about twice a year, in which he says he has been despoiled of his property, is restrained of his liberty, is subjected to the most cruel insults and humiliations every day, and cannot adequately perform his spiritual functions, and always speaks of the King in his ponderous mediæval Latin as a sub-Alpine usurper. He has been going on in this way now for ten years, and the Italian Radicals, who always opposed the Guaranties, are beginning to ask more strenuously than ever how long this burlesque of conciliation is to be kept up; how long the Government is going to subject itself and the nation to the humiliation of trying to placate an old priest who repays their politeness with maledictions and false accusations. There is a law of the kingdom which provides that all money due to the state shall, if not claimed by the creditors or beneficiaries within five years, revert to the Treasury. Under this, they maintain, five years of the Pope's allowance is already forfeited, and they call on the Ministry to use the money in public charity or education instead of letting it lie idle to the credit of a man who says its touch would contaminate him. They have been holding what they call "meetings," and very enthusiastic ones, too, in support of their contention. They have pushed matters so far that they have forced the Ministry to prohibit the meetings and promulgate an opinion in the *Official Gazette*, in which they announce that they intend to respect and maintain the Guaranties, which "have been embodied in Italian jurisprudence through the organic law." But, as one Italian writer exclaims, "this is the Ministry which at least once a year, from 1871 to 1876, thundered against these very Guaranties." It is true that the leading members of the Ministry were during the period in question violent opponents of the Guaranties, and this no doubt gives their opponents a useful weapon against them. But it shows, on the other hand, what few people out of Italy believed before 1859, that power and responsibility have just as sobering an effect on the Italian politicians as on those of the United States or of England. There was a similar agitation against the Guaranties when the Conclave which elected the present Pope was sitting, and M. Crispi, who was then in power, met it by a decision of the Council of State—an institution which the Italians have borrowed from the French—that the Law of Guaranties was part of the Constitution. By this decision the present Ministry now profess to be governed, whatever their views out of office may have been. During the excitement the rumor got abroad that the Pope was going to run away, which greatly agitated the minds of the faithful, as it followed close on the disturbances over the removal of Pio Nono's body; but it was promptly met by a semi-official denial from one of the Cardinals, with the addition that the Pope might become a martyr, but that he would never become an *émigré*.

He has, in fact, strong political reasons for staying, even if he knew of any place to go to half as good as Rome. The Italian Moderates are, he knows, anxious to come to terms with him, for it is quite certain that, now that the independence of the kingdom is assured, the Republicans are making headway. The monarchy cannot afford to rest any longer on the laurels of either 1859 or 1871. It has not as yet satisfied the popular aspirations, and at present it is doing nothing to satisfy them. It is sitting down calmly under what the Italian Democrats, rightly or wrongly, consider a snub or a series of snubs from France in the Tunisian question, and there is much reason for fearing that, in the great changes which are clearly impending all along the Mediterranean, Italy will secure no share of the spoil at all adequate to her pretensions, or, in the opinion of the Italianissimi, worthy of her traditions. Then it must be admitted that whatever may be said for the relations of the Government towards the Pope on the score of prudence, there is nothing to be said for them on the score of dignity. He is neither a ward, nor an ally, nor a subject. He is simply, the Radicals say, an insolent priest, living under the protection of the Italian laws and making a practice of insulting the state. They maintain, therefore, that if the Government cannot come to terms with him as a great spiritual potentate—and the effort to do so has now lasted long enough—they should reduce him to his proper condition as an Italian subject; that in the nondescript attitude they now occupy towards him there is neither credit nor profit. They are making so much capital out of this position, and it is really so strong, that the question of the Guaranties is rapidly becoming the burning question of the day.

The Moderates know very well how much explosive material there is in it. They know that no Government can long with impunity allow itself to be flouted by a *protégé* living on its own soil, and that the present situation is highly injurious to the monarchy and highly favorable to republican propagandism. They would, therefore, as the best course open to them, fain come to terms with the Pope, and thus, even if his spiritual countenance did them no good, have the credit of settling with him as a troublesome person. But he is apparently well aware of this anxiety on their part, and means to make the most of it. There are many signs now that he is open to negotiations, but he means to make the best bargain he can, and doubtless counts on the fears of the monarchists to bring him some day or other ampler concessions than now seem likely.

THE PLOT AGAINST LIEUTENANT FLIPPER.

WHEN Lieutenant Flipper was first arrested on a charge of misappropriating military funds, and some of the money was reported as having been found upon the person of his servant, and the deficit was subsequently made good, we pointed out that the public ought to suspend its judgment with regard to the transaction until it knew the lieutenant's side of the story; that he being a colored officer, the ordinary white view of his conduct must not be taken as conclusive, but that we should wait until we knew what the colored view was. We also suggested that if the lieutenant would examine the Whittaker case with care he would probably come to the conclusion that the true theory for a colored officer in his position to adopt was not that he must exculpate himself from the charge, but that the white officers who made it must show that it was not the result of a diabolical plot to drive him out of the army, or,

in other words, that it was they and not he who were on trial. We enquired:

"What is Flipper's side of the story? Is he unfamiliar with the Whittaker case? Does he not know that the prejudice in the army against colored officers is so intense that there would be nothing unnatural in 'putting up a job' of this kind? Did he never suspect anything when they pretended to like and esteem him very much, and craftily made him commissary, and entrusted him with funds, well knowing that the negro race is not accustomed to complicated pecuniary transactions, and can easily be confused about them by means of accounts, vouchers, and the like? When he was suddenly called upon to account, and stated that he had mailed his funds, did it never occur to him that his servant might have been bribed, and checks carefully prepared to look like those which have disappeared placed in his hands? Then the poor defenceless boy is locked up, prevented from communicating with his friends, and stories are spread abroad that his 'most intimate associates of late have not been the best.' And this, too, at a distant post, surrounded by army officers who loathe him, graduates of an institution where prejudice against his race is cultivated by officers of instruction, and where the mutilation of negro cadets is regarded as a pleasant pastime. It is pretty evident that Flipper has not 'retained counsel.'"

We have received from correspondents several letters asking whether these suggestions were ironical or serious, and in reply we may say that at the time we certainly intended them to be purely ironical and jocular. But since making them Lieutenant Flipper has retained counsel, and has written a letter stating his view of his case, which corresponds so closely with our suggestions that we shall desist from all attempts at irony with regard to it in future. The letter appeared in the *Globe*, the colored organ published in this city, last week, and contains a full account of the plot which we merely imagined for what it might be worth, but which the lieutenant lays bare in all its dastardly particulars.

Colonel William R. Shafter, the commanding officer of the post, was at the bottom of it. Colonel Shafter is evidently inspired by the most devilish hatred of the negro race, for he went about his work with an ingenuity which is only equalled by that of the lieutenant in unravelling it. Artfully beginning with professions of "great friendship," the colonel made him "believe in its sincerity" by retaining him in the position of acting commissary of subsistence, to which office he had been previously appointed. He was, however, "several times warned against him," and notwithstanding his belief in the sincerity of the colonel's friendship, "took every possible precaution to guard against him." But he adds pathetically that "the blow" came from an unexpected quarter. "I never expected him," he says, "to endeavor to strike me through my servant woman, who has been with me for three years, and who is thoroughly trustworthy and reliable." It must be said that in preparing to strike him "through his servant woman" the colonel began far, far away, and in a manner not calculated to rouse suspicion. At this time, the story begins, "there were four camps dependent on this post," and all of them were in debt to the Subsistence Department. He "told the colonel about this," and now the latter saw his chance. Craftily dissimulating his object, he called upon the simple-minded lieutenant for the funds due, telling him, no doubt in an off-hand pleasant way, "if he had any money" to "put enough with the other to make up the amount required for that month, and let him count it and send the papers off." The unfortunate lieutenant, in fact, had some money "belonging to the last fiscal year," and from this, in obedience to his wicked colonel's suggestion, he took the required amount. The next day he was arrested, according to the white account, while attempting to escape on horseback. The fact was, he says, that he went off for the innocent purpose of seeing a circus in the neighboring town of Chihuahua, where he was arrested by order of the colonel, who called upon him to "turn over the commissary" to Lieutenant Edmunds. He immediately said he would do so. The difficulty about "turning over" seems to have been that the part of the money which should have been turned over to Lieutenant Edmunds had been already turned over to the colonel, who now evidently had the lieutenant in the toils. He says: "You will observe here a deeply laid plan to entrap me, which I did not notice at the time, or I would have declined to turn over a single thing until I had put everything in condition. To go back, I had two lots of money. I took from one and put with the other a certain sum. I was ordered to turn over. If I had withdrawn this certain sum and put it where it belonged, I could not have turned over 'square.' I left it where I put it, knowing that the bills due would be paid and I could replace it. I made one hole to fill up another. Wherever I had left the hole it would have been discovered, but in either case there was no fraud."

We now come to the manner in which Colonel Shafter struck the lieutenant "through his servant woman." He says that on the morning of August 14 his quarters were searched by two officers, whose names are not given, but who were evidently decoys of the colonel's. They found a quantity of checks, letters, and telegrams, and for a purpose now only too obvious they went away, "leaving everything scattered all over the floor." The faithful servant woman came in to "clean up the house," and naturally enough picked the papers up and put them in her dress. Of course the colonel now appears on the scene, searches the faithful servant, and on finding the papers, with a round oath lets fall, among others, the following significant words: "I've got him where I want him."

The lieutenant was now put in the guardhouse, where the colonel came to see him, and with characteristic hypocrisy and treachery "was very kind and affable, and offered to do everything in his power for him." From his previous exhibitions of malignity it might now be supposed that he allowed the lieutenant to languish in the jail; but on the contrary this crafty man permitted the prisoner to see the "four principal merchants" of the place, and on his assurance that the lieutenant was innocent of any attempt to defraud the Government, these merchants collected and paid in the sum stated to be missing, and to this sum the colonel himself contributed $100, which, by the way, "was contributed to conceal his prejudice," etc.

What other officers took part in the plot does not appear, but probably the first lieutenant was in it, for Mr. Flipper says: "He hates me, and I have caught him at my window twice. He has trained his servant to watch me, and he watches me and my servant as closely as possible." "Even the colonel prowls around at night and has been seen at my windows."

The lieutenant has demanded a court-martial to vindicate him, but the *Globe*, in publishing the letter, calls attention to the fact that it is not Lieutenant Flipper who is on trial. It says:

"Colonel Shafter may as well understand at once that the day Lieutenant Flipper is arraigned before his court-martial he will be arraigned before the country, and if Flipper is proved innocent by his court, he will be adjudged guilty of the dastardly crime of attempting to destroy the reputation of a brother officer to gratify personal hate and prejudice.

"The American people are weary, very weary, of the antics of these gentlemen in epaulettes, who are educated at the country's expense and who, as soon as they are clothed with a little authority, proceed to set at defiance the will of the people as well as the laws of the land, and who, if perchance the Government introduces among them one who is not exactly to their taste, mutilate him at West Point or prefer charges against him in the wilds of Texas, and then place him in a felon's cell without even informing him of the nature of the accusation on which he is held."

This last statement seems to be a mistake, for the lieutenant says that he is charged with embezzlement. But that is a mere detail. The main thing is, as we thought from the first would turn out to be the case, that it is not Lieutenant Flipper who is on trial for embezzlement, but Colonel Shafter who is on trial for bringing charges against Lieutenant Flipper, and West Point which is on trial for producing such persons as Colonel Shafter.

THE FAIR-TRADE AGITATION.

LONDON, Sept. 12.

THE most important item of political intelligence is unquestionably the rebuff of Mr. Parnell in Tyrone. The main question before the Irish people at the present time is whether they shall accept the Land Act and endeavor to obtain all the good they can out of it, or whether they shall continue the agitation, with its accompaniments of violence and intimidation, with a view of carrying out the objects put before them by the so-called national party. Mr. Parnell and his friends, it is needless to say, are in favor of the latter. Accordingly, when a vacancy occurred in Tyrone by the appointment of the former member, Mr. Litton, on the Land Commission, Mr. Parnell determined to make a raid into the Ulster County and prevent the Liberal candidate from gaining the seat. His apprehensions are evidently the same as those so frankly expressed by Mr. Dillon. The latter, in announcing his temporary retirement from public life, admitted that the Land Act had taken the wind out of the sails of the Land League, and said that he foresaw it would be difficult to carry on the latter in face of the large concessions made to the tenants by the act. To prevent this Mr. Parnell, Mr. Healy, Mr. T. P. O'Connor, and Mr. Sexton have been vigorously stumping County Tyrone, and indulging in unmeasured denunciations of the Government. The Ulster County, one of the most populous of Irish constituencies, has about 8,500 electors, of whom between 1,700 and 1,800 are Roman Catholics. It has long been a Conservative stronghold, returning two Conservative members almost unchallenged, from the Reform Bill in 1832 down to 1880. At the election last year a Conservative headed the poll with 3,808 votes, followed by a Liberal with 3,500. A majority, therefore, of the constituency had always shown itself Conservative, and when it was known that in addition to these long-standing odds the Liberal candidate would have to contend with the whole influence of the Land League, backed by the Roman Catholic Bishop of Meath, it was felt that the enterprise was almost hopeless. Mr. Parnell's object was to detach the seventeen hundred Roman Catholic votes from the Liberal cause, and thus to divide Ulster into two bitterly hostile camps—Tory and Irreconcilable—squeezing out the party of reform by legal and peaceful means. Under these circumstances, when the numbers were announced—Dickson (Liberal), 3,168; Knox (Conservative), 3,084; Rylett (Parnellite), 907—and it was seen that the untiring efforts of the Parnellites had not enabled them to poll more than about one-ninth of the votes, and that the policy of the Land Act had detached between five and six hundred voters from the Conservative cause, it was felt universally that the triumph of the Government was signal and complete. This impression is not dispelled by Mr. Parnell's subsequent speech, or by the refusal of Mr. Givan, after a fortnight's hesitation, to accept the post of Assistant Com-

missioner under the Land Act. His acceptance of this post would have created a vacancy in Monaghan, and it is presumed that after his experience in Tyrone Mr. Parnell is unwilling to contest the seat.

Both the election in Tyrone and the other elections which have recently taken place in North Durham, North Lincolnshire, and Cambridgeshire, have brought out one feature in the programme of Conservative candidates which demands more than a passing notice. During the last few years there has been an inclination in many quarters to call in question the commercial policy of this country. First, the agricultural depression, then the French sugar bounty, more recently the negotiations for a commercial treaty with France, side by side with a slackness in certain industries, such as the Bradford woollen trade—all these causes have combined to bring this question to the front. Lord Beaconsfield, as long as he was alive, took care to keep the Conservative party free of all responsibility for raising the question, and spoke with contempt of his own protectionist speeches as "musty phrases." Since his death, however, there has been no one of authority enough to curb the more ardent spirits of the party, and at the recent by-elections all the Conservative candidates, three of whom were elected, dallied more or less with ideas and phrases which strike at the root of free trade. In North Lincolnshire Mr. Lowther, who boldly and unflinchingly advocated protection and denounced free trade, has won the seat from the Liberals by a large majority. Whether such victories as these may not be a cause of much embarrassment to the responsible leaders of the party, is another question ; the fact that they are won, and on this platform, is the significant fact.

Apart from these elections, there are many signs that this question will be, next to Ireland, the most prominent topic before the country during the recess ; and however unlikely it may be that any change in our commercial policy should be the outcome of it, the movement is too strongly marked to be ignored by an observer of the currents of opinion here. There has sprung into being a Fair-Trade League, as yet non-political, but with a number of names of persons from the manufacturing districts on its committee ; a National League, emanating from some of the trade and labor organizations ; and there is besides much discussion on the free-trade question in all the prominent reviews and newspapers. It should be noted that our neo-Protectionists do not profess to advocate protection, nor to doubt the benefits which free trade would confer if it were universal. As this is not likely soon to be, they contend that our free trade is "one-sided" ; that as we admit freely the manufactures of nations which will not admit ours, there is no "fair exchange," and that hence our manufactures and industries are being ruined, and our workmen starving for want of work. Their remedy is to impose an import duty upon the goods of all nations who will not admit ours on equal terms, raw materials which are necessary for our industries alone excepted ; and further, with a view to the full development of the empire, to put a duty upon food imported to us by these recalcitrant nations while we admit it freely from our own colonies. One's first feeling on reading this programme is that of comfort on finding that we have at last reached the logical outcome of these "velléités." After protection, after the talk about countervailing duties to meet the French sugar bounties, and putting precisely the same duties on other nations' goods that they put upon ours, it is satisfactory to have arrived at the goal to which these paths lead us : a tax on food. But here, I fancy, the difficulties will begin. These duties are to be imposed not because they are good in themselves, but in order to bring other nations to terms. But supposing they refuse to be convinced, what then ? The League, I gather, would not take it much to heart ; its objects are "the full development of the resources of the empire," "justice to our heavily-burdened agricultural industry," and the application of the revenue from the import duties to the reduction of local taxation ; and if these objects are to be secured by limitation of trade, they could scarcely be secured by universal free trade. This latter would not relieve the heavily-burdened agricultural industry ; as there would be no tariff, there could be no revenue derived from customs for the relief of local taxation, and there could certainly be no security for the exclusive development of the British empire. Under color, therefore, of a desire for universal free trade, objects are being arrived at which are essentially parts of a protective policy.

I have dwelt on the programme of the League less from the intrinsic importance of the body which puts it forward than from the illustration it gives of the inconsistencies to be found in all these schemes for applying the doctrines of fair trade, reciprocity, retaliation, etc., etc. Apart from particular schemes, however, let us look at the chances of any return to a protective policy. First, is the case made out of a decline in the well-being of the nation ? On this point Lord Derby's speech at Southport is conclusive. In the last ten years our imports have increased, our exports have increased, investments in savings-banks have increased ; the aggregate of property subject to the income-tax has increased ; the consumption of popular luxuries, such as tea and sugar, has increased ; while, in face of an increasing population, pauperism has largely decreased. The theory of the gradual impoverishment of the country thus falls to the ground ; and the only question that remains is the rate of progress, and it is to accelerate this that the Fair-Traders want to tax the quartern loaf. In my opinion, the proposal has only to be stated to stand condemned. A nation which has to stand competition with all the world must produce as cheaply as possible, and a tax upon its food means an increase in the cost of production. It means also a decrease in trade ; for a tax which checks imports must check the exports which go to pay for them. And besides, our working-classes have not forgotten the old corn-law struggle : they know that the effect of the tax would simply be to raise rents or keep them up to high-level mark. Taking all this into account, I do not expect any return from the policy of free trade ; but the question will have to be fought over again, and there are certain aspects of it, such as that of commercial treaties, which may lead to changes. But these I must reserve for another letter. H.

THE GERMAN NEGOTIATIONS WITH THE POPE.

BERLIN, September 7, 1881.

THE clerical question is once more the order of the day. Herr Korum, having received his appointment as Bishop of Treves from the Pope, has called on Bismarck at Varzin, has had an audience with the Emperor, and several interviews with Minister Gossler. On his return to Strassburg he went by way of Treves, where towards the middle or end of this month he will be solemnly installed. The hitherto insignificant priest, after having been acknowledged bishop by royal letters patent, plays the most prominent part in the affairs of to-day ; his coming and going is announced as an event of public importance ; at his entrance into the imperial palace the sentries shoulder arms, and the Empress sends for him and receives him on his passage through Coblentz. Bishop Korum, while mentioning that he read no newspapers, said to a Berlin gentleman that, being chosen to his present position, he should obey all the commands of the Church as well as the laws of the State. As, according to clerical views, there is a complete antagonism between the commands of the Church and the laws of the Government in clerico-political matters, it will be well to combine the above statement with a *reservatio mentalis* of the reverend gentleman.

So much is certain, that the Falk laws have been set aside in the present case, and the royal order of December 6, 1873, fixing the wording of the oath to be taken by the bishops, must have been dispensed with. The legal basis on which the royal letters patent have been granted is evidently the bill "De salute animarum," which in 1821 settled the conditions for the nomination of the Prussian bishop between Church and State. Those, therefore, who believed that the relations between Church and Government were still in an unsettled condition are disappointed. Herr Korum would not have gone to Varzin if he had not known beforehand that the question of taking the oath and similar minor difficulties had been removed from his path, and that the expense and trouble of the visit would be well rewarded by the Chancellor. This trip became of practical consequence only after the last preliminaries had been adjusted, and after it became certain that nothing but the last stroke of the pen remained to be made. Besides, Herr Korum was evidently the bearer of despatches from the Pope, the contents of which can at present only be guessed at. Their importance, however, may be imagined from the fact that an extraordinary negotiator has been to Rome in the person of Dr. Kurd von Schloezer, the German Minister to the United States.

As this gentleman is well known from his long and honorable residence in Washington, I shall allow myself a few words about him. Before he was sent to Mexico and to your country he was for about ten years, under Usedom and Count Harry von Arnim, Secretary of Legation near the Vatican. At that time the intercourse between the diplomatists and the Vatican was unrestrained and friendly, and, as there was no *Kulturkampf*, very pleasant, and even cordial. Herr von Schloezer, an historical student and a man of artistic taste and refinement, most cheerfully abandoned himself to the animating influence of this elevated atmosphere and won golden opinions for himself. When in 1868 he had to leave Rome his relations with the dignitaries of the Church and his connections with Roman scholars were of the most intimate character, and to the present day Herr von Schloezer has done everything to preserve and keep them up. Hardly a year passed that he did not, when on a furlough visiting Germany, go to Rome for a week or two. With his whole heart he clung to the Eternal City, and as he never expected to be transferred to an official position there, he prepared to retire to Rome after having received his discharge from the diplomatic service. While on his present furlough to Germany Herr von Schloezer once more made a flying visit to Rome, and on his return reported to the Chancellor that the leading persons of the Pope's court were animated by the most conciliatory sentiments, eager for a settlement of the present difficulties and peace. A more welcome message could not have reached Bismarck. To carry out his policy at home he must win over the Ultramontane party to his side and try to attain at least a *modus vivendi* with Rome. Herr von Schloezer is at present *persona gratissima* with

the Chancellor. Their past differences are forgotten, since the subordinate has repented and apologized for his former bolting. The superior knows that he can rely more implicitly on the penitent sinner than on dozens of untried followers. Consequently Herr von Schloezer has been at once sent back to Rome for the purpose of effecting an understanding.

What, then, is the object of his errand? He is to negotiate for concessions on the part of Rome in order to enable Bismarck to do away with the principal complaints of the German Catholics, and to fill the still vacant episcopal seats. This latter question is the most difficult to be disposed of, for here the views of both parties cannot be reconciled. The archbishops Ledochowski of Posen and Melchers of Cologne are beyond dispute, for the former will retire to a convent and the latter be made cardinal. In both cases Rome also admits a real vacancy of the seats, while those of Breslau, Münster, and Paderborn, in the opinion of the Church, are still occupied by their old incumbents, who were deposed by order of the Prussian Government. Take, for instance, the Prince Bishop of Breslau, Herr Förster. By judgment of a lawfully constituted court he has been dismissed for disobedience to the laws. Hence the Emperor can only grant him amnesty, but cannot bestow offices and honors of the Catholic Church upon a priest, nor elevate him, who is not a bishop, to a bishopric. From a clerical point of view, however, Herr Förster has uninterruptedly been and still is Prince Bishop of Breslau. There is neither a vacancy of the seat nor any hindrance on the part of Herr Förster to occupying the same (*sedes impedita*). The Pope cannot make him a bishop, because that was done by his predecessor, and the Emperor cannot acknowledge him as such if he has not been made a bishop by the Pope, who cannot do it a second time. In fact the Emperor cannot acknowledge that Herr Forster is still a bishop, nor can the Pope acknowledge that he is no longer a bishop. To do away with this contradiction, last year the Government in its so-called amendment to the Falk laws proposed that the King should be authorized to reinvest a deposed bishop with the royal approval; but this paragraph was rejected by the Landtag. Will Bismarck weaken the majesty of the law and resort to the only remedy left to him, in authorizing the bishops to return to their seats and to officiate as if nothing had happened? These gentlemen have, of course, not changed their views about their duty towards Church and State, which are just what they were ten years ago. After their reinstallation they may pick a new quarrel and declare what they consider right in their relations between Church and State. Imagine the position of the Government, which must either submit to their insolence or remove them for a second time.

We have still to hear of the concessions which Rome is going to make to Bismarck. Whether Herr von Schloezer will succeed rests on higher political grounds. Personally, he is very well adapted to his mission. In some of his characteristic traits he resembles Bismarck—does not care much for formalities, turns from one side of a practical measure to its opposite if he sees that he cannot master it according to his notions, and is not greatly troubled by his diplomatic conscience. In his manners he is easy, confounds his adversaries by a certain frankness and openheartedness, which, however, does not tell all he knows. He is intimately acquainted with the ways of Rome, wherefore he will not so easily be imposed upon and will do his utmost to gain advantages, as in case of good luck he will reach the height of his ambition, the new ministership to the Vatican.

But the obstacles in the way of a satisfactory settlement are enormous. Bismarck would ruin himself at home if he consented to the total abrogation of the Falk laws, which alone could secure a lasting peace. Besides, he has in the interest of his domestic policy acted with apparently undue haste in order to bring about a compromise, and the Vatican is too shrewd an observer not to appreciate the awkward predicament in which he has placed himself. When an official Berlin organ says that both parties had not desired the conflict, that in the heat of the struggle they had gone too far, and that it was time to bury the war hatchet, Rome, clinging to her old pretensions, accepts this statement as an acknowledgment of Germany's mistake, if not guilt, and arrives at the conclusion that she has still more to yield.

While thus little or nothing is to be expected from Rome's conciliatory spirit, Bismarck has kept a last arrow for his bow which may materially affect the pending negotiations and lead to his ultimate triumph. It is not yet known whether Herr von Schloezer has been formally instructed, but whoever knows anything of Bismarck's diplomatic predilections will not doubt that he will skilfully use the mission to his own advantage. You will remember the several ineffectual efforts of the Papal See to get its position guaranteed among and by the sovereigns of Europe after its temporal power had been broken by the victories of Prussia and the consequent occupation of Rome by the King of United Italy. The German *Kulturkampf* was caused by the Emperor's refusal to interfere in favor of Pio IX., and a bitter war on the newly constituted German Empire by the priestcraft of all Europe was the consequence. Leo XIII., having found out that the Catholic powers are not too eager to satisfy his cravings, now suggests to the same Protestant empire to declare the present position of the Pope untenable; to propose an understanding, according to which the Pope is placed under European instead of Italian protection, and to surround him with better guaranties in his Roman residence than heretofore. For this purpose he is spreading the news of his removal to Malta, and asks the good offices of Bismarck, who thus obtains a splendid opportunity of gaining a brilliant diplomatic victory. The natural consequences of a German interposition in behalf of the Pope will of course manifest themselves in the relations between Church and State, and may do away with comparatively minor differences.

A few weeks and even days will bring fresher particulars, if not the decision of the question. The Government seems to feel quite sure of success, for Herr von Schloezer's post in Washington has already, as I am informed by good authority, been designated for Count Herbert Bismarck, the elder son of the Chancellor. He is a young man of about thirty-four years, and only remarkable for being the son of an illustrious father, and for having last spring created the great sensation of the season by running away with or rather following a Princess Carolath, *née* Countess Hatzfeld, to Venice. However, the case is not yet as bad as it is represented by the political adversaries of the Chancellor. But how much is he *mutatus ab illo* who, on May 16, 1872, declared that if any clerical subjects of the King claimed not to be bound by the laws of the country, he would with all the means in his power uphold the full sovereignty of the State?

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FRENCH POLITICS AND FRENCH HISTORY.

LONDON, Sept. 14, 1881.

A FEELING prevails among friends of France that there is something unsatisfactory in the present condition of her affairs. Gambetta's position; the constant succession of weak ministries; the recent scenes at Belleville; the influence acquired by politicians who accuse Gambetta of want of energy, or of treachery; the attacks on the priesthood, which appear to many Englishmen at once tyrannical and feeble; the invasion of Tunis, and other matters which will at once occur to your readers, do undoubtedly cause friends of France (under which name we may number every sensible man) throughout England or the United States to feel considerable anxiety for the prosperity of the republic. My object in this letter is to examine, in the light not of any private information or of any special knowledge (which I assuredly do not possess), but in the light thrown on the present state of France by her past history, how far there is sound reason for holding that republican institutions are not working well, and that the present attempt to establish what is popularly called a free government in France is likely to end, like so many other French political experiments, in failure.

The bad features of the situation appear to be fourfold:

First. France has not by any means entirely escaped from personal government. You cannot pass a week in the country without perceiving that neither President nor ministers nor the Chambers fill anything like the same space in the eye of the public as Gambetta. In this matter the attacks of foes are more instructive than the eulogies of friends. Every paper is filled with Gambetta. Except accounts of the Tunisian campaign, the French journals contain indeed little else than comments, favorable or unfavorable, upon the conduct, policy, and prospects of the Republican leader. To say, as English critics often urge, that the predominant influence of Gambetta is no more dangerous to the institutions of France than is the influence of Mr. Gladstone to the English Constitution, is utterly to overlook the different positions of the two countries. Gambetta has founded the Republic. Mr. Gladstone has not created the English Constitution. It is, therefore, a simple fact that the prosperity, and even the endurance of the present form of government in France, may possibly at least be dependent, for the present, on the life and power of the man who is really its author. Moreover, history betrays a tendency on the part of the French people to fall under the influence of powerful individuals. Imperialism would never have struck its roots so deeply as it did if the ground of France had not favored the growth of personal government; and the danger lest the Republic should come to depend on the life of Gambetta is in reality only one example of the general peril to freedom involved in the inevitable survival under Republican forms of Imperialist, or it may be of Revolutionary, sentiments and habits. Certainly, when one sees notices stuck up by the Government that any one who asserts that after the elections more troops will be called out in order to carry on the war in Tunis is guilty of circulating false news, and is liable to be prosecuted for the crime, one feels that English notions of free discussion have not yet obtained a footing across the Channel, and that Republican officials probably bear a very strong resemblance to the officials (often the same men) who used to assert the rights of authority under the Empire. As long as imperial traditions survive there will always be a danger lest ordinary Frenchmen should create for themselves some idol who, under whatever name, may attempt to play an essentially imperial part. "What would happen," asks the *Figaro*, "if M. Gambetta chanced to die?" It is impossible to deny that under the

present state of affairs the question has some point, and suggests serious reflections.

Secondly. There are signs, though this is a matter on which a foreigner can speak only with the greatest hesitation, that the overthrow of the Empire, the calamities of 1870, and the establishment of the Republic, have not been followed by that moral revival which every sincere well-wisher of France felt rather than knew to be necessary for the real prosperity of that country. Whether it be the case, as is sometimes asserted, that in some respects the moral tone of the nation is as low as under the Empire, is a matter on which no one can form any judgment which is worth making, who has not a very intimate acquaintance with modern French society. The one thing which the outside public can perceive for certain is that *Chauvinism* has assuredly not died with Napoleon III. If the Emperor had undertaken the expedition to Tunis, every Liberal throughout Europe would have denounced his conduct. Common honesty requires that we should apply the same standard in judging the Republic as in judging the Empire; and if this be done, it is impossible to acquit the Republican Ministry of just the same sort of faults in their foreign policy as the errors which brought discredit on Imperial attempts to play the part of Providence throughout the world. Nor can it be denied that in each case the folly of the Government only represented and intensified the permanent faults of the French people. The desire to make a display of French power; contempt for the feelings of neighboring and weaker nations, such as the Italians; and above all, great ignorance of the real condition of the world outside France, are not novel features in French diplomacy. One cannot read a batch of Parisian newspapers without making the reflection that their readers must be both ignorant of and indifferent to the interests of other peoples. The press of London or of New York contains every day more news from abroad than is to be extracted from a week's numbers of the Parisian press. Moreover, this press is for the most part Parisian and not French. Its readers must hold the world to be bounded by the boulevards.

Thirdly. The Chambers may so lose prestige as to have no moral hold on the nation. This is not an imaginary danger. Both under Louis Philippe and under the Republic of 1848 as well as before the *coup d'état* of 18th Brumaire, representative assemblies became from one cause or another an object of contempt to the French people, and though the circumstances of past times are not likely to recur, the difficulty of maintaining the dignity of a large representative body is one inherent in the nature of things. There has been more than one period of English history in which Parliament ceased to command popular respect, and Frenchmen find far greater difficulty than Englishmen in tolerating institutions which have not a character of dramatic effectiveness. There are signs that the Chambers have during the last two or three years declined in popular estimation, and the newly-elected Chamber of Deputies may find it a difficult task both to exercise practical control over the actions of the Government and at the same time to avoid undertaking functions which no assembly can discharge with effect and with dignity. France may possibly be ripe for Parliamentary Government, but she is certainly not prepared to endure Government by Parliament.

Fourthly. The Chambers may not represent the real sentiments of France. Paradoxical as the assertion seems, the difficulty which Frenchmen have, from the time of the Revolution downward, found it hardest to meet, has been the difficulty of avoiding the tyranny of minorities. Taine's recent volume proves, if it establishes anything, that throughout the Revolutionary movement the sympathies of France were with moderate Constitutionalists of the type of Lafayette; and it is at least a probable conjecture that from that day to this the mass of Frenchmen have, as far as they had any political sentiments at all, inclined towards what foreigners call the Left Centre, or, to apply English terms not quite accurately, have been in political sentiment Whigs or Liberal Conservatives. It is in any case absolutely certain that moderate politicians of this kind have in France never as yet been able to hold their own. They have been overridden, at one time by Parisian Democrats, and at another by reactionists, and one certainly may entertain a doubt whether an assembly where Republicans are in an immense majority can fairly represent a country which twelve years ago contained thousands of persons who by interest and principle were devoted to the empire. This suspicion is strengthened by the fact, which must strike any one who has even the slightest knowledge of France, that there are whole classes whose tone of feeling is utterly opposed not only to republicanism, but to the fundamental ideas of liberal government. A stranger who stands at the Grotto of Lourdes while a body of devotees are adoring the Virgin, not to say worshipping her image, may well wonder how modern France can flourish or even exist, for she contains within herself classes as much divided in sentiment as were Catholics and Protestants on the night of St. Bartholomew, 1572.

It were easy to add to the list of bad symptoms which I have enumerated other causes of anxiety for the prosperity of the Republic. But while there is no good in shutting one's eyes to the rocks ahead on which the French commonwealth may make shipwreck, it is of consequence to keep clearly in view the circumstances which favor the success of the Republican experiment. One of these is the deep discredit into which the whole body of monarchical pretenders, Imperialist, Legitimist, or Orleanist, has for the time fallen; but of this I say the less, because it appears to me that the advantage to the Republic to be derived from the removal of all rivals is often a good deal exaggerated. If France falls into a condition in which she is unable or unwilling to protect her own liberties, fate will assuredly provide some saviour of society. If the older tyrants have left no representatives, some new-made despot is sure to present himself. The real strength of the French commonwealth lies in three circumstances, which are of permanent importance, and are independent of the accidents of the day or hour.

First. France is for the first time since the opening of the Revolution governed by herself. The Republic may fall, but no fair observer can deny that the French people under the present form of government are able to make their wishes legally felt in a way in which they have never been able to make their will felt before. The main accusation brought against Gambetta, namely, that he waits upon the wishes of the people, proves what is sufficiently apparent from other considerations, that at the present moment the will of the nation can at once make itself constitutionally felt and compel the Government to obey it. Since 1870 the representatives of the nation have been really supreme, and no one disputes that the nation is now perfectly able to control its representatives.

Secondly. As I have before pointed out in these columns, one political institution at least has at last taken permanent root in French soil. Universal suffrage has now existed for thirty-four years, and has become to all appearance as firmly fixed among the institutions of France as is, say, the Senate among the institutions of the United States. The importance of this fact can hardly be exaggerated, for it proves that under all the external changes wrought by one revolution after another, the political arrangements of France are at last taking a fixed and durable form. Such an event for instance as the "Jacobin conquest," to use Taine's expression, is, under present circumstances, almost as impossible as a legitimist restoration, for the victory of the Jacobins could only have been achieved under a system of double election which practically restricted the numbers of the electors, combined with the system of open voting which placed each voter at the mercy of a violent minority. The consciousness, further, that there is one institution which neither revolution nor reaction dare touch will, it may be conjectured, gradually free ordinary French electors from liability to recurrent panics lest the "bases of society" should be overthrown. It is at any rate worth notice that the establishment of genuine popular government is giving rise, as it ought to do, to demands not for revolution, but for specific reforms. Frenchmen who wish to establish a law of divorce, to modify the position of the judges, to do away with the concordat, to sever the connection between Church and State, may or may not be fanatics advocating an unwise policy; but men who agitate for a definite reform or alteration in the laws have at any rate given up the attitude of revolutionists, and are, whether they know it or not, entering on that path of bit-by-bit reform which for nearly two centuries has been pursued by every English politician who cared to carry into effect his views of national policy. Nothing is more marked in modern French history than the extreme practical conservatism of statesmen in dealing with the laws of France. The mere proposal of changes which could be advocated and carried with ease in England, would till recently have thrown all France into alarm. The reason is obvious: men will not amend the law while they still dread the outburst of a revolution. That Frenchmen should now quietly advocate legal changes is, as far as it goes, strong proof that the shocks, so to speak, of the revolutionary earthquake are forgotton. Frenchmen feel for the first time that they stand politically on firmer ground.

Thirdly. Gambetta's much admired and much decried "Opportunism" must, to any intelligent critic, appear of the best augury for the fortunes of France. Let it be supposed, as to me seems extremely probable, that Gambetta retains his democratic opinions and aspirations, and will, as far as he can, carry into effect his real convictions. This does not detract essentially from the merit of his policy. Opportunism, as I take it, is a rather awkward name for a principle on which we have in England and America been accustomed to act for generations. It means simply that a statesman must carry out his views in accordance with the will of the nation as opportunity arises. This is the principle on which every English Liberal, and indeed every English Conservative, always acts. Peel, Lord Russell, Lord Palmerston, Disraeli, and Gladstone alike have all been in Gambetta's sense "Opportunists." They have been willing to take as much of their own way as they could get, and have never, or very rarely, tried to go further in any path than they were supported by the will of the nation. They have carried out their own ideas by carrying the nation with them. This appears to Englishmen and to Americans so obviously the right course for any leader of a free people to adopt, that they have never thought it necessary to bestow on this mode of action, which it was assumed everybody must pursue, a special or distinctive name,

But no one can read French history without seeing that Opportunism is not only in name but in fact a new thing in France. Orleanists, Imperialists, and Republicans have each and all tried to force their policy on the nation. A packed Assembly, a regiment of soldiers, a Parisian mob, might, according to circumstances, be the means by which compulsion was applied. But Guizot, Louis Blanc, and Louis Napoleon, disagreeing as they did in everything else, agreed on the one principle that a statesman who had the opportunity ought to compel the nation to follow what he held to be sound policy. To reprobate this principle, which is really inconsistent with the government of the nation by the nation, is to advocate Opportunism. That the most prominent of French statesmen should be an Opportunist is a proof that in his judgment, at least, France has "come of age" and can manage her own affairs. No more hopeful sign has for years appeared in the horizon of French politics. A. V. DICEY.

Correspondence.

PRICE'S PRINT OF HARVARD COLLEGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: I note an error in the mention of the new volume of Proceedings of this Society in your last issue. The view of Harvard College given at p. 318 is not the print already published in the Harvard Book, but an earlier copy from the same plate with variations. By the way, the woodcut in the Harvard Book ought not to be called a *fac-simile*, as it does not show the dedication to Lieut.-Gov. Phipps and the long legend in the upper right-hand corner, both in the print copied for that Book.

The cabinet-keeper, Dr. Oliver, tells the story of the two prints at pp. 318–320 of the volume. The one of 1740 (used for the Harvard Book) was on panel, and had become discolored and warped. In making arrangements to repair it, the one now heliotyped was discovered under the first. It was carefully removed from the wood and restored. Naturally, the heliotype is somewhat dingy. The date of this print is between 1726 and 1730. The view was first published in the former year, and Lieut.-Gov. Dummer, to whom this copy is dedicated, went out of office at the latter date. It is interesting and valuable as the only known copy of one of the early impressions from Price's plate, and presents the earliest known view of the buildings of Harvard College. Respectfully yours,

GEORGE DEXTER, Rec. Sec.

MASSACHUSETTS HISTORICAL SOCIETY,
30 TREMONT STREET, BOSTON,
Sept. 24, 1881.

THE ETHNOLOGY OF GENESIS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: I wish to offer a word of criticism upon your review of Rawlinson's 'Origin of Nations.' You say: "He assumes exactly as rationalists do, that where the Scripture account says 'sons' we are to understand ethnological families. But what right has he, on his own principles, to give any but its obvious meaning to the plain language of the Bible?"

I would suggest that if the chapter (the tenth of Genesis) had been read, this criticism could not have been made; for at the end of each group the record speaks of families and nations in connection with the previous names. It concludes with the statement: "These are the families of the sons of Noah after their generations, in their nations."

Even in the case of Japheth, though all the actual names are but eleven, yet it is said: "By these were the isles of the Gentiles divided in their lands; every one after his tongue, after their families, in their nations."

The meaning "assumed" is upon the face of the narrative. Besides it is a usage of most frequent occurrence. All through the Old Testament they employ the name of the patriarch in speaking of the tribe or people descended from him, as Israel, for all his descendants, and the names of the twelve patriarchs for the tribes among whom Canaan was divided.

ELIAS BIRDSALL.

LOS ANGELES, CAL.

[There are two distinct questions here: What did the writer of the tenth chapter of Genesis himself believe? and, What facts do his words teach us? Upon the second point we shall not differ much from Mr. Rawlinson; but upon the first, after reading the chapter over again, as Mr. Birdsall advises, it still appears to us that the writer believed that he was speaking of real persons, the ancestors and eponyms of nations with which he was acquainted. For this reason he speaks of them as families; but that he regarded them as nothing but families we do not believe. Just so the Greeks believed firmly in the actual existence of Dorus, Xuthus, and Æolus, ancestors and eponyms of races with which they were acquainted. But, even supposing that we are wrong in this, the result is the same. Mr. Rawlinson's words are (p. 168): "Shem, Ham, and Japheth are no doubt persons, the actual sons of the patriarch Noah; but it may be doubted whether there is another name in the series which is other than ethnic." By what but a rationalistic process of reasoning does he make this distinction between these three patriarchs and their sons and grandsons? If it is proved that Elam, Asshur, and Arphaxad were only personified families—that is, myths—why will not the same reasoning prove the same of their father Shem?—ED. NATION.]

THE MORAL OF GUITEAU.

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: The horror and detestation excited by the assassination of our President are useless if allowed to spend themselves in words; they are worse than useless if misdirected.

For eleven weeks the President's physicians have been probing the wrong wound, following the bullet where it never went, treating symptoms. Let us not make a similar mistake.

Who shot Garfield? Whom does Guiteau represent? Is this a killing like those in Russia, that "despotism tempered by assassination"? Or are not the governments of Europe mistaken in supposing that the incorrigible populace has stricken down its elected chief just as if he were no better than a king? Let no man be deceived by etymologies. There are assassinations and assassinations. In this great republic the constituted authorities are (sometimes, thank God!) constituted by *the people*, and *the people* are willing to stand by them. The poorest man in America, so far from encouraging this crime, would have sold his shirt and risked his life to save his President. Did not millions of the poor watch with us by his bed-side and weep with grief and rage? Are not the raggedest of the land to-day refusing to be comforted because he is gone from us?

We must look higher up for the real assassin. Guiteau is the representative of political aristocrats, office-holders by divine right: Czars of all the custom-houses, New-World feudal chiefs, latter-day Bourbons, who forget nothing and learn nothing. Such men will rule or ruin. Let them disown Guiteau as indignantly as they please, yet the fact remains that without them there would have been no Guiteau. More logical than they, he has simply carried out their principles to an extreme, but natural, result. War upon the Administration was the order of the day, and it was not Guiteau who began it. Poor wretch! he is doomed to bear the blame which really belongs to them.

Every politician who cultivates party feeling at the expense of national feeling, who would bind his fellow-citizens by a discipline which is not and should never be of permanent obligation, refusing to them the right of independent judgment, and preferring the questions of the past to those of the present and the future—every such man is out of place in this nineteenth century. They who would have us vote with our party from mere force of habit, from ignorance, or from coercion, should have lived in the dark ages, before men dreamed of "government by the people and for the people." But here they are, right in our midst. The despots of old Europe sought to make their subjects mere machines. But these men keep up two great party machines, and we are nothing but spokes and rods and screws thereof. Woe to the man who attempts to clog the wheels—the wretch is torn in pieces. Many a one has thus been mangled and forgotten. The other day our President attempted for our sakes to break one of these machines up, and to-day he is a corpse.

Here is despotism. In Russia the despots are in office; in America they may be in opposition. That is the difference. Rulers are there assassinated in the name of liberty; here they are assassinated in the name of negro slavery and of party discipline. A.

Sept. 22, 1881.

WHAT IS AN IRISHMAN?

To the Editor of The Nation:

SIR: I am a plain man, as my writing will presently convince you, but I read the *Nation*, and I am in a tangle. I have thought that perhaps you can help me in my difficulty. It arises out of the question of the independence of Ireland, soon, if Messrs. Parnell and Rossa are true prophets, to be brought about by American subscriptions or "Irish-American" rifles. What then?

I was born in Dublin, of an Irish mother. Unfortunately, my father was English. I myself am Irish to the core, barring my naturalization as an American citizen. Will I be counted as an Irishman? After me my mother had two other sons, born in Liverpool. They have always been called Irish by their fellow-townsmen, and Irish they are in everything but speaking it. My mother dead, my father married again—this time a thorough Saxon (*my* mother was a Fitzgerald), and they came to live in Ireland, where a son, my third brother, was born to them. Sure, though, he cannot be a true Irishman, with never a drop of Irish blood in him? No less he is a Land-Leaguer, all his life, in Cork, and votes for Mr. Parnell. We have been always an affectionate family, and it disturbs me to think, in case of a war (most likely) between Ireland and Great Britain—well, never mind that! To put my question simply, How many of us are Irish? What is an Irishman? I may add that I have a son, not quite at years of discretion. He was born in this country, and his mother, of Scotch

parents settled in Ulster, is as Irish as myself. My boy calls himself a Fenian, whatever that may be, and hates an Englishman like the devil. Can you certainly inform me what constitutes an Irishman?

Perhaps the under-given table may help you to define our nationality:

	Place of birth.	Father.	Mother.
Myself	Dublin.	English.	Irish.
Patrick and James	Liverpool.	English.	Irish.
John	Belfast.	English.	English.
My son	New York.	?	Irish-born.*

* But of Scotch family.

While I am writing I may as well put in another question. I have some real Irish cousins on my mother's side, Connor by name. They are poor peasant folk in Cork County, and have scraped up a little (we sent them the little we could spare) to bring them here. They have not means to go from any port but Queenstown, and I am told that only English vessels take in passengers there. Can you tell me whether Mr. Rossa excepts from his dynamite intentions those English steamers which by accident may carry Irish passengers, Land-Leaguers or other? I would like my cousins to come safe.

I can only subscribe myself, at present, respectfully, AN ANGLO-IRISH-AMERICAN.

CURIOSITY IN ANIMALS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I noticed in your issue of the 22d the statement of the Abbé Galiani that animals have no curiosity. This seems to me strangely inaccurate. Those who remember the bronze statuette of the dog and the turtle will agree that the expression of the dog is life-like and full of curiosity. Dogs, as well as inferior animals, frequently show a spirit of enquiry. The attempts to separate man as "a curious animal" must fail, unless we give another meaning to the adjective, and even then, as always, it is a question of degree. Respectfully,

AUG. R. GROTE,
Ex-Vice-Pres. Am. Ass. Adv. of Science.

211 W. TWENTY-THIRD ST., Sept. 24, 1881.

Notes.

ESTES & LAURIAT, Boston, will reprint in book form, from the *American Art Review*, Mr. W. J. Linton's 'History of Wood-Engraving in America,' with additional chapters and some eighty-five illustrations. They also announce the following illustrated gift-books: 'Nature and Art,' poems and pictures, compiled by Louise Reid Estes; Tennyson's 'Song of the Brook'; 'Beautiful Wild-Flowers of America'; and 'Beautiful Ferns of America.' Their juvenile books embrace 'Young Folks' Histories' of America, the Netherlands, Russia, Boston, New York, London, etc.——From the latest lists we derive also the following titles of forthcoming publications: Macmillan & Co.:—'Poems on English History,' by Francis Turner Palgrave; 'Subject and Neighborlands of Venice,' historical and architectural sketches, by Edward A. Freeman; Kant's 'Critique of Pure Reason,' translated by Prof. Max Müller; and 'The Principles of Political Economy,' by H. Sidgwick. They have also in preparation an important series of short books on the rights and responsibilities of the English Citizen.——Cassell & Co.:—Milton's 'Paradise Lost,' illustrated by Doré; 'A Tour Through Egypt and the Holy Land,' by F. A. Hyndman; a 'Biography of David Cox,' the painter, by the late William Hall; 'Lessons in Landscape Painting in Oil,' by A. F. Grace; 'Flower-Painting in Water-Colors,' by F. E. Hulme; 'Figure-Painting in Water-Colors,' by Blanche MacArthur and Jennie Moore; 'European Ferns,' by James Britton—all these last embellished with colored plates. Also, 'Ostrich-Farming in South Africa,' by Arthur Douglass; 'Land Tenure in Various Countries,' by J. W. Probyn; 'Land Questions, English and Irish,' by Mr. Shaw-Lefevre, M.P.; and 'Co-operation in Land Tillage.'——G. P. Putnam's Sons:—'Little Mook, and Other Fairy Tales,' from the German of Hauff; and 'Lectures on the Origin and Growth of Religion, as illustrated by Buddhism,' by T. W. Rhys Davids.——S. E. Cassino, Boston:—'International Scientists' Directory.'——James P. Burbank, Salem, Mass.:—'Sounds and their Relations,' as exhibited in visible speech, by Prof. Graham Bell.——Dodd, Mead & Co.:—'The Renaissance of Art in France,' in two volumes, by Mrs. Mark Pattison.——John E. Potter & Co., Philadelphia:—'History of the War between the United States and Mexico,' by John S. Jenkins.——A. Craig & Co., Chicago:—'Nineteen Christian Centuries in Outline: a Guide to Historical Study for Home-Reading and Literary Clubs,' by the Rev. Lewis O. Thompson.——Houghton, Mifflin & Co.:—'Garfield's Words,' suggestive passages from the public and private writings of the late President, selected by William Ralston Balch.——T. Whitaker:—'The New Birth and Life Eternal,' by the Rev. Andrew Jukes.

—Under the title of 'Plutarch's Essays,' Little, Brown & Co. have had the good thought to publish a selection from the five-volume edition of the 'Morals' issued by them in 1870 (see No. 292 of the *Nation*). Mr. Emerson's Introduction is retained, and Prof. Peabody furnishes a brief but comprehensive estimate of the author's personality, by way of preface. The Essays open with "Concerning the Cure of Anger," and embrace among others that "Of Large Acquaintance," the "Discourse concerning Socrates's Dæmon," "Whether 'twere Rightly Said, Live Concealed," "Concerning Such Whom God is Slow to Punish," "Lives of the Ten Orators," the Laconic Apophthegms, and the Remarkable Sayings of Kings and Great Commanders. It is needless to add that the mechanical execution of the book is admirable (8vo, pp. xxx.-549).——One must not speak disrespectfully of early editions of the works of the New England galaxy of poets, and we avoid comparison when we say that the latest blue-and-gold pocket edition of Holmes's 'Poems' should satisfy even the author's requirements (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The two volumes, which contain so much that is lasting as pure and as humorous verse, are committed to the public in a graceful prefatory sonnet dated August, 1881, which seems to close the productive period of Dr. Holmes's muse, and to deprecate further "plaintive measures from a worn-out lyre."——In a closely-packed volume of 890 pages, 8vo, printed from the plates, Robert Carter & Brothers have put the whole of D'Aubigné's 'History of the Reformation,' and offer it at the low price of one dollar. The print, if small, is clear.——With a slight change of title, and with a change of publishers (Harper & Bros.), Mr. W. Hamilton Gibson's 'Camp Life in the Woods, and the Tricks of Trapping and Trap-Making,' reviewed in No. 597 of the *Nation*, invites anew the remark that, though complete, it is not always as humane or as manly in its teaching as is desirable.——Henry Holt & Co. have published another volume of Prof. Newcomb's Mathematical Series, entitled 'Elements of Geometry.' It contains all the Euclidian geometry that is usually studied in schools and colleges, and all that is necessary as an introduction to the higher branches of mathematics, together with the elements of the conic sections. The method of treatment is substantially that of Euclid, with such modifications as Prof. Newcomb has deemed necessary to adapt it to the modes of thought of the present age. Any extended examination of them would hardly interest the general reader. We can vouch, from a rather careful examination, for the general excellence of the work, and especially we tender Prof. Newcomb our thanks that we have been able to consult different portions of his book upon special points of interest without being under the necessity of learning a new vocabulary or a new system of hieroglyphics.——The illustrations in *Le Livre* for September are two interesting portrait-vignettes (of the Romantic period) of George Sand and Mme. Barthélemy-Hadot, a writer of historical romances, now well forgotten; and an etching after Etcheto's spirited statue of François Villon exhibited in this year's Salon. *Le Livre* promises a great sensation when the Memoirs of the Marquis de Sourche are published, as they will be shortly, under the editorship of the Comte de Cosnac. The marquis was *grand prévôt* of France in the time of Louis XIV., and left behind him a diary of eighteen folio volumes not intended for publication. On the other hand, the publication of Barras's Memoirs, in four volumes, is postponed until Mme. Jubinal can make up her mind about them.

—Gen. William Birney, of Washington, is preparing a work on the life and times of his father, the late James G. Birney, the first Liberty Party candidate for President, as well as on "the rise, growth, and success of the anti-slavery movement in the United States." General Birney requests "all persons having in their possession letters from J. G. Birney, or anti-slavery papers or pamphlets published between 1831 and 1845, to write him giving details." For the papers and pamphlets it would seem less laborious to spend a few days at the Cornell Library in Ithaca, or even a few hours over such analytic catalogues as those of the Wisconsin State and the Brooklyn libraries, than to invite so vague a correspondence.

—An attempt is making to compile a catalogue of the works of the painter Trumbull, and any information concerning his pictures and sketches will be thankfully received by Prof. B. Silliman, New Haven, Conn. Particularly is it desired to find trace of the original sketch of "Cornwallis's Surrender at Yorktown," presented to Jefferson in 1787–88, and the first and second renderings of "The Sortie from Gibraltar." The first rendering was given to Benjamin West; the second was sold to Sir Francis Baring, and not many years ago was owned by Mr. McPherson, the well-known dealer in works of art at Rome, on whose death it is variously reported to have passed to England and to the United States.

—The *Atlantic*'s two serials are the features of the October number, but, though the instalment of Mr. James's "The Portrait of a Lady" contains some of the best chapters of his extremely subtle, and, as now begins to appear, powerful, story, Mr. Howells is hardly equal to the expectation justly aroused by the beginning of "Dr. Breen's Practice." Slenderness of material is almost a necessary element in Mr. Howells's most eminent successes, but the absence of material can hardly be an advantage to any novelist; and the seventh and eighth chapters of "Dr. Breen's Practice" indicate that their author feels under the necessity of testing the elasticity of his subject to the utmost. Doubtless they but

bridge an interval between really interesting portions of what seemed at first an extremely promising story. Rev. Phillips Brooks has an article of a partly biographical and critical and partly threnodical nature upon the late Dean Stanley, which, being by the head of the American Broad Church party upon the analogous ecclesiastic of Great Britain, could not avoid being sympathetically appreciative, and is, in addition, interesting to the ordinary layman. "Carlyle's Laugh" is the subject of a brief paper by Col. Higginson, who thinks that the key to many of Carlyle's utterances is the laugh by which they were qualified, and which, he says, has been singularly lost sight of in recent Carlyle notices; and he concludes that "a satirical improvisation" is a better phrase than any other with which to describe Carlyle. Mr. White discusses "The Two Hamlets," meaning the editions of 1603 and 1604 respectively, conscientiously warning off all but students in textual criticism. A series of articles on crime and punishment is begun by Mr. Richard L. Dugdale with a paper the chief object of which is to show that "there are inevitable laws regulating crime which are above legislative statutes," and that civilization is not measured by the amount of crime coexistent with it. "River Driftwood," by Miss Jewett; "A Tropical Sequence," by Mr. Charles Warren Stoddard, and the second part of "H. H.'s" delightful "The Katrina Saga" make up the lighter excellence of the number. "Is God Good?" is one of the problems which Miss Phelps is fond of discussing, and of which the title sufficiently indicates the quality of the essay. The reviewing of the number is not important, nor is the poetry, from whose general quality Mr. D. G. Rossetti's sonnet, "Place de la Bastille, Paris," need not be excepted.

—Mr. Maurice Thompson, evidently a keen sportsman, introduces the October *Lippincott's* with an animated account of Grand Traverse Bay, Lake Michigan, which, Mr. Thompson says, is "the most beautiful sheet of water in the West," but of which he abundantly proves the attractions without rigidly confining himself to geographical facts. The next article, by S. P. Scott, is an historical rather than a descriptive account of Cordova, Spain, concerned chiefly with the past glories of the place than with its present characteristics, and therefore of the encyclopædic order of magazine articles. Dr. Oswald's seventh chapter of "Zoölogical Curiosities" is an entertaining account of the "Sacred Baboons" of India. Of the unillustrated articles, Louise Coffin Jones's "My Journey with a King" is a rather sprightly narrative of a Sandwich Island voyage; and there are a number of sketches and short stories of which but little can be creditably said. A considerable instalment of Sherwood Bonner's "The Valcours" is certainly no better than it promised, though it is original, and has considerable movement, which better novels often lack.

—Poetry fills a large space in the October *Scribner's*. There is the "symposium" of minor versifiers which the editor from time to time provides as a vent for his overstock; there is besides the conclusion of Mr. Stedman's "Poetry in America"; and, finally, Mr. Richard H. Stoddard discourses chronologically and critically of "The Sonnet in English Poetry." Mr. Stedman's paper passes a summary judgment on the poetry of the colonial, Revolutionary, and post-Revolutionary periods down to the appearance of Dana, Sprague, and Bryant; then rapidly characterizes the Knickerbocker, *Home Journal*, and annual and keepsake school; and finally reaches the truly national line of poets who began with what was undeniably American —the landscape. This leads the writer to make an ingenious comparison with the beginnings of American art in painting, and he ends by enumerating with more or less particularity the chief poetic names from Longfellow to Miss Lazarus. All this will read better in the book for which it is destined to be the vestibule. That Mr. Stedman, with all his delicacy and tact, has not escaped the perils of contemporary judgments, is indicated in the single line in which he speaks of having paid Whitman "as liberal and impartial a tribute—and one as churlishly received—as any that ever was awarded to the genius of a poet." Mr. Schuyler's "Peter the Great" is also concluded in the present number, and can shortly be read to greater advantage as a volume by itself. Mr. Burlingame's "New Phase of Napoleonic History" is partly a biographic sketch of Pierre Lanfrey, and partly an undiscriminating eulogy on his incontestably great and admirable 'Life of Napoleon I.' Mr. Burlingame pays too high a compliment to M. Lanfrey's impartiality, and the belittling view of Napoleon's statesmanship and legislative genius is far too hastily adopted. To the latter topic a recent Bonapartist work has been effectively devoted. Mr. J. A. Allen has much to say that will be found novel on the "Migration of Birds"—the causes of it, the times and modes of it, the "mystery" of it, and the like. On Darwinian grounds he strips it of much of its mystery, and concludes that birds "usually pursue definite routes, and are guided in part by prominent landmarks, or by memory, and in part by 'instinct' or inherited experience." He believes they "discern approaching meteorological changes," which is no more strange than that four-footed beasts should first be warned of earthquakes. It appears that the monthly weather reports of our Signal Service often make reference to the movement of birds. We omit many other interesting and finely illustrated articles in favor of the last for which we have space—"The First Editor," Mr. Theodore L. DeVinne's tribute to the literary and typographical achievements of Aldus Manutius. The origin of printing possesses infinite fascination for every cultivated mind, and Mr. DeVinne is sure to write agreeably about it as he has done on so many occasions. The interesting facts about Aldus are that "the forms of the single Greek letters that we have adopted are the forms which he introduced," and that he was the inventor of the Italic character, the model for which "he found in the thin, sharp, inclined handwriting of the poet Petrarch."

—The Messrs. Wiley have published 'A Treatise on the Calculus of Variations . . . designed to present in all important particulars a complete view of the present state of the science, by Lewis Buffett Carll, A.M.' The book is a large-sized octavo of 568 pages, with a preface and table of contents of 17 pages. The calculus of variations is generally regarded as the most abstruse and difficult branch of mathematics. The number even of college professors who have anything more than a rather vague acquaintance with its general principles is comparatively small. With the differential and integral calculus mathematical instruction, in the undergraduate course of all our colleges, ends. We are not aware that even this is required in any college. It is always an elective study, and is elected by very few. The differential and integral calculus, which the French usually and conveniently call the infinitesimal calculus, may be said to constitute the material with which the calculus of variations works. A knowledge of the former is a prerequisite to the study of the latter. Any further attempt to explain its nature, even to persons of liberal education, would probably be futile, and certainly out of place. Assuming that such portions of Mr. Carll's work as we have examined with care are fair specimens of the whole, we should say that it was remarkably clear, and fully accomplished its purpose of presenting "a complete view of the present state of the science." We have good grounds for asserting that every treatise of importance on the calculus of variations, in any language, every article in any mathematical journal, and every paper presented to any learned society, has been examined by Mr. Carll. The only systematic treatise making any pretension to completeness in the English language is that by the Rev. J. H. Jellett, Professor of Natural Philosophy in the University of Dublin, published in 1850. It has long been out of print, and is now so rare that it was only after a protracted search, and vainly offering many times its original price, that Mr. Carll succeeded in borrowing a copy from the private library of an amateur mathematician. Neither is there any treatise in the French or German languages covering the whole domain of the science as completely as Mr. Carll's. The production of such a work is alike honorable to the author, the publisher, and the American people.

—We think it will be interesting to our readers, and that the author will pardon us, if we mention a few facts within our personal knowledge which are not alluded to by himself in any part of his book. Mr. Carll was born blind. He has never perceived the faintest glimmer of light. After finishing the course of instruction at the N. Y. Institution for the Blind he applied, in 1866, for admission to Columbia College. He passed his examination with more than average success, and immediately took good rank among his fellow-pupils. Each year he rose higher, and in 1870 he graduated with the second honor of his class. Of the enormous amount of labor implied in this achievement we could give no idea except by entering into details for which we have no room. After graduation he continued his mathematical studies, pushing his investigations into the most recondite parts of the science, finally crowning them by the production of this elaborate and profound treatise. Mr. Carll has had considerable experience as a teacher of private pupils, and is abundantly competent to assume a college professorship. Any institution that should engage his services would be following the example set by both the great universities of England. They have repeatedly appointed blind professors, and always with the most satisfactory results. We regret that Mr. Carll cannot see the handsome form in which his publishers have presented his work.

—Tissot & Co. have been satirizing the Germans for the benefit of the *revanche*-loving portion of their countrymen, and half a dozen Germans have rather more honestly been relating their experiences of Parisian life. This has led M. Arvède Barine to discuss at some length in the *Revue Politique* the comparative character of the Frenchman and the German. It is a very amusing article, full unobtrusively of that self-complacency which the French, the Germans, and the English alike show when they write about their national character or feeling, which is as old as literature and yet is always as interesting for a humorist to observe as the "old, old story" is to a novelist. M. Barine makes some neat points, as becomes a Frenchman. His treatment of German sentimentality veils a clever allusion to that German invasion whose success the French find it so hard to pardon. His countrymen, he says, have been reproached as wanting *Gemüth*. M. Barine, half acknowledging the justice of the imputation, declares it is not very wonderful that they should, since the French are so much the elder nation. Heirs of the Latin civilization, they had a fully

developed literature and social organization at a time when the Germans were still in that poetic age in which drinking and fighting are the main occupations. What wonder if the French lack a little of the enthusiasm and expansiveness of youth? They have learned to conceal their feelings. Perhaps, after all, they have as much real *Gemüth* as their neighbors, but hidden under an ironic exterior. One wonders how this plea strikes those neighbors across the Channel whose insular coldness and impassibility the French are never weary of reproaching. The chief comparison is between the two ideals of marriage. The *gemüthlich* German, according to Hillebrand, founds his union upon *Neigung*, and is ready to dissolve it when the *Neigung* ceases to exist. The prudent Frenchman, according to Barine, marries without love, in order to have progeny, and as soon as these come the father and mother by common accord subordinate themselves to them, economize for them, occupy themselves in opening a career for the sons and preparing a dowry for the daughters. If the cultured German, to whom *Neigung* is the supreme law and self-culture the only aim, finds after marriage that he has lost his inclination for his companion, and has only prosaic sentiments towards her, what can he do but leave her, regardless of the interests of their offspring or any other ordinary consideration? Regard for his own development requires separation. The Frenchman, on the contrary, even if he has never had love for his wife and has lost esteem and friendship as well, will think first of all of his children; he will suffer a great deal to preserve an honorable name for them and save them from those insults, founded on their parents' reputation, which it is so hard for youth to bear. Conclusion: How much more moral, noble, and less egoistic we Frenchmen are, and how much superior our theory of marriage is for the family and the state, nay, even for the individual. Neither theory, however, quite satisfies an American. Our ideal marriage is founded upon *Neigung*, like the German, and our ideal married couple sacrifice themselves to their children as much as the French, *when it is necessary;* but it is not so necessary, because our children, again like the German, are independent, self-subsistent, to a degree unknown in France. Thus we unite the advantages of both nations and avoid their defects, and are able to regard our own character with a self-complacency as great as theirs.

FREEMAN'S HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY OF EUROPE.

The Historical Geography of Europe. By Edward A. Freeman, D.C.L., LL.D., Honorary Fellow of Trinity College, Oxford. 2 vols. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: Scribner, Welford & Co. 1881.

Mr. Freeman describes his work in modest, almost in disparaging, terms. Its object "is really a very humble one: it aims at little more than tracing out the extent of various states at different times, and at attempting to place the various changes in their due relation to one another and to their causes. I am not, strictly speaking, writing history. I have little to do with the internal affairs of any country; I have looked at events mainly with reference to their effect on the European map." It is easy to understand why Mr. Freeman uses these expressions. Several years have, he tells us, elapsed since the book was begun. It has been delayed by a crowd of causes—by a temporary loss of strength, by enforced absence from England, by interruptions of various kinds. "It has been impossible to make it what a book should if possible be—the result of one continuous effort." 'The Historical Geography of Europe' has, in short, cost its author an infinity of labor, and has caused him that special pain, too well known to any man who has the least experience in authorship, which consists in the feeling—often a purely imaginary feeling—that the writer lacks the power to communicate to his readers the knowledge which he has laboriously acquired and knows to be well worth communication. A book which has caused this kind of anguish generally either is the special favorite of its parent, or else is looked upon with a sentiment of something approaching aversion. The latter seems to be the case in the present instance. Mr. Freeman assuredly does gross injustice to his offspring. A candid critic will come to the conclusion that, excellent and meritorious as are all the writings of the author of the 'Norman Conquest,' he has never produced any work which at once exhibits his own special powers in a more favorable light, and at the same time renders a greater service to students, than does this treatise on the geography of Europe.

Mr. Freeman's special and peculiar strength lies in the forcible exposition of obvious truths. This may seem a very inadequate description of the merits of a man who, with the possible exception of Professor Stubbs, is the greatest of living English historians; yet, if our language be properly understood, it will be found to contain as high and as fair a tribute to Mr. Freeman's genius as any of his admirers can desire. Of no writer can it with more exactness be said that he enforces "truths." Every man errs at times. Mr. Freeman, like the rest of us, is occasionally the slave to intellectual or moral bias; but the most careful investigation of the many pages he has written would satisfy the most captious enquirer that he had propounded fewer statements which were untrue than any modern author who has produced anything like the same bulk of good work. A real love of what is true; an aversion to paradox; utter detestation of all the arts of a literary charlatan; freedom from intellectual trickiness, and, we must in honesty add, a certain deficiency in that kind of subtlety which tempts able men to play tricks with their convictions; and a passionate, though not excessive, zeal for accuracy—have combined to make Mr. Freeman the most truthful of historians. The truths with which he mainly deals may indeed be rightly called "obvious," if that term be used in its strict etymological signification—they are truths which "lie in the way"; but such truths, though always most important, are constantly overlooked: a thing may be obvious, though every man omits to notice it. Thus, to make our meaning clear by one example, it is obvious, when once the fact is pointed out, that while in a constitutional history of Europe England would claim the very first place, in a strictly geographical point of view Mr. Freeman is right in giving England the last place. Yet, though this fact has weighty significance, and is, when once pointed out, as obvious as possible, we suspect that every one of Mr. Freeman's readers will feel slightly surprised at the position assigned geographically to a country which, looked at from other aspects, occupies a different position. Here, as in a hundred other instances, Mr. Freeman forces on our attention an obvious but neglected truth.

That our author excels in forcible exposition is almost too well known to need being insisted upon. The plain truth is, that Mr. Freeman is as an historian a trifle too expository. The errors, or the possible errors, of his readers or of his opponents—classes which he sometimes confounds together—are too constantly before his mind. The man (if such there still be) who does not acknowledge that Charlemagne was the successor of Augustus and was not a Frenchman; that the English are English, and are not Romans or Britons; that France has no right, moral or immoral, to rule in Elsass; that Louis Napoleon was a tyrant in the true sense of that term; that a republic need not be a democracy; and other truths which were always obvious, and, since Mr. Freeman took their exposition in hand, have become familiar—plays in our historian's imagination the same part which "the infidel" performs in the fancy of worthy ministers who think it their duty constantly to address a wretch who is hardly ever found in church, and to expose errors which "do not deserve confutation." On the historical heretic Mr. Freeman urges, presses, forces all the abundant proofs of the truth of the dogmas which this unbeliever or misbeliever is supposed to deny, and sometimes makes intelligent readers, who have long been converted to our author's ways of thinking, wish that some of the force which is wasted in attempting to hammer into the public mind points which have already been well driven home might be employed in establishing or expounding doctrines which had not yet obtained, in great part through Mr. Freeman's own labors, universal recognition. His strength as a writer is always admirable; there is scarcely a weak line in all his pages. The only question which admirers like ourselves can raise is whether the strength is always employed to the best advantage.

Now, what makes us hold that Mr. Freeman's last book gives the very most favorable view possible of his powers is, that the topic curiously gives room for the display of his very rare gifts, and almost of itself corrects or keeps in check the defects, such as they are, by which the effect of his talents is sometimes marred. For, if we are right in saying that Mr. Freeman's essential merit lies in his capacity for enforcing obvious truths, there is no subject in the world which lends itself better to the exercise of this talent than does historical geography. Take, for instance, the following passage on the difference between geographical and political names:

"Some names of countries are strictly geographical; they really mean a certain part of the earth's surface marked out by boundaries which cannot well be changed. Others simply mean the extent of country which is occupied at any time by a particular nation, and whose boundaries may easily be changed. Thus *Britain* is a strictly geographical name, meaning an island whose shape and boundaries must always be nearly the same. *England*, *Scotland*, *Wales*, are names of parts of that island called after different nations which have settled in it, and the boundaries of all of which have differed greatly at different times. . . . *Gaul*, again, is the geographical name of a country which is not so clearly marked out by nature all round as the island of Britain, . . . but which is well marked on three sides—to the north, south, and west. Within the limits of Gaul names like *France*, *Flanders*, *Britanny*, *Burgundy*, and *Aquitaine* are political names of parts of the country whose limits have varied as much at different times as those of the different parts of Britain and Spain. This is the difference between strictly geographical names, which do not alter, and political names, which do alter."

Here you have a distinction which, once pointed out, is as clear as day; but it is a distinction which we venture to assert few readers have ever made perfectly clear to their own minds. Mr. Freeman marks the difference, and expounds it with such perfect lucidity that no student can for a moment forget it. There is not a word in Mr. Freeman's explanation too little or too much for his purpose. He exhibits, in short, the perfection of forcible exposition. It were easy to cite hosts of other passages giving proof of the same power. The point, however, which specially deserves attention is that Mr. Freeman's subject delivers him from the faults into which he sometimes falls. A river, a mountain, or a peninsula excites no anger. The

most pugnacious of men can hardly grow hot over the shape of an island. Mr. Freeman is more just to France than he has sometimes been to the French, and when he writes as a geographer displays a scientific calmness which he has not invariably shown as an historian. Moreover, the limits of his topic have given him that kind of terseness which he sometimes lacks when interested in historical narrative, or when excited by the desire to demolish every vestige of some hated error. "Paris is not only the capital of the kingdom, but it is the kernel round which the kingdom and nation grew." It would be hardly possible in twenty words to sum up more of the history of France than is given in this sentence. It might serve as the text for an elaborate essay. The student who should develop and illustrate all that is contained in this terse statement would find that he had mastered some of the most important phenomena of French history.

Of the service which Mr. Freeman has in his last work rendered to students no one can speak too strongly. His series of maps (which, by the way, we could wish were larger) is of itself a treasure to any one who wishes to understand the histories which he reads. Even among educated men there are few who have any clear and definite conception of the extent of the Roman Empire at different periods of its existence. Fewer still can at all picture to themselves the lands over which the Saracens held sway. To persons, who may be numbered by thousands, standing in this condition of ignorance, Mr. Freeman's sixty-five charts give precisely that kind of information which they need. The map, for instance, of the Spanish dependencies of Charles V. teaches us as much as may be gathered from many pages of Motley or Froude. It is possible from such a chart to see with one's very eyes what were the causes which made Europe fear that Spain should in very truth become the mistress of the civilized world. But it would be doing gross injustice to Mr. Freeman's work to suppose that the maps themselves, necessary as they are, constitute its main or most essential part. The maps are illustrations of the book; the text is no mere comment upon the maps. At every turn the book suggests trains of thought, strictly connected with the subject, which yet carry the reader very far into some of the most interesting of historical problems. Thus, geographically, as in other respects, the history of England stands, and is seen under Mr. Freeman's exposition to stand, in a very curious contrast to the history of France. "The divisions of the English kingdom have been singularly lasting; the land, as a whole, has never been mapped out afresh since the tenth century. While a map of France . . . in the eleventh century, or even in the eighteenth, is useless for immediate practical objects, a map of England in the days of Doomsday practically differs not at all from a map of England now. The only changes of any moment, and they are neither many nor great, are in the shires on the Welsh and Scottish borders." Nor does the contrast end here. England has remained unchanged in part because the English people have found means of expanding themselves over countries which do not belong to the geography of Europe. France, on the other hand, while she has varied her European frontier so constantly that the France of one age means geographically a different country from the France of another age, has, after constant efforts at colonization, conspicuously failed to found any new France in any other quarter of the world.

With this failure on the part of the French nation should be put side by side a failure of English efforts which contrasts with equally marked French success. Englishmen have shown an incapacity, of which the history of Ireland affords the most striking but by no means the solitary instance, to incorporate with England lands lying outside the English borders. The union with Scotland has been an undoubted success, but to effect the kind of union which now exists required, in fact, more than a century of effort; while every one now perceives that Ireland is not, and will not in all probability be for years, really incorporated in Great Britain. On the other hand, France, with all the immense faults which have till of quite recent years characterized the French system of government, has at all times shown a singular capacity for incorporating or assimilating annexed or conquered countries. The most ardent admirer of Germany would not have ventured in 1870 to deny that Alsace had in reality become as much part of France as Normandy; and persons who detested the intrigue by which Savoy was in 1859 annexed to the French Empire, were forced eleven years later to admit that when France was absolutely helpless the Savoyards showed no disposition to desert a country of which they felt themselves to be truly citizens.

The study of historical geography which suggests, in part no doubt also explains, the contrast between English and French history. The inhabitants of an island must, if they wish to expand their power, seek for conquests beyond the sea; and the difficulty of incorporating one country with another is greatly increased when the two lands do not physically join on to each other. On the other hand, a nation which, like the French, has been formed by the junction or annexation of one adjacent land to another naturally acquires the habit of assimilating foreigners to citizens. No one, however, will suppose that geographical facts give the final explanation of something like a fundamental difference in national character. What is certain is that the study of historical geography, under the guidance of a teacher such as Mr. Freeman, brings several marked differences between English and French history into so clear a light that they cannot escape the notice of the dullest students. Here as elsewhere Mr. Freeman, throughout this invaluable little book, affords his readers solid material for thought, and then does them the infinite service of forcing them to think for themselves.

RECENT NOVELS.

Ayala's Angel. A Novel. By Anthony Trollope. [Franklin Square Library.] New York: Harper & Brothers. 1881.

Somebody's Neighbors. By Rose Terry Cooke. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1881.

Homoselle. [Round Robin Series.] Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1881.

Patty's Perversities. [Round Robin Series.] Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1881.

Queenie's Whim. By Rosa N. Cary. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1881.

Friends: A Duet. By Elizabeth Stuart Phelps. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1881.

MR. TROLLOPE'S stories are apt to be quite as interesting to the reader curious about the society which is Mr. Trollope's material as to the novel reader in general, and perhaps they are more valuable as sociological material than as romances. Hawthorne was inclined so to esteem them, as Mr. Trollope himself recently testified. In this view a social change, observable since Mr. Trollope began to write, seems to be indirectly chronicled in his latest book, 'Ayala's Angel.' The heroine of his earlier novels, loving, dutiful, and self-sacrificing, ready to follow her lover's fortune, with the parental sanction, through good and evil report, becomes in this book an exceptional character, on account of her changed surroundings. She used to correspond to her environment, but the latter has apparently suffered such a deterioration that her commonplace virtues shine extraordinarily by contrast. Ayala's Angel is the ideal she has formed for herself of a not impossible he; her devotion to this ideal prevents her from marrying her rich and vulgar cousin, and at last brings her to the realization of her dream and her happy marriage. A counterpart to this is the marriage of her sister to a poor but rising young artist—a marriage which is rendered possible by the liberality of the rich uncle who helps to provide for the two sisters after the death of their improvident father. The contrast by which the picture of the virtue of the sisters in marrying according to the dictates of their hearts is heightened, is furnished by the love stories of their two cousins. The elder of these marries a member of Parliament, who only intimates his willingness to wed her after he has been satisfied as to the amount of her dowry. After his marriage he sponges on his father-in-law for a home as well as for an income, until he is fairly told to leave the house, having proved impervious to hints. A second adventurer seeks the remaining daughter, first writing to the woman he loves that it will be impossible for them to marry on their income. He proposes to the heiress's father accordingly, but is told that, though he may have the young woman, all question of dowry must be left in abeyance. After long delay and much manœuvring, the lover, unable to trust the lady's assurance that she will have as large a dowry as her sister, lamely enough withdraws his suit and returns to his first love, whom he tells he would, on the whole, prefer her and poverty, in any case. The forsaken heiress, after a frustrated elopement, does finally hold a fortune-hunter to his word and get married. The greed of money has often been the theme of novels, but, so far as we know, it has never been treated in precisely this way heretofore—unless in Gilbert's farce "Engaged," in which those who have witnessed it may remember there is the same complete cynical understanding between the lovers, and the same open and frank discussion of material ways and means, to the exclusion of what is generally considered natural to their condition. It is doubtless possible for a woman to appreciate her lover's sordid motives, and at the same time devote herself to proving to her suitor that he will probably be successful; and it is certainly possible that a man may admit to himself that he is seeking only the money of his beloved; but it is hardly likely that he would make a more open confession to the woman he really loves than he would to himself, and equally doubtful that she would write him her determination never to meet his future wife, but that, if he should repent of his worldliness, and return to her, she would still be ready to marry him. If Mr. Trollope's aim were satirical, one might exclaim at his cynicism; the only other view to take of the moral of his book is that he has been guilty of unnatural exaggeration—which is a new view, certainly, to take of any of Mr. Trollope's works.

All of Mrs. Rose Terry Cooke's stories that are collected under the title of 'Somebody's Neighbors' have appeared in various magazines, and all deal with various shades of New England character. With this the author abundantly shows her intimate familiarity, and her ability to depict it effectively is not, perhaps, noticeably inferior. "Freedom Wheeler's Controversy with Providence" and "Miss Lucinda" are the best of the stories, being free from the slight tendency to sentimentality that can be noticed in many of the others. This, however, becomes

noticeable chiefly in the collection and might not be felt at all in a single story.

'Homoselle' is a story of Southern life before the war. The hero is a young Englishman visiting a Southern major. The heroine, Homoselle, is the daughter of a neighboring planter much reduced in circumstances by personal as well as ancestral extravagances. The rest of the family consist of the planter's unmarried sister, slightly older than her niece, and very much of a coquette; his nephew; his grandson; the latter's nurse, who, it is hinted, is also the planter's daughter; and slaves *ad libitum*. The remaining characters are a free negro of a savage character and a New England abolitionist, who together contrive and lead a negro insurrection, which is frustrated by the Englishman in conjunction with the nurse, who has fallen in love with him and whom he uses as a spy. The love story's course is troubled by the jealousy of the aunt aforesaid, who at first mistakes herself for the object of the Englishman's attentions, and of the nephew, who wishes to appropriate his cousin's affections to himself. Of course everything ends happily, however, and the major leaves all his money to the young couple.

Extravagances of every description pervade 'Patty's Perversities.' "Patty" is, of course, the heroine of the tale, and her "perversities" consist chiefly in encouraging all the lovers she dislikes, and snubbing systematically the one she does love, for no reason that can be set forth more concisely than the author has done it. The successful lover is projected as a softened Rochester, but appears to the reader as a humdrum lawyer, resentful of no ill-treatment and meekly inclined to accept the matrimonial yoke when his mistress's perversities finally suggest that consummation. There are a sharp young lady with dyspepsia, who deals in epigrams and is addicted to a constant consumption of popcorn, a bowl of which she always carries with her; a matron of extreme silliness, who directs her life by the aid of proverbs; a comic servant, and, finally, a most extravagant mystery, whose complications are so intricate and the elucidation of which leads to so little that it is really difficult to tell what it is all about.

'Queenie's Whim' relates the adventures of two orphan sisters, the elder of whom supports the younger by teaching. They find a friend in one of the boarders at the school where they are oppressed, who invites them to visit her in her country home. There the opportunity of taking the village school at a comfortable salary is accepted, when "Queenie" falls heir to an immense fortune, which fact it is her "whim" to conceal for a year and still to appear among her friends as the village schoolmistress. Of course her reason is the dislike of her friend's brother for heiresses, and of course she does not acknowledge it. It is needless to state that this brother's affairs become involved soon after, and "Queenie" induces the rector to lend the gentleman £2,000 of her money in his own name. The rector's sister inadvertently discloses the true source of the loan, and the beneficiary, who has by this time fallen in love with "Queenie," decides that he must discharge his debt before breathing his devotion. This a legacy enables him to do with but little delay. An epitome of such a story is in itself a characterization, and it need only be added that the writer's English is occasionally susceptible of improvement.

It is difficult to say anything of Miss Phelps's latest work, and her work is so well known that it is perhaps as unnecessary as it is difficult. 'Friends' is in all essential respects precisely similar to 'The Story of Avis,' and the mental process of the average intelligent person, upon taking it up, will doubtless be an endeavor, more or less conscious, to account for its idiosyncrasies, and to seek the sufficient reasons which, one reflects, must exist for the evident fact that these are found printable. Such an effort will, however, be either fruitless or expensive, we are persuaded. The "psychical problem," as a reviewer calls it, dealt with by the book is the question of second marriages. Mrs. Reliance Strong is told of her husband's death by Mr. Charles Nordhall in the first chapter, and agrees to marry that gentleman in the last. Among Miss Phelps's admirers this termination has created some scandal, we believe, but there are evidences throughout the book that the author would have held her heroine to her ideal if fate had not been against her. We cannot convey a better notion of the book than by quoting the following:

"Her manner changed. She led him quickly to the sofa, and softly said—

"'You have done too much. I will bring you a cup of coffee this moment. Do not stir till you get it.'

"This was all; yet it seemed to him that she said an inhuman thing. She was kind—oh, as kind as love; yet it seemed to him that she had been cruel as the grave."

This, one concludes, is what comes of Puritan intensity driven in upon itself, and raises questions impossible to settle in a short time or small space.

Experiences of Pioneer Life in the Early Settlements and Cities of the West. By James B. Walker. Chicago: Sumner & Co. 1881. 12mo, pp. 310.

Mr. Walker is the author of a work on the 'Philosophy of the Plan of Salvation,' which, translated into divers tongues, he says has "circulated more widely through Christendom . . . than any other argument in behalf of Divine Revelation," or indeed, "than any American book." He was, as we are left to infer, born in 1805, and his earliest recollections are of the "Indian country" of Pennsylvania—that is, the region west of the Alleghanies—in the neighborhood of Fort Pitt, now Pittsburg. Here he awoke to consciousness in a log cabin, and sixty years later he voluntarily withdrew from ease and comfort to occupy another log cabin in the wilds of Michigan, while founding an agricultural college and trying to build up a settlement. In the interval he had been editor of several religious and secular newspapers, travelling agent of the American Bible Society, teacher and professor, pastor of numerous churches in Ohio and Indiana, establishing some and reviving others, had visited Europe more than once, and, having no children of his own, had adopted one after another till he reckons up a total of ten. This, if not "so varied an experience" that "few persons living in the world have passed through" the like of it, could hardly be so dull as not to furnish some interesting reminiscences. In fact, the book before us abounds in anecdotes and incidents which fix the reader's attention almost from beginning to end (as the author anticipates in his preface), and which the student either of American history during the present century, or of American character, will find sufficiently instructive.

At the Sabbath-school of Mr. Walker's childhood he was taught to read, write, and cipher, and his pious mother's hesitation about sending him there arose not from this worldly instruction, but from the fact that it was without fee, and therefore, to the pride of those unused to public schools, a charity. The small money of that day, when not storekeepers' shinplasters, was pieces of five—a sixpence if cut from a Spanish quarter; a shilling if from a half-dollar. It speaks volumes in regard to the social habits and standards of the period that when the boy once received a *whole* half-dollar as a gift from a stranger, his grandfather advised that "the money should be expended for a treat all round in the factory" in which he was employed, and that half of it actually went to procure a half gallon of whiskey for this purpose. Near the Virginia border the brutal contests of rival bullies were a common occurrence, and in one of them Mr. Walker's Irish Protestant schoolmaster participated, with the loss of a part of his lip. A rustic gathering of which we do not remember to have read before was the "kicking frolic," for the fulling of the home-made woollens:

"The woollen web was saturated with soap and water, and thrown down in an emulsient mass upon a clean space in the centre of the cabin floor. The men of the neighborhood—especially the young men—rolled their pantaloons up to their knees, and with bare feet sat in a circle on the floor around the woollen web in the centre. At a given signal each one commenced kicking vigorously upon the web, and his kicks were met by equal ones from the opposite operator. It became a matter of muscular endeavor by each one not to be kicked back on the floor by his antagonist; hence quick, prolonged, and spasmodic kicking was paid out upon the web in the centre, which was occasionally plied by the laughing house-women with additional soap and warm water. The result was that the flannel was thoroughly fulled, the operators thoroughly saturated with sweat, soap and water; and a general and somewhat vociferous laughter was induced, which shook the sides of all present, and promoted appetite for the homely but wholesome meal which followed" (p. 15).

Mr. Walker was an anti-slavery preacher, as he could hardly help being, after receiving his education at the Western Reserve College, while President Storrs was still alive and Beriah Green and Elizur Wright were among the professors. He boarded in the family of Owen Brown, John Brown's father, and first met the hero of Harper's Ferry at a prayer-meeting. With Frederick Brown, the brother, he made a land-speculating tour in the northwest, of which the account is amusingly graphic. As editor and preacher he had his trials and persecutions because he would not be silent as to slavery, unlike Dr. Lyman Beecher, whose "people were anxious to hear things said that he believed but did not say" (p. 219). At Aurora, Ohio, the mob on one occasion (it is a fault of this book that dates are generally omitted) rang the church bell while he was speaking below, shattered the church windows by the concussion of continuously discharged fire-arms, and finally "got above the audience-room and broke the ceiling through in several places. Through these holes in the ceiling they poured down powder upon the church floor, and upon this they dropped fire, which produced explosions that would have ignited and destroyed the building . . ." Mr. Walker's testimony as to the pro-slavery guilt of the churches of all denominations is candid enough, if not vehement enough, to satisfy the late Stephen Foster himself; and he has not a word in regard to the "infidelity" of the Abolitionists.

The conversions and revivals which this narrative records are treated of without tedium, and with much frankness and shrewd sense. Mr. Walker's Ohio neighbors, of New England origin, fell victims, like the native stock at home, to Millerism, and some of them to Mormonism. One case of conversion to Adventism and then to Shakerism appears to have been Divine retribution for being one of the managers of a ball. Our author was a colleague in this bad business, and though he was not instantly removed by death, like a third, nor converted to Spiritualism and then led to commit suicide, like a fourth manager, it is pretty clear that he was punished by having a congregation he had built up with care at Akron go over *en masse* to Millerism after he had left it. Providence had a way of making travelling

very uncomfortable for him when he was shifting about without what the Quakers call "a right concern"; and, profiting by experience, he agreed with his flock at New Richmond, Indiana, "to go on board the packet with my goods, and if anything occurred before I got to Portsmouth I would return and take my place again at Richmond. . . . But the boat landed us safely at Portsmouth."

How difficult it was to bring either reason or Scripture to bear on Mormons or Millerites is illustrated in a passage on p. 103:

"In Glasgow, Scotland, an honest servant girl in a hotel, who had been perverted by the propagandists of their faith, was about to emigrate with a company to Salt Lake. Knowing that I was an American, she took an opportunity to speak to me of the Mormons in America. I did what I could to dissuade her from her purpose, but she was immovable. Everything, she said, in the Bible was like the Mormons. Nothing was like the religion of the churches in Glasgow. The Mormon preachers travelled without purse or scrip. They preached from house to house. They often healed the sick. They preached the Gospel to the poor; and if some of the older men had several wives, so had Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob. One man she knew had been healed of disease by the laying on of hands. He felt the cure the moment it was effected. He had continued well, and could work ever since. It was therefore impossible for her to doubt.

"So she talked. It was in vain that I spoke of the Old Testament, with its polygamy, as introductory, and imperfect in doctrine and morals as compared with the New. . . . She assented to everything I said in regard to the purity and obligation of the New Testament. *That* she professed to believe, and she said the Mormons practised it, but the churches in Glasgow did not. If I had been asked at that time," adds Mr. Walker, naïvely, "if I thought this young woman was a Christian, I should probably have said the dispensations of Providence are often mysterious—let us judge charitably."

The volume concludes with detached "Thoughts and Incidents," among which we find nothing more suggestive than the following, worthy to be commended, it seems to us, to the next writer of a prize essay on the causes of the decline of Quakerism:

"The Friend Quakers utterly fail in the matter of means and efforts to propagate the truth in the world. The Congregationalists fail in spirituality and testimony against worldly conformity, while they rigorously [qu. vigorously?] propagate the gospel as they understand it. The two qualities should be united. There should be testimony and effort in a spirit of love" (p. 302).

Boston Town. By Horace E. Scudder. With many illustrations on wood. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1881.

THESE tales of a grandfather are a successful attempt to sketch for boys and girls the salient points in Boston's history down to the Revolution. They are less scrappy than the same author's "Bodley Family" series, and more independent of the illustrations. The scheme consists in hanging the narrative upon the lives and public services of a few eminent characters —Blackstone, Winthrop, Sir Wm. Phips, Franklin, and Sam Adams—and upon a few typical, or, as we might almost call them, vital, public buildings—the Latin School, the Province House, the Old State House, Faneuil Hall, and the Old South Church. Most grown persons will derive novel information from the talk about landmarks and incidents, and children cannot fail to be interested at every stage of the conversations between Mr. Benjamin Callender and his grandsons, Benjy and Jeff. It is part of the merit of Mr. Scudder's performance that he does not wilfully intensify the traditional boys' hatred of the mother-country, though his story is mainly of collisions between it and the colony or the province. We notice one omission in connection with Blackstone—to mention the assignment to him in 1633 of the present Common. Necessary silence in the case of Franklin as to the manner in which he got passage away from his native town shuts out a flood of light on the morality of the time.

The disappointment with this pretty book comes from the pictures, which are inadequate and too few, and not very fresh. For a topographical discourse, as this really is, the paucity of maps is surprising; and why should we have two woodcuts of Winthrop statues and none of the Sam Adams and Franklin, which are made quite as much of? Why should there not have been a portrait of Peter Faneuil? Why not many views, after old but perfectly accessible prints, of Boston from epoch to epoch? Parts of these, even, would have been acceptable, and might have been employed very effectively, for instance, in showing the several aspects of Faneuil Hall cupola. A little enterprise, again, would have procured a photograph of Arch Street before its transformation into a business thoroughfare. Finally, when grandfather says he has seen pictures of the stamp enforced by the odious Stamp Act, it seems as if the editor and publishers must have constrained themselves not to furnish a fac-simile of it.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 6, 1881.

The Week.

It is now said to be President Arthur's intention not to avail himself of the extra session of the Senate for the appointment of a new Cabinet, but to delay the formation of the latter until Congress meets in regular session, two months hence. The President thinks that the Cabinet Ministers now in office should be kept there to make the annual reports on the operations of their respective departments, and that in the mean time he will have better opportunities for ascertaining the current of popular sentiment as to what his administration should be. If this report is correct, the President will indeed have the benefit of the present Cabinet Ministers' reports on the public business in a retrospective sense, and to that extent they may serve him in getting up his own message to Congress. But if shortly after the meeting of Congress the present Cabinet is to go out, its members can aid him but little in shaping the prospective features of his message. In laying down his policy for the future it would evidently be of advantage to him to have his future constitutional advisers at his elbow.

Mr. George S. Boutwell has been interviewed about the new President, and has delivered some very Delphic opinions thereupon. He said by way of eulogy that "he had known the President for twenty years, and that he believed he would surround himself with Republicans, and that he would give the country a Republican Administration." Considering the immense variety of Republicans that exists, saying the President will surround himself with Republicans and give us a Republican Administration is about as reassuring as saying that he will surround himself with white males and give us a white male administration. General Grant surrounded himself with Republicans and gave us a Republican Administration, but that did not prevent the loss of sixteen Northern States to the party after six years' trial of his system. Mr. Boutwell also said "he had heard that people were afraid that Mr. Conkling would be the power behind the throne," but that "he did not know why the public should be afraid of Mr. Conkling." This shows either that Mr. Boutwell has a fellow-feeling with Mr. Conkling or does not read the newspapers. In either case he is disqualified for forming an opinion on the reasonableness of the popular fear of Mr. Conkling. He says he believes that Mr. Conkling will not be "a disturbing element in public or private life," and affirms, apparently as a reason for this belief, that "there are many worse men than he." But this only shows that Mr. Boutwell does not either observe or reason closely. Mr. Conkling is already and has long been a disturbing element, in public life at least. Public disturbance is his specialty. Moreover, the greater badness of other men cannot affect his disturbing powers and tendencies. You might as well say that he will not make a disturbance because there are many men better than he is.

There has been one feature in the primary meetings which have just been held in this State which merits the serious attention both of those who like the present nominating system and those who do not. The primary meeting, like all other political assemblages, is not a debating club, but a contrivance for getting at the will of the majority, with a view to the action known as the appointment of delegates. Its utility rests wholly on the assumption that the will of the majority can be ascertained by it, and that when ascertained it will be obeyed. Destroy this assumption and the primary is of no more political value than a crowd in a room collected through curiosity. Now, as a matter of fact—and we do not here propose to throw the blame of it on any one in particular—in a very large proportion of the primaries just held the will of the majority was either not ascertained or was not ascertainable, or when ascertained was disregarded by the minority. The reason the minority disregarded it in most of these instances was its belief that the committee which organizes the State Convention would also disregard it, or would, in other words, judge of the qualification of delegates by some other test than that furnished by the votes of the primary. This, or something like this, has often been done before now, both by Congress and by committees of conventions, but then it has never been done in more than one or two cases at a time, so that it has always been possible to regard it as one of the small defects or vices from which no system is wholly free, and about which, as the saying is, the law does not trouble itself.

If it should now be done, however, on a scale sufficiently large to change the composition of the Convention for the benefit of the faction to which the organizing committee belongs, it will show that the primary has as an institution passed distinctly into a more advanced, and, indeed, we may say, the last possible stage of decrepitude. This again we may say without throwing any blame on either side in particular. For if the Conkling bolting delegations are all admitted, or even admitted in the great majority of cases, it will show either that the minority has successfully resisted the will of the majority, or that the majority has been abusing its power and disregarding law and right on an unprecedented scale. Primaries which send up two contesting delegations are clearly useless, because if in the greater number or any large number of cases the committee of the Convention has to decide who are entitled to the seats, it might better select the delegates in the first instance, and save the scandal and tumult and demoralization of caucuses which can neither agree nor determine on which side the majority lies. There is only one mode of reform and regeneration for the primary, and that is to compose it of persons who are sufficiently agreed about great political ideas to make the choice of the delegates who are to represent them a matter of secondary importance, and make it possible, therefore, to satisfy the minority with any delegates whom the majority decide to elect. At present the election of delegates is entered on, not as if they were simply to labor for the promotion of certain ideas, but as if they were to be armed with absolute discretion in the distribution of a sum of money, and were sure to give none except to their own friends. In this state of things there is no room for compromise. If A cannot get B elected, he gets nothing whatever out of the bag, and it is therefore his interest to dispute the election by every means in his power. Worse off than it makes him he cannot be, and any change may benefit him.

The Pennsylvania Democrats have drawn up a good old-fashioned platform which must command the cordial concurrence of every friend of virtue. No pulpit in the country has ever spoken out more plainly against evil in all its Protean disguises. For instance, it condemns any attempt to overthrow the Constitution of the United States, and also "revolutionary changes tending to consolidation or empire"; also the "use of the public money for any purpose but the support of the Government"—a fact of which those who are appropriating it for their private needs will do well to take note. It also sets its face against legislation "which despoils labor to build up monopoly." What we like best in the platform is, however, the plan of putting an end to frauds and abuses of all descriptions in the management of the various departments of the Federal Government. Many people have, doubtless, fancied that this might be brought about by one or two prosecutions, or a few removals of lax officials, or some improvements in bookkeeping. The Pennsylvania Democrats do not, however, take any such namby-pamby view of the situation. They say that no effective reform can be brought about without "a sweeping change." What they mean by "a sweeping change" they explain by declaring that "sincere civil-service reform will only begin with the return of the Jeffersonian tests for office-holders of honesty, capability, and faithfulness to the Constitution."

What puzzles one about this is that the Pennsylvania Democrats should speak of this return as if it were a difficult thing to bring about, or as if it were sure to encounter violent opposition from the wicked and designing. We assure them solemnly that, after many years of close attention to the difficulties in the way of civil-service reform, we have never encountered a single enemy of, or heard one word of hostility to, the "Jeffersonian tests." As far as our observation has gone, no test of any description has ever in any age or country commanded so much approval from persons of all classes and conditions and parties. Even Messrs. Conkling

and Platt are, or at least were, not very long ago, heartily in favor of it. Indeed, the celebrated six rules for the purification of the civil service, which they drew up, and got adopted by the State Convention in 1877, were merely a series of commendations of the Jeffersonian plan. We have reason to believe, too, that even if the present system of appointment through Congressional nomination be kept up, there will be no difficulty in getting Congressmen to enforce these tests. In fact, they always have enforced them. We believe the surviving Congressmen of the last twenty years are prepared to declare with one voice that they have never nominated any one to office who was not "honest, capable, and faithful to the Constitution."

The public debt was diminished by $17,483,641 during September, making the total reduction for the current fiscal year, which began July 1, last, $41,742,866. The cash in the Treasury at the end of September was $250,686,547, but of this all is chargeable to outstanding obligations except $160,024,648. At the close of August the total cash in the Treasury was $240,498,788, of which the sum of $150,468,575 had no obligations outstanding against it. In the statement of assets and liabilities of the Treasury on October 1 and September 1 the principal changes are a decrease during September of $5,736,711 in the gold coin and an increase of $10,602,533 in the gold bullion, a decrease of about $2,000,000 in the legal-tender notes, and an increase of about $1,200,000 in the amount of public money deposited with national banks. The silver assets show slight changes during the month. On the side of liabilities the Treasurer's general account exhibits an increase of about $10,000,000. There were about $6,500,000 more silver certificates outstanding at the close of the month than at the beginning, while the old gold certificates outstanding were reduced about $150,000. The amount of interest due and unpaid increased about $4,200,000 during the month, and the called bonds and interest on September 30 are charged at $17,832,841, against $10,591,180 at the beginning of the month.

Altogether the statement is in a general way what might have been expected from a condition in which the scale of taxation is in many respects kept up to the war standard, and the Government is in the process of completing operations by which the annual interest charge on its debt is reduced. A continuance of revenues largely in excess of the Government's expenses will at no distant day force a consideration of the question whether taxation should not be reduced, at least in the proportion that the interest charge on the public debt has been diminished. There is much to be said on either side of this question. Unfortunately there is little reason for expecting that, if the present standard of taxation is to be kept up, any part of the surplus revenues of the Government will be devoted to extinguishing that form of the public debt which is circulated as money and clothed with its attributes —the legal-tender notes. This part of the public debt has given no trouble of late years, but it is by no means unlikely to do so in the future. The Treasury has coin enough in its vaults to pay nearly half of this debt; if it should pay one-tenth of it each year it would be advancing the finances of the country to a sound condition faster than it now is. So far as the money market is concerned, the result of such payment would simply be the exchange of one form of lawful money not now in the market, but in the Treasury vaults, for another kind which is now in the market.

The absorption of money by the Treasury, and the shipments of currency to the interior, were sufficient to reduce the reserve of the New York banks by $4,218,000 during the last week, and to leave them $2,756,025 short of a 25 per cent. reserve. The banks generally contracted their loans, and the result was that during the greater part of the week money was hard to get at 6 per cent. About $830,000 foreign gold arrived during the week and the rates for bills on London declined, but not sufficiently to warrant free importations of gold. The Treasury succeeded in buying at par and accrued interest $2,000,000 of the 6 per cent. bonds which have been extended at 3½ per cent.; in fact, $6,700,000 were offered at this price. At the Stock Exchange it was a week of depression for all kinds of securities, United States bonds having fallen ⅛@¼, railroad bonds ½@5¼ per cent., and railroad stocks 1½@6½ per cent. for the more important ones. The contest between the managers of the rival trunk-line railroads, so far from having been drawn to a conclusion, as was generally expected, has been embittered by a newspaper discussion between Mr. Garrett and Mr. Vanderbilt, in which each charges the other with bad faith, and which shows a feeling anything but favorable for an early settlement. General trade continues active, except where it is interfered with by the speculation which is running riot at the Produce and Cotton Exchanges of the country.

Within ten months eight ocean-going steamships have broken a shaft: the *Batavia*, the *Frisia*, the *Steinmann*, the *Persian Monarch*, the *Severn*, the *Catalonia*, the *Tomsah*, and the *Rochester*. Upon the trial trip of the new Cunard steamer *Servia*, a flaw was discovered in her shaft and her first voyage was postponed. We might "point with pride" to the fact that none of these shafts was of American manufacture, but for the other fact that we escape such accidents by not building or owning ocean-going steamships. Mr. John Roach no doubt will find in these cases of imperfect machinery fresh arguments against allowing our people to buy foreign-built vessels. But he can do better than to waste his time in review articles and interviews to this effect. Let him go to work and show that he can build better and cheaper ships than the British—ships which will not break their shafts and at the same time are no dearer. Until he does this shipowners will not buy of him, despite the navigation laws.

Mr. George Bliss, counsel for the Government in the Star-route cases, gives the gratifying assurance that the prosecution of Brady and his associates, against whom informations have been filed, will be pushed with all practicable speed. He promises further, while in this city, to "devote himself to the evidence in the Dorsey case," work which "can be done here as well as in Washington." Probably Mr. Bliss does not overrate the labor and difficulty involved in these cases when he says that "the general public has no conception" of it. "Investigations have to be made all over the country, while the records of the Post-Office Department have to be thoroughly sifted." There is this consolatory thought, that if the laborious search of the prosecuting officers must extend over so vast a surface, it has been proportionately difficult for the thieves to cover their tracks, and throughout these wide ramifications of fraud convincing evidence must be found. While, therefore, we are assured that "nobody is to be spared," we have reason to hope that somebody will be convicted.

Mr. Cyrus W. Field gives rather a startling account of the legal expenses of the Manhattan Company. When he began to overhaul the accounts after the appointment of receivers he was surprised to find how rapidly all expenses increased in June and July last, but on further examination found it was the law bills which accounted for it. In June these amounted to over $23,000, and in July to over $43,000, and in the preceding year to $150,000. He says he has a complete list of the recipients of this money and means to "prosecute" every one of them, but will not publish their names till the cases come into court. But how he will bring a lawyer to justice for making a high charge and receiving the money from his client, it is hard to see. It will be the more difficult in this case because his brother's firm is one of the counsel, if not the leading counsel, of the Company, and very active in the conduct of its litigation. It may be that the absence of the head of the firm in Europe may exempt him from responsibility for these recent bills, but he ought to have left instructions with his partners to be easy with the Manhattan Company.

The drafting of a Land Bill by the Scotch Chamber of Agriculture, which the London *Times* pronounces the most far-reaching measure on the land question ever submitted to Parliament, going further, we presume, than the Irish Land Bill, is rather hard on the Duke of Argyll. He left the Gladstone Ministry in horror over the Irish Land Bill, and in his attack on the bill in the House of Lords treated the Irish demands as something outrageous and not to be justified either by the plea that the Irish had been unjustly treated in bygone days, or that they were Celts. Life and property, he said, had in past days been very insecure in Scotland, but no one thought this an excuse in Scotland for now despoiling landlords of their property. Then, as to the argument that the Irish were Celts, and Celts were queer and must have their way, he said he was a Celt himself, and yet felt none of the turbulent desires of the Land Leaguers. It must, therefore, be rather mortifying for him to find his own hard-headed Scotch farmers prepared to go further than the Irishmen. They will not hough cattle, or boycott their landlords, but they will undoubt-

edly make themselves sufficiently formidable to the Government to get their bill passed, and, what is more, the Duke will have to submit to seeing the accursed thing in operation on his own estates. It is becoming more and more clear, both in England and Scotland, that, as Mr. John Stuart Mill said, it is not Irish ideas about property in land which are peculiar, but English ideas. The Irish are on this subject in the main stream of human tradition; it is the English who have gone up a little side-creek.

The attempt to break up the cotton corner in Liverpool, by a combination among the Lancashire spinners to stop their mills for a week, is said by the latest advices to have broken down. It was, considering the hardship it would inflict on the operatives, a very severe remedy. Now comes the *Pall Mall Gazette* and says it would have been an outrageous remedy, because the corner made by the Liverpool speculators was, in large part at least, made feasible by the speculations earlier in the season, by spinners among others, for a fall in the autumn. That is to say, the spinners have been largely "selling short" through the summer, and the Liverpool speculators, finding it out, made their corner and are now extracting "differences" from them in a manner which makes them "squeal" and threaten to stop working their mills. The moral of it all is that spinners should not speculate, but should quietly and soberly buy their supplies as they want them, paying for them in cash, and being content with the station of life to which it has pleased Providence to call them. But we presume that neither religion, morality, nor law will ever prevent a man's speculating in the raw material of his trade, if he has either the money or the credit to do it with. If he succeeds, it is very hard to avoid calling it prudence or sagacity. But such speculation seems legitimate only when it consists in buying in the expectation of a rise; in selling for a fall a manufacturer goes undisguisedly out of his sphere.

One of the most startling of the recent incidents in the Papal troubles in Rome is what may be called the apostasy of Count Campobello, one of the canons of St. Peter's, and a member of an old and noble family at Spoleto. He has written to Cardinal Borromeo, telling him that he thought of leaving the Church in the time of Pius the Ninth, but refrained in the belief that a better time for the Church and for the country would come after he was gone. He has, however, been disappointed. The new Pope he finds as bad as the old one. He thinks that the rupture between the Church and State which exists and grows wider is maintained by the obstinacy of the Pope, and he himself will not consent to belong any longer to an institution which "requires its ministers to form a kind of Hindoo caste in the midst of modern society," and which makes it impossible for him to be at the same time a good Catholic and a good Italian. He confesses that in addition to this he is sick of a canon's life, which is almost entirely passed, he says, "in uninterrupted religious exercises." Five or six hours passed every day in useless religious ceremonies form either a "stupid idolatry or degrading idleness." Accordingly he abjures the Catholic religion, and, curiously enough, has joined the Methodists. We question much whether there is another Italian Methodist in existence. The Canon's conversion is made impressive by the fact, which does not seem to be questioned, that he has nothing to complain of personally, and is not, as our politicians say, "a sore-head."

The French are pursuing in Tunis precisely the same policy as that pursued by the British in Afghanistan, and almost under the same circumstances. That is, they are seizing a country the people of which detest them, in the name of a ruler who has no power, and who is utterly discredited by his subjection to them, and are treating all resistance to them as rebellion against him, and shooting every Arab whom they catch with arms in his hands, just as General Roberts shot the Afghans. But they have gone beyond the British in their contempt for the religious feelings of the natives. They have destroyed one much-venerated shrine because they thought it was a resort of "treasonable" persons, and carted away the saint's bones in a box to some other mosque, and thought they could make it all right by firing a salute over them and presenting arms when they went by. But the Arabs take no such light view of the matter. Their fanaticism has been raised to white heat, and they are butchering every Christian they can lay hands on. They have just burnt alive a large collection of Europeans of various nationalities sixty miles from Tunis, and are handling Ali, the Bey's son, who is well advanced on the road to Kairwan, the Holy City of the Arabs, so roughly that he proposes to retire unless he is greatly aided. Reinforcements have been sent him, and the grand advance on Kairwan is to be made from Zaghouan, under General Logerot, on the 12th if all goes well. But in the meantime all does not go well. A very large Arab force is said to be collecting on the flank of the column, and the frequency with which French detachments have to retreat for want of provisions and ammunition, after even small skirmishes, shows that the question of supplies is a serious one, and the march will be no promenade.

The huge proportions the enterprise is assuming is getting M. Roustan, the French Consul-General at Tunis, into serious trouble, and trouble, too, curiously like that which overtook Lord Lytton in India. Like Lord Lytton, he concocted the difficulty with the Bey, and negotiated the treaty with him, or rather made him swallow it, just as Lord Lytton made poor Yakub Khan become a friend and ally of Great Britain. Having then got himself into the place of supervisor of the Bey, or French Resident at the Bey's court, he assured the French public that all trouble was over. They have been rudely undeceived. They find work cut out for 100,000 men, a debt of unknown proportions looming up in the future, and the whole desert from Tripoli to Morocco rising in arms against them. The Parisian press, therefore, already begins to grumble very loudly, and the public seems likely to be as sick of the whole business before long as they were of the march to Berlin after the fight at Reichshofen.

The Sultan has taken a step which is likely greatly to increase the complication of the situation in Egypt. He has sent a Commission of Inquiry to Cairo to investigate the cause of the recent troubles, to negotiate between the Khedive and the European Powers, and to find out why the Khedive has not before now gone himself to Constantinople to pay fealty to his Suzerain. He is said to have taken this step without the knowledge of his Ministers. It is, however, the logical outcome of the relations which are known to have existed between him and the Khedive ever since the deposition of Ismaïl. Tewfik had no sooner taken his father's place than he began to put himself under the Sultan's wing and try to get his advice and approval in the submissions he was making to the Europeans, and thus fortify himself with the Mussulman element among his own people. The Sultan was a little shy of him at first, but now the Pan-Islamic idea appears to have taken thorough hold of him, and he is tickled with the idea of making a public display to the Mussulman world of the pretence that Egypt is still a part of the empire. The British may tolerate the Commission, but the French are less likely to do so. They are already very suspicious of the influence excited on the Porte by England at this moment; and if they become convinced that the Commission is in any sense a British suggestion, or has British countenance or connivance, there will be trouble.

Sir Stafford Northcote has apparently been sufficiently affected by the criticisms called forth by his late concession that fair trade was only a good thing if it was reciprocal, to cause him to modify his position somewhat, or at least appear to do so. He now says that he "does not believe in some of the suggestions put forward by friends of his own side," which of course may mean various things, but will be generally taken to mean that he does not believe in a return to a protective tariff. He also protests against the Liberal "suggestion that the state of agriculture is remediable by a radical change in the land laws," but he admits that they are "susceptible of amendment." This is another of the now numerous signs that the fair-trade cry is losing all the force it ever had. The summary repudiation of it by the Trade-Union Congress, and the apparently firm determination of the farmers not to be diverted by it from the work of land-law reform, has probably by this time satisfied its supporters that it can secure no real hold on the public mind, and that as a "cry" it is worthless. What the Conservatives will do for a substitute it is hard to say. They are now forced to ask for a fair trial of the Irish Land act. They are afraid to come out openly against the English land agitation for fear of losing the counties, which are their chief strongholds, and there is nothing to take hold of in foreign politics.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

ADDITIONAL expressions of sympathy for the late President's family and for the country have been received from foreign governments during the past week. The Emperors of Germany, Brazil, and Japan, and the Kings of Belgium and Norway and Sweden, sent messages of condolence. On Thursday Queen Victoria telegraphed enquiries after the health of the late President's mother as well as that of his wife, and requested Mr. Lowell to obtain for her a good picture of President Garfield. Mrs. Garfield and her family returned to Mentor on Wednesday.

The fund for Mrs. Garfield reached $334,679 66 on Monday. The total amount collected for the Garfield monument at Cleveland so far is $5,137.

Dr. Boynton has denied the report that he intends to attack the treatment of the President's case. Dr. Shrady and Professor Weiss have, at Dr. Bliss's request, made an examination of specimens of the injured viscera, and have sustained Dr. Bliss in his treatment of the case. The official record of the autopsy has appeared in the October number of the *American Journal of the Medical Sciences*. It seems that the internal hemorrhage was caused by a rent in the main trunk of the splenctic—not the mesenteric—artery.

It is reported that an informal understanding was reached by the Republican and Democratic Senators upon the funeral train from Washington in regard to the election of a President of the Senate, and that it was agreed that Senator Anthony or some other Republican chosen by the Republican Senators in caucus should be elected without dissent, while the Democrats should have the right of naming the Secretary of the Senate, whose office is now vacant.

Numerous rumors have been flying about during the week in regard to changes in the Cabinet, but nothing certain is known as yet. Secretary Windom insists that President Arthur shall regard his resignation as *bona fide*, and shall accept it at once. Mr. Windom wishes to ask the Minnesota Legislature, which assembles on the 10th of October, to return him to the Senate, from which he resigned in order to take the Secretaryship of the Treasury.

President Arthur arrived in New York on Thursday night. During his stay in this city he has received numerous calls from prominent politicians. His visit was declared, however, to be solely upon private business.

The election of delegates to the New York State Republican Convention appointed for October 5 has excited great interest in political circles during the week. The result of the election has on the whole been favorable to the "Anti-Conklingites" or "Garfield Republicans," as they now sometimes call themselves. There will be, however, a considerable number of contested seats, owing to the fact that the "Conklingites" have, in many instances, "bolted" when defeated in the local elections. The total number of delegates is 496. The Convention meets in the Academy of Music, in New York city. It is stated upon reliable authority that Mr. Conkling will not be present.

The Democratic State Convention of Pennsylvania met at Williamsport on Wednesday, September 28. Mr. Orange Noble, of Erie, was nominated for State Treasurer. The platform adopted states that the "Democratic party, as of old, favors a constitutional currency of gold and silver in all forms," calls for a "prompt and unfaltering" prosecution of the frauds in the Postal and Treasury departments, for reform in the civil service, and a "return to the Jeffersonian tests for office-holders of honesty, capability, and faithfulness to the Constitution." It also takes strong ground against monopolies, and declares "that no monopoly or exclusive right in the forces of nature, in grants of eminent domain, in the diffusion of information among the people by telegraph and associations for furnishing despatches to the press, or the grant of privileges affecting the daily business of the citizen, can or ought rightfully to exist under our form of government." A resolution was adopted expressing the grief of the Convention, "as the representatives of 400,000 Democratic voters," at the death of the President.

The Republican State Convention of Minnesota met at St. Paul on the same day. General Hubbard, the candidate supported by the repudiating interest, was nominated for Governor on the second ballot. The attendance at the Convention was very large, partly on account of the interest excited by the possibility of its taking some action on the question of the payment of the State bonds. The bond question, however, was not discussed. Charles Vandebury, D. A. Dickenson, and Judge Mitchell were nominated for the Supreme Bench. The present Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, and Auditor were renominated. The platform adopted demands the "maintenance of the broad constitutional distinction" between the rights of the Executive and Senate in the matter of nominations to official positions, a permanent system of examinations for the civil service, a standard metallic currency, and protection by a discriminating tariff.

The Wisconsin Democrats, Maine Greenbackers, and Massachusetts Prohibitionists held conventions on the same day.

The "straight-out" Republican Central Committee of Virginia met at Richmond on Thursday. Resolutions were adopted repudiating the Central Committee chosen by the coalition convention at Lynchburg in August, and recommending the Republicans to nominate candidates for the Legislature in all counties where there is party strength.

The fall campaign in Ohio is reported to be one of the quietest ever known in that State. This is partly ascribed to the long sickness and final death of the President. The County Central Committee and the Campaign Committee of the Lincoln Club, which are the most powerful organizations in the State, have both decided that political meetings of the usual order will be inappropriate to the time. Notwithstanding the apparent listlessness of the campaign during the past week, however, it is expected that the death of the President will bring out a large Republican vote.

Guiteau's case was brought before the Grand Jury on Monday. Only four witnesses were heard. Surgeon-General Barnes testified to the wound, George W. Adams and Officer Kearney to the shooting, and Dr. Lamb in regard to the autopsy. Guiteau will probably be taken into court to plead on Wednesday morning. It is necessary that he should appear in open court, but everything will be conducted as quietly as possible. Guiteau has been displaying the most abject cowardice during the week. He is suspicious of every one, and has several times refused to take quinine prescribed for slight malarial attacks from which he has been suffering. He has given up writing the autobiography which he had planned. His brother-in-law, Mr. George Scoville, has been secured to defend him. It is said that his line of defence will consist mainly in showing that Guiteau comes of a family in which insanity is hereditary.

Proceedings were begun in the Star-route frauds on Friday by the filing of an information against Brady, French, and several clerks and contractors. It is unusual to begin proceedings of this kind by information, but the Grand Jury having been adjourned until October 3, it became necessary to proceed in this manner in order to avoid the operation of the Statute of Limitations. The information states that in October, 1878, Second Assistant Postmaster-General Brady, Chief Clerk John L. French, W. H. Turner, G. L. MacDonough, S. P. Brown, and certain other persons conspired to defraud the United States out of large sums of money "in causing and procuring unnecessary and improper and extravagant additional compensation to be paid by the United States for additional service in carrying the mails." The document further attempts to show the method of proceeding on the part of the alleged conspirators in the particular case of the manipulations of the contract for carrying the mail on the route between Prescott, Arizona, and Santa Fé, New Mexico. It states that a contract was originally made with G. L. McDonough, by which he was to carry the mails over this route for $13,313 per annum; that by various manipulations the contract originally awarded for this amount was increased to $87,862, and that when the contract with McDonough was terminated General Brady made another contract with Walsh to carry the mails over this same route for $18,500; that General Brady again manipulated this contract so that Walsh was made to appear to receive $136,000 per annum, although the original contract was for $18,500. The next step in the case will be the trial before the Supreme Court of the District.

Active preparations are being made for the celebration at Yorktown. In addition to the official delegation representing the French Government, there will be a delegation of about twenty gentlemen bearing some of the best known names in France. Admiral Porter will have charge of the naval forces assembled at Yorktown.

The Committee of Fifteen appointed by Governor Cornell to receive the guests at the Yorktown Centennial met on Wednesday. A series of resolutions were passed offering the courtesies of New York State to the foreign visitors, the President and the Cabinet, the French Legation and the French Consul-General, the presidents of the great commercial bodies of the city and of the chartered institutions of learning, and to numerous other gentlemen. Arrangements were made for the reception of the French guests. Upon their arrival they will be met by the commission appointed by the Governor. They will then proceed, under the escort of the Seventh Regiment, to the Fifth Avenue Hotel, where a reception will be held on the following morning. A ter this they will be taken to West Point on the United States man-of-war *Vandalia*, accompanied by the *Kedrsarge*. Further than this, preparations have not been made. The committee will meet again on Friday.

Messrs. Shipman & Choate, counsel for the alleged bandit Esposito, have submitted a voluminous protest against the action of the United States authorities in surrendering their client to the Italian Government. They request that he be returned to this country so that "the question of his liability to extradition can be fairly and properly determined."

The receipts of the Government for the month of September have been large. It is estimated that they will be found to reach $33,000,000. The reduction in the public debt for the month will probably exceed $13,000,000. The aggregate receipts for the first quarter of the current fiscal year, which closed on Saturday, are over $107,000,000, against $98,000,000 for the corresponding quarter last year.

Captain Winans, of the whaling schooner *R. B. Hendy*, arrived in San Francisco from the Arctic Sea on October 1. He advances the theory, in a letter to the San Francisco *Bulletin*, that the *Jeannette* has sought a northeast passage round North America.

The Executive Committee of the Michigan Fire Relief Commission held a meeting on Saturday afternoon. There was some discussion as to the disposition of the funds. It was finally decided to send enough money to Port Huron to make the amount sent there equal to that sent to Detroit, and to retain the rest for further action of the Committee.

A meeting of the Anti-Monopoly Association was held in Tammany Hall, New York, on Monday evening. An address was read

which denounced monopolies and monopolists. Mr. F. B. Thurber made a speech, in the course of which he quoted poetry to the effect that while his heart beat at all it would always beat "for the under dog in the fight." Mr. John Kelly was chairman of the meeting.

The Co-operative Dress Association which has been started in New York was opened to subscribers on Monday. The capital stock is $250,000. There are 10,000 shares of stock, divided among 7,000 shareholders, and Miss Kate Field is the president of the company. It is expected that competition with the Co-operative Association will bring down prices of goods in other stores.

Mr. Edwin Booth made his first appearance on the stage since his return from England at Booth's Theatre, New York, on Monday evening, in "Richelieu." The Italian tragedian Rossi appeared the same evening at the Globe Theatre, Boston, in "Lear."

The Scotch cutter *Madge* has been very successful in her races during the past week. On Wednesday she gained her second victory, defeating the *Wave*, of the Seawanhaka Club, by twenty-five minutes and thirty-nine seconds. On Thursday she defeated the *Mistral*, of the New York Club.

The team of English professional cricketers under Mr. Shaw, which arrived in this country last week, began a match on Saturday at Nicctown with a team selected from the best players of Philadelphia and the neighborhood. The match was continued on Monday. At the end of the first inning the English team was 151 runs ahead.

On Thursday Judge Westbrook, of the Supreme Court, granted the application of the receivers of the Manhattan Elevated Railroad for authority to borrow money on certificates for the purpose of paying the rentals, dividends, and interest in which the company is in default to the Metropolitan and New York companies. The amount to be borrowed was limited to one million dollars, and Judge Westbrook had it distinctly stated that the Court gave no guarantee that any more than the property actually owned by the Manhattan Railroad was answerable for this amount, and that no pledge was given by the Court that the property of the lessor companies should be held in the possession of the Manhattan Company until the certificates were paid. Mr. Cyrus Field is reported to have said that he considered the certificates almost worthless.

Bishop O'Hara and several of the Catholic clergymen of Scranton, Pennsylvania, and vicinity, preached sermons on Sunday last denouncing the "graveyard insurance men," who have been carrying on such a thriving business in Pennsylvania of late.

In the Malley case the defense have been continuing the attempt to prove an alibi for James Malley. Strong testimony has been adduced to prove that he was at work in the store during the hours of Thursday and Friday when, according to the testimony given for the State, he was elsewhere.

The three men who robbed the Iron Mountain Railroad train on the 22d of September have been captured.

The Chiricahua Apaches have left the San Carlos reservation, stealing cattle and killing citizens as they went. Colonel Sanford pursued them with three companies of cavalry, and overtook them October 2 near Cedar Springs. A fight ensued in which one sergeant was killed and four soldiers wounded. The loss of the Indians was not ascertained, but is believed to have been heavy.

A despatch from Arizona states that the surrendered hostiles of Sanches's and other bands number 60 bucks, 73 squaws, and 76 children. Judge Advocate-General Egbert has gone to San Carlos to ascertain whether the renegades can be tried by military commission.

The Hon. William Walter Phelps, United States Minister to Austria, has asked to be relieved as soon as a successor can reach Vienna.

FOREIGN.

The French are gradually accumulating troops at Tunis for the advance on Kairwan, the Holy City, and the headquarters of the insurgent tribes. General Logerot is to have command of the entire expedition when organized. The advance of General Corréard, with a smaller detachment, who has not got beyond Zaghouan, appears to have been attended with great difficulty, and frequent encounters with guerrilla parties. There is said to be much sickness among the troops. As correspondents are rigidly excluded from witnessing the operations, the news is scanty and comes mainly through official channels. The prevailing impression in Paris seems to be that the affair is becoming very serious. Bou-Amema, the Algerian insurgent chief, is said to have established communications with the Tunisians. The assistance rendered by the Bey's troops is small. They are greatly disturbed by the French. The Bey himself is said to be desirous of abdicating.

M. Roustan, French Minister to Tunis, has instituted a criminal prosecution against M. Henri Rochefort for his statement that M. Gambetta and M. Roustan arranged the Tunisian expedition for stock-jobbing purposes. M. Roustan has returned to Tunis from Paris. He is invested with full power to settle every question that may arise.

The convocation of the French Legislature has been fixed for October 28. The ministers will soon tender their resignations in order to leave M. Grévy full freedom of action; but it is stated that he will refuse to accept them, deeming it the proper course to wait and see whether the present cabinet will have the confidence of the new Chamber.

It is said that, upon the overthrow of Premier Ferry, President Grévy will send for M. Gambetta and give him the fullest latitude in choosing a Cabinet.

It is semi-officially stated that Sir Charles Dilke, Under Foreign Secretary of Great Britain, has declared privately that the negotiations for the Anglo-French commercial treaty are making fair progress. The London *Times*, however, states that unless the French negotiators relinquish the condition of the complete substitution of specific for *ad valorem* duties, upon which they have been insisting, it is difficult to see how any agreement can be arrived at. A Paris despatch to the London *Times* says that there is a feeling in Paris that the English commissioners have been acting as if it were for their interest to wait for the opening of the Chambers, relying on the expectation that there will be a stronger free-trade policy in the new than in the old Chamber, but that it may be safely affirmed that the new Chamber will be quite as protectionist as the old. Englishmen look to Gambetta to settle the matter.

The Scottish Chamber of Agriculture has prepared a Scottish Land Bill, which the London *Times* calls one of the "most far-reaching measures on the land question ever yet submitted to Parliament." It provides for an adjustment of rents by arbitration, a revaluation of farms, and for power in the tenant to sell his holding. It makes strict provision relative to compensation for improvements.

The Farmers' Alliance have drafted a Land Bill for England. The bill aims to establish security for the capital of the farmer, and to secure protection from capricious eviction; also to secure the right of the tenant to sell his improvements in open market, with the provision that the landlord must accept as a tenant for seven years, and at the same rent as that of the outgoing tenant, the person who purchases them. It calls for the creation of a land court in every district, for the settlement of disputes concerning rents and all other disputes.

Mr. Parnell had a public reception in Cork on Sunday. Triumphal arches were erected in some of the streets. There was a procession nearly two miles long.

Mr. Parnell has advised tenants not to go into the Land Court unless the Executive of the League selected their cases as test cases. The Land League has decided to appoint two tenants in each neighborhood to assess "fair rents," with a strict regard to leaving the tenants means for an improved mode of living. The amount thus fixed is to be registered by the local branch of the League, and no greater rent is to be paid.

Father Sheehy and four other prisoners have been released from prison. In a speech at Kilmalloch Father Sheehy said that he came out of prison with the same spirit with which he had entered it.

Fresh outrages have been committed by the Land League. On Thursday an attempt was made to blow up the residence of Captain Thomas Lloyd at Pallas Grean, County Limerick. The building was occupied at the time by Captain Lloyd, seventeen emergency men, and police. The building was shattered, but no one was hurt.

A meeting was held near Baltinglass, County Wicklow, for the purpose of establishing an organization for the protection of farmers and others who have incurred the displeasure of the Land League. It was resolved to establish an association to protect boycotted persons. The organization will pay special attention to Catholic farmers who are desirous of resisting the dictation of the League.

Lord O'Hagan, Lord Chancellor of Ireland, delivered the opening address at the Social Science Congress. He spoke hopefully of the proposed revival of Irish manufactures.

The official machinery of the Land Commission has been completed by the appointment of the following Assistant Commissioners: Professor Baldwin, the well-known authority on land; Colonel Bayley, who has an extensive acquaintance with farming; Messrs. Garland, Haughton, O'Keefe, O'Shaugnessy and Ross, who are practical farmers, and Mr. Rice, who was Assistant Commissioner, representing the tenant-farmers' interest, on the Richmond Commission.

In a speech at Hull on Monday, Sir Stafford Northcote said that he considered the condition of affairs as regards the Boer convention and the Anglo-French commercial treaty very unsatisfactory.

The commission appointed to inquire into the transport and commissariat operations during the Afghan campaign has discovered a vast system of bribery and corruption, and several influential native bankers have been arrested in India.

Foxhall won the Grand Duke Michael Stakes at the Newmarket October Handicap meeting on Thursday.

The meeting of the Czar and the Emperor of Austria will take place at Warsaw next week. General Ignatieff will accompany the Czar.

There was a great fire in Moscow on the 28th. Twenty warehouses were destroyed, and the damage is estimated at $2,000,000.

The most important Chambers of Commerce in the various states of Germany have published reports for 1880. A great majority of the chambers, whether inclining to free trade or protection, reject Bismarck's new protectionist customs policy.

The subterranean telegraph system connecting 221 towns and cities of Germany has been completed. The total length of buried cables is 3,417 miles.

Herr Krupp, of Essen, has accepted a contract for the exportation of 25,000 tons of steel rails to the United States.

The state of the crops in Canada is said to be very satisfactory this year. The Grand Trunk authorities have issued their annual report of the condition of the crops along their lines. According to their report the wheat, oats, and barley exceed a fair average crop.

TUESDAY, October 4, 1881.

A NOVEL EXTRADITION PROCEEDING.

THE counsel for Esposito have submitted to the State Department and the President a statement of the facts connected with his extradition, which throws new light on the very extraordinary manner in which the proceedings were conducted. They insist that the Italian Government ought to be made to surrender the man for a re-examination of his case.

The chief irregularities complained of are, first, that the man was kidnapped, and not arrested, in New Orleans. In support of this charge they produce a copy of the original warrant issued on June 17, 1881, which ran in these words: "To any marshal of the United States, to the deputies of any such marshal, or any or either of them, to any sheriff, constable or other officer in any State, District, or Territory within the jurisdiction of the United States, *to James Mooney.*" James Mooney is not an officer of the United States, but a private professional detective carrying on business in this city. Under this warrant the prisoner was seized in New Orleans by him and brought to New York in irons. Messrs. Shipman and Choate, with commendable self-restraint, confine themselves to saying that such an arrest is illegal, only responsible officers having authority under our laws to make arrests. Marshals are required to give bonds for the very reason that persons who are wrongfully arrested by them may have indemnity for their illegal acts. James Mooney gives no bond, and no one can have any redress against him. Of course if James Mooney can arrest one person he can another, and the practice would be so frequently convenient for the marshal, and always so profitable to Mooney, that we may be sure it would grow in favor if warrants of this sort were upheld. When the charge of kidnapping was first made in the press, it was indignantly replied that the prisoner had been regularly arrested under a warrant. We now see what this meant, but the curious fact remains behind that as soon as he was brought to New York, the persons in charge of the proceeding immediately got out another warrant, addressed to the Marshal of the Southern District of New York and his deputies (and not to James Mooney) commanding them to arrest the accused. Why was this necessary if he was already in lawful custody?

The next feature of the case which merits attention is the transportation of the prisoner to New York. It is said that this was done because any United States Commissioner has power to issue warrants in extradition cases running all over the country. Assuming this to be the case, such extraordinary powers ought to be exercised with caution and a due regard for the rights of the person whose surrender is demanded. To drag a man from his home to a city fourteen hundred miles away, where he is absolutely unknown, and where, if he is poor, he can have no means of communicating with his friends and family or procuring any evidence in his behalf, when there was precisely the same machinery for the proper investigation of the case at the place where he was living, may not be illegal, but it is a gross abuse of law. The only explanation of this ever offered has been that the prisoner had a powerful "gang" behind him in New Orleans, who would certainly have rescued him if any attempt had been made to extradite him there. Considering that the United States can always bring in the aid of the land and naval forces to preserve the peace in such cases, it is a little too much to ask any one to believe that Commissioner Osborn was affected by such an argument as this.

As soon as the case came up, it appeared that the main question was the identity of the prisoner. The evidence was conflicting, but the Commissioner decided that there was sufficient testimony that the prisoner was the brigand Randazzo, to authorize his surrender. We do not propose to criticise in any way this conclusion of the Commissioner, but in view of the subsequent proceedings it is important to notice that his decision was final unless it should be reviewed at Washington. Most people have a vague idea that the proper way to redress any injustice done by a Commissioner in such cases is by *habeas corpus*, and that his acts can always be reviewed by the Circuit Court. But the fact is that recent decisions of the Circuit Court make an appeal from the Commissioner on any question of fact or discretion impossible, and remit the prisoner for redress to the Executive. In one case it was contended on behalf of the prisoners that the evidence did not show that any act had been committed which amounted to a crime within the treaty. The court said:

"Of the effect of this evidence it was the judicial duty of the Commissioner to judge, and neither the duty nor the power to review his action thereon has been conferred upon any other judicial officer. If he deems it sufficient, the statute prescribes his further action in the premises. It then rests with the Executive authority to determine, in the last resort, what is demanded by justice and the obligations of the treaty. If it appears to the President, upon a review of all the evidence, that the charge is not sustained, and that justice and the obligation of the treaty do not require the surrender of the prisoners, he can refuse it and set them at liberty."

These decisions left the prisoner without any means of saving himself, after the decision of the Commissioner, from transportation to Italy but an appeal to Washington. This appeal would have been nominally to the Secretary of State, but really to the President himself. Due notice of it was given in open court. Everybody in the case from the Commissioner down was informed of it. In such cases it has been usual, as indeed it is obviously necessary, that written or printed briefs should be submitted, and a good deal of time occupied in argument. The case was decided on September 14th. On the 19th of last month, when the papers reached Washington, the President, to whom alone the appeal lay, was dying at Long Branch. The Secretary of State was absent. The First Assistant Secretary was also away. On this day a warrant of surrender, signed "W. Hunter, Acting Secretary of State," was obtained by some one acting on behalf of the Italian Government, no notice whatever having been given to the prisoner or his counsel. On this warrant, the existence of which the legal representatives of the Italian Government are stated to have specially requested the marshal in this city to keep secret, the prisoner was quietly shipped on Wednesday, the 21st, on board a steamer which sailed for Rotterdam on the same day

Considering that his final surrender must have been effected by concealing from the authorities at Washington the fact of an appeal having been taken, this last step was, like the first, a simple case of kidnapping. Of course it is again justified by the fear of a "rescue," though the prisoner was brought to New York for the express reason that a rescue of him here was not feared.

The facts we have given above do not seem to be disputed. Comment upon them is superfluous.

GOLD IN AMERICA AND EUROPE.

ALTHOUGH the rate of discount of the Bank of England remains at four per cent., the general anxiety which has for some time past prevailed in European money markets in anticipation of the American demand for gold has given place to a feeling of ease, and it is believed that future demands will be comparatively light and easily met without creating any stringency in the markets. There have been few occurrences of a financial nature in the past three years which present more interesting questions to the economist than this "drain of gold" from Europe to America, and much speculation has been made on the probable results. The resumption of specie payments in this country, and the vast refunding operations of the Government, both accomplished with no disturbance of the money market, may rival it in magnitude, but their results are not so far-reaching in their influence nor of such an uncertain nature. The elements of the problem are simple. A general failure of crops forced Europe to obtain her supplies from America, where the harvest was abnormally large. A large balance in favor of America was thus created, and the difficulty of settling this balance was increased by the tariff system, which prevented payment in merchandise, as the larger part of the balance would have been liquidated had trade been left to its natural course. Hence the necessity of an export of gold or of securities to pay the debt. Other disturbing influences this year were the loan placed on the market by Italy, which called for gold, and the action of the Bank of France in taking measures for protecting its reserves from any demand on the part of Italy and of the United States, and thus striving to throw the whole demand on the Bank of England. A monetary crisis was deemed imminent, but is not now probable. To these special and temporary causes of the export of gold from Europe must be added a general cause that will probably draw gold to this country for some time to come, though not in large amounts, but in a steady and continuous stream—viz., the natural demand on the part of the United States for an increased stock of bullion.

The United States for many years suffered from an inconvertible paper currency, which caused the larger portion of the gold in the country to be exported, and what little remained to become an object of speculation. There could be no stability of values under such a system. But in 1879 a return to specie payments rendered necessary, or at least safe, a larger reserve of the metals; and in July of that year the importation of gold began. This nation increasing in riches and population more

rapidly than any other nation on the globe, and requires for its extending manufactures and growing exchanges also an increase in the circulating medium. It is true that the economy in the use of the precious metals in this country is very great. The statistics collected by the Comptroller of the Currency show that in the city of New York but a little more than one-fourth of one per cent. of the financial transactions are settled in coin; checks, bank bills, and drafts serve for the balance. In other parts of the country the use of coin is larger, varying from three to nine per cent. in the larger cities, and a still higher average, probably, holds in the rural districts. The growing demand for an increased circulating medium comes from the interior, which is fast being settled, and the demand is stimulated at this season of the year by the need of money to move the crops. As the currency flows from the city to the interior the bank reserves are kept up by the imports of gold from Europe. But, as we have said, there are indications that the heaviest shipments are past.

It has been estimated—with how much truth can hardly be said, for the amount of gold used as currency and in manufactures is always more or less a matter of conjecture—that America already absorbs the total annual product of gold throughout the world (estimated by the London *Economist* in 1871 to be about £20,000,000), and that not only is none left for Europe, but the demand encroaches upon the existing stock of metal in Europe. This may be an exaggerated view of the condition of affairs, but it forcibly illustrates the anxiety which this drain is producing. The capacity of the banks of Europe to supply this extra demand is the real matter in doubt. A reasonable reserve of gold must be retained at all hazards, and the object of the recent sharp advance in the bank rates in the leading financial centres of Europe was to protect the reserves. Doubtless a large amount of gold can yet be exported without creating the threatened "gold famine," but any continuance of this exportation will render necessary a greater economy in the use of the metal. A few statements will serve to illustrate our meaning.

In the business centres of England the proportion of gold used in settlements is probably even less than what Mr. Knox thinks to be the proportion in this country; for England has long enjoyed a wide-spread banking system and a stable currency. The general banking system of England exhibits one peculiarity: the Bank of England serves as a reserve for all the other banks in the kingdom, and it is upon the treasure in the vaults of the Bank of England that all the demands for export operate. It is necessary, therefore, to keep an adequate reserve of gold to meet any unusual demand that may occur. Mr. Tooke used to say that the reserve should never fall below ten million pounds; but Mr. Ricardo argued that by the adoption of his system of regulating the currency a reserve of only three millions in gold would be required to float twenty-four millions of paper. Even if this computation errs in giving too small a reserve, and making allowance for the great increase in the amount of exchanges since that estimate was made, it at least shows that some further economy in the use of the metals could be devised. In such an event the same method could doubtless be applied in this country, which would set free in this market a further quantity of gold with which to meet the demands of the interior.

In France there is room for much improvement in the banking and credit systems. The population of France is one-third less than that of the United States, yet it is believed that there is twice as much gold in the former country as in the latter, though, as we have said, such statements must be received with caution. But other facts show that there is more gold in France than would be needed under a highly developed credit system. The banking system has long been in a rudimentary state, and the savings of the people (and what French peasant does not save?) used to be hid in old stockings and pots. Among the lower classes the practice of hoarding was general, and among the rich many would find it impossible to make even large payments otherwise than in coin or bank bills. The French peasants and middle classes have of late been beginning to learn how to invest their savings, but the amounts hoarded are undoubtedly still very large. An increased demand for gold would draw out these hoards, and thus a further supply of gold sufficient to meet the demand would be thrown upon the market. An extension of a stable banking system would produce the same effect; for the custom of employing bank checks is not general, and a stamp tax, light as it is, prevents the general use of this substitute for coin.

In Sweden, it is said, the banking system is nearly as good as in England, and the use of gold consequently as small. Italy, Austria, and Russia can spare no gold, and in the case of Germany we have no statistics by which we can judge of the extent to which her reserves can be drawn upon, but it cannot be very great. From France alone, then, can any great supply of gold be expected without a monetary crisis or a change in the monetary system.

Not the least curious phase of this exportation of gold is the great difference of opinion as to its results exhibited by those who are most competent to judge of the matter. An example of this is seen in the recent utterances of two well-known European economists. M. Laveleye, who is a bimetallist, writing in the *Nineteenth Century* for September on the future of gold, says:

"Even supposing that the absorption of gold by America will suddenly stop, it is beyond all doubt that if silver remains proscribed there will not be gold enough for the monetary and industrial uses of Europe. Already, at the very moment these lines are written, the gold scarcity begins to be seriously felt on the money market. What the late Mr. Bagehot used to call the 'apprehension point' is very near. Soon the sentiment of living under the perpetual fear of lacking the breathing-air of commerce—*i. e.*, of the means of exchange—will become intolerable, long before the exhaustion of the gold washings predicted by Dr. Suess will be realized."

We have already suggested the reply to such an argument. On the other hand, the able editor of the *Économiste Français* writes in the last issue:

"In truth, what disturbs us is not the decreasing supply of gold in France, but the abundance of silver. We could wish that for every milliard of gold parted with there also went out with it one and one-half milliard of silver. The evil which we suffer in France is not an absence of gold, but an encumbrance of silver. There is great risk that owing to the many faults of our Government we shall have a silver standard only. The maintenance of the present monetary situation is becoming more and more difficult, and it is necessary to take steps to demonetize silver."

If by any turn of affairs there should be a necessity of exporting gold from America to Europe, we should be in very much the same position in which France now is—rapidly drifting to a silver standard.

LORD DERBY ON IRISH AFFAIRS.

Lord Derby, who now deservedly enjoys the reputation of being *par excellence* the sensible man of British politics, has written an article in the *Nineteenth Century* on Irish affairs, in which he confirms the view which we ventured to propound in these columns some weeks ago, that the Irish discontent was not likely to be appeased by the Land Act, but that, on the contrary, it was likely, in consequence of the Land Act, to be more formidable than ever. The reasons we gave for this opinion were almost identical with those he gives. The passage of the Land Act, unfortunately, took place under the pressure of Irish turbulence, and it is not, therefore, unnatural for the Land Leaguers to conclude that more turbulence will produce more concession; therefore more turbulence there will probably be. Secondly, the Land Act has given the tenants a greater sense of power than they have ever had, and in this way has widened in their eyes the range of their political possibilities. It has, in fact, made that which the vast majority of them eagerly desire—legislative independence—seem to them now far more nearly within their reach than it has ever seemed before. Lord Derby thinks, therefore, that the struggle for this will now be continued with more vigor than ever.

The telegraphic summary of his article, which is all that we have seen, does not give his remedy. He apparently looks forward to a prolonged and obstinate attack on the Union by the Irish people, and an equally prolonged and obstinate defence by the English people. What he thinks the issue is likely to be, we do not know. But it is to our mind certain that if there be any way of meeting this attack successfully—that is, of bringing it to a favorable termination without a dissolution of the Union—there is but one. If there be any concession to Irish national longings or prejudices, short of a dissolution of the Union, which Englishmen are willing to make for the sake of peace and good will, it ought to be made promptly. It ought to be made before it takes that form of inevitableness which every man in England saw the Land Bill had taken before the close of the last session of Parliament, and which unhappily prevented its passage having the air of conciliation. That there is such a concession—that English Liberals at all events are prepared to let Irishmen manage their own affairs to the extent to which Scotchmen are allowed to manage theirs—Mr. Gladstone admitted in the recent debates, but he unfortunately spoke of it only as a concession which might be made at some remote and indeterminate period. But to make it of any real value it ought to be made at once. If made now it would probably take the wind out of the sails of the new agitation

which Lord Derby says is springing up, and might end precipitately the struggle which he says is only just beginning.

Unhappily there is no sign of it. The management of Irish affairs at this moment, in so far as they are in the hands of the Executive, seems to be left entirely to Mr. Forster and his English advisers at "the Castle." There is no sign that any opinion which the bulk of the people recognize as Irish opinion has the smallest weight with him, or is even considered by him. The continuance of the Coercion Act is condemned severely at this moment by everything which can be called Irish opinion, as well as by some of the best English opinion. But by this Mr. Forster is not affected in the least. He gives no sign that the Ministry are dreaming of such a thing as allowing Irish representatives to say what sort of treatment Irish discontent requires. He is nevertheless a good man, and a well-meaning man, and he is governing Ireland through a body in which she is represented. Therefore his position is technically unassailable. But the mistake Englishmen have been making about the government of Ireland, ever since the Union, lies in supposing that in politics it is enough to have the law on your side. Mr. Forster is technically the countryman and fellow-subject of the Irish; in reality he is to the bulk of the Irish people as much a foreigner as President Grévy, and far more a foreigner than President Arthur. The majority in the House of Commons which armed him with the power he exercises was essentially a foreign majority. It may have been a wise and benevolent and upright majority. But in our day it is not enough that the majority be wise and upright and benevolent to secure cheerful obedience to its enactments. It must be a majority composed of men whom those who are to obey feel to be their countrymen, and though perhaps belonging to an opposing camp in politics, to be animated at bottom by the same hopes and fears and sympathies and ideals. Greater contempt for Irish feeling in this matter could hardly have been shown than Lord Beaconsfield showed in giving the Irish Secretaryship first to Sir Michael Hicks Beach and then to Mr. James Lowther. These were appointments which would, *mutatis mutandis*, have exasperated to the last point any disturbed community, even a community tenfold more reasonable than the Irish community is. There is no race of men in the world who would submit to Mr. James Lowther's or even Mr. Forster's rule in the shape in which it comes, without bitterness and fierceness. The mistake Mr. Gladstone is making is in not putting an end to it at once, and giving all the chief Irish offices to Irishmen while this compromise is still open, and in not checking the tone of insolent power with which some of his followers, notably Sir William Harcourt, treat Irish malcontents. It is not yet too late to correct it; but in two or three years it probably will be.

THE LAND AGITATION IN ENGLAND.

THE appearance in a very pronounced form of the agitation for reform in the land tenures in both England and Scotland is one more sign that the "Fair-Trade" device has failed. The discussion of the subject which the Tories very unwisely stimulated brought out very clearly the fact that English manufactures were not really suffering in any unusual degree from foreign competition, or in any degree from any cause except the crop failures of the last five years, involving, according to Mr. Bright's estimate, a loss to the nation of $1,000,000,000. The statistics of all kinds are conclusive as to the generally healthy condition of British industry. They show increased consumption by the working classes, increased deposits in the savings banks, and a marked decline in the number of paupers. They show nothing unfavorable, in fact, except a cessation of the extraordinary rapidity of progress exhibited during the ten years following the crisis of 1866. In truth, on reading the figures illustrating the industrial condition of the country which Lord Derby poured on the heads of Fair Traders in his speech a fortnight ago, any one who knew nothing of their antecedents or of the secret plans of their leaders would be at a loss to account for their beginning it at all. The outbreak of the land agitation both in England and Scotland, explains, however, clearly enough why they began it. They began it to turn away attention from the true means of relieving the only branch of British industry which is really in distress, and which legislation can really help —the agricultural industry.

It is acknowledged now that this cannot recover under its present organization. It does not help the landlords to say that the trouble is all due to five bad years in succession, and is therefore temporary. All the landlord's calculations of what the British farmer can stand in the way of charges without succumbing to American competition, are based on the assumption that the five bad years which have just elapsed will not recur. But the mere fact that five bad years have followed each other in succession would satisfy every farmer that they might be looked for again, and that the possibility of them must be taken into his calculations, even if farming had not always been a business in which an occasional bad year was a certainty. The most hopeful farmer hitherto has only expected to make money "one year with another"—never many years in succession. Five bad years in succession combined with American competition have of course greatly changed the farming outlook to all the class who have hitherto been in the habit of investing capital in agriculture. Even if they were ready to face the apparently increasing uncertainty of the weather and the uncertainty of foreign competition, they could not face at the same time the old and long-standing uncertainty about the rent. There are but few leases in England. The amount of rent is mostly an affair of reasonableness and "good feeling" between the landlord and tenant. This basis for business might do where the margin for profit was large, but will not do here, where the farmer has to figure more closely than ever and be very sure of his figures in order to escape ruin.

Most landlords have raised their style of living and the charges on their property and their estimate of its value during the past twenty fat years. They are naturally reluctant to come down to what we call here "lower values." To do so would to many of them mean confession that they were ruined. They therefore struggle hard to cherish and diffuse the belief that the present agricultural distress is but transitory; that the cause is to be found in the tariff, or something else far away from the land; that the remedy is "Fair Trade," or some other nostrum.

This, however, naturally alarms the farmers, and prevents the numerous temporary reductions of rent and remissions of arrears which have been made from having the desired effect. They say to themselves that as long as landlords hold these views about the cause of the trouble, they are sure to return to the old rates as soon as there is another good harvest, and farming is therefore not a safe business. They ask themselves, naturally enough, why, when the Irish farmer is furnished by law with absolute certainty as to his principal item of expenditure, for fifteen years at a time, and is at all times protected against the operation of the landlord's necessities or caprices, the Englishman should be left to take his chance of both? In Scotland there is a custom of nineteen-year leases, but even there the notion has got into the tenant's head that the close of the lease does not put an end to his claim on the farm; that the landlord has no right to put up his home to the highest bidder, and thus get the benefit of improvements which, even if they are exhausted in a commercial sense, undoubtedly heighten the attractiveness of the place to the stranger.

In fact, it would appear from what is now passing both in England and Scotland that the idea which has been recognized in the Irish Land Act, that the landlord is only part owner, is not an exclusively Irish idea, after all. The Saxon mind moves more slowly than the Irish mind, but it seems to take kindly to this survival, as it has been called, of the tribal state. It is apparently prepared to take that step backwards and towards a ruder economical stage, which the English economists, like Lord Sherbrooke, the Duke of Argyll, and Mr. Bonamy Price, distinctly detect in the Irish Land Act. Of course, it would not take it so readily if the times were good. It was the terrible suffering of the working classes during the periods of dear food which recurred so often under the high tariff, that committed England irrevocably to what was then the strangest and queerest economical policy in the world, the policy of free trade. It is the inability of the land to maintain three classes in interest which will probably soon bring about a recognition of the idea of state property in land, which has perhaps had less foothold in England than in any other country. When Mr. Mill, many years ago, suggested that what he called the "unearned increment" in the land—that is, the rise in value caused by the growth of population, the neighborhood of great towns, and the construction of railroads—properly belonged not to the owners of the fee, but to the public, he was treated almost as an amiable lunatic. We do not say that since then the notion that the state has a right to share in the profits of land has in its naked form made much

progress; but the notion that the state possesses vast and widespread powers of interference with the ownership of land, that the land is the dwelling place of the nation, and not a collection of estates simply, has made very great progress since Mr. Mill's day. We shall probably now see its results multiply every year in legislation. The legislation will be in the direction of what may be called quieting the cultivator, that is, making his mind easy about his future and giving certainty to his calculations in making his investments

The English Farmers' Alliance has followed the example of the Scotchmen in drafting a bill as the basis of their agitation, and the main feature of the measure in both cases is the transfer to a court of the power of fixing the rent. As the rent will depend on the market and not, as hitherto, on the landlord's estimate of what the tenant would bear sooner than surrender his home, of course this transfer would involve a social revolution of considerable magnitude. That all its consequences will be pleasant or valuable no one can expect; but it will raise a very large class immensely in self-respect, in enterprise, and in political independence.

LIEUTENANT FLIPPER'S DEFENCE.

A CORRESPONDENT writes to us :

"In your yesterday's paper there is an article on Flipper, in which West Point comes in for its usual share of abuse, based on the assertion that Colonel Shafter is a West Pointer. The writer of that article will no doubt be surprised when he consults his Army Register and finds that Colonel Shafter is not a graduate of West Point. He won great distinction in the late war, being brevetted several times for gallant conduct, and at the close of the war was appointed in the regular army.

"The writer of that article will be further surprised that twenty officers in Lieutenant Flipper's regiment are civilians, while in Colonel Shafter's regiment some twenty-three of the officers came from civil life.

"I do not think that the reputation of a brave, gallant, and efficient officer should be thus assailed on the improbable statement of Lieutenant Flipper, even if he is colored."

This affair was funny in the beginning and grows funnier every day. When Flipper was first accused we thought, in view of Whittaker's remarkable defence, that it would be a good joke to predict that Flipper would appear also as a race martyr, and set up a similar defence. We accordingly did so, and sketched out the defence for him. Only one thing was needed to make the joke complete, and that was that the prediction should be fulfilled. Sure enough it was. As soon as he could be heard from, Flipper was found proclaiming himself the victim of an elaborate white conspiracy, and his colored friends, as before, put West Point and his commanding officer "on trial." This was very amusing, as it seemed to us, and we reported his account of his pleas for the further entertainment of our readers. But here our arrangements began to break down, for the joke did not take. We got letters from some subscribers complaining of our brutal treatment of Flipper, and from others complaining of our scurrilous attack on Colonel Shafter, and also requests that we would decide wagers on the question whether we were joking or in earnest. Some took our report of Flipper's statement of his case as an expression of our own opinion of it, and others as a base attempt to discredit the story of a friendless and sorely-tried colored victim of white arrogance. The following is really the only letter we have received from those who have appreciated our exertions in the cause of innocent mirth :

"The delightful irony that points your review of the Flipper case will be probably best appreciated by those who have known Colonel Shafter's high character and some of the facts of his life.

"You err in assuming him to be a graduate of West Point. He is a graduate, and one of the very best, of the volunteer army; and what is specially significant, in view of his relations with Flipper, is the fact that he was one of the first, and was recognized in the army as one of the most successful, commanders of colored troops during the civil war. J. A. B. W."

In view of all this we suppose we must admit that the joke has proved a failure. There is clearly less demand for irony, even in the crude or pig state, than we thought there was. But we console ourselves with the reflection that the prediction has been an immense success. We cannot recall any newspaper exploit of recent times which can compare with it. The defence we sketched out for Flipper was far-fetched and intricate, and its adoption, to the careless observer, seemed highly improbable. We were more than two thousand miles distant from him, and knew nothing of his mental habits. Nevertheless, he has followed its leading lines very closely. Our suggestion that they made him Commissary of Subsistence out of far-reaching malice, with the view of basing a charge of embezzlement on his want of skill in accounts, we considered the least valuable of all our imaginings, and yet this too turned out a masterpiece, for he took it as it stood. Our satisfaction and pride were complete when the colored organ, the *Globe*, put Colonel Shafter and the Military Academy "on trial" for accusing Flipper, and when Flipper became in the twinkling of an eye a kind of prosecuting judge advocate. There is nobody, however devoid of humor, but must enjoy this, because even those who do not understand joking like to see a prediction come true, or a guess turning out correct, or the solution of a conundrum, or in fact any successful dealing of the human mind with the unknown or apparently inscrutable.

THREE BRITISH CONGRESSES.

LONDON, September 20, 1881.

WE are now in the midst of the various congresses and meetings of societies which take place in the autumn and occupy men's minds after the cessation of political strife at Westminster. The congress season, if I may so term it, has been an unusually brilliant one this year. It started last month with the International Medical Congress, which was remarkable both from the excellence of the papers read and the importance of the subjects with which they dealt, and also from the number of eminent men of all nations who had the opportunity of meeting together face to face. Since then the British Association for the Advancement of Science has held its Jubilee meeting at York, and has brought prominently before the world the great strides made by science during the last fifty years, and filled it with hopes of what may be done in the future. In London three congresses have been going on and attracting more or less of attention : the Trades-Union Congress, which has just brought its sittings to a close ; the Conference of Librarians ; and, last but not least, the Œcumenical Conference of Methodists. All these meetings serve to bring into prominence the great number and variety of the interests which constitute our modern civilization, and enable one to take stock of the forces which go to form the sum total which we call public opinion.

Without doubt the congress which has attracted most attention is that of the British Association at York. The interest taken in it cannot be measured solely by the number of those present, though this was considerable—amounting to 2,556, a number which has only been exceeded on seven previous occasions ; it must be tested also by the amount of comment and discussion in the press to which the reports of the proceedings of the Congress gave rise. The more intelligent part of the public is thoroughly familiar with the idea of the triumphs which have been achieved by the scientific method; and an occasion such as this, when the Association was celebrating its fiftieth anniversary, was well calculated to draw out the full measure of interest. The proceedings were worthy of the occasion. The address of the President, Sir John Lubbock, is universally admitted to have been a most able review of the principal achievements of science during the last fifty years, and the papers and reports in the different sections, amounting to nearly three hundred and fifty in all, were many of them of great value. To attempt to generalize in any way on the results of the meeting would be obviously impossible, and your readers will doubtless refer to the special organs of science for full reports of the discussions. There is some talk of transferring the scene of one at least of the future meetings to the New World, and Canada has been suggested as the place of meeting for 1885.

For other reasons than those which have given such interest to the meeting of the British Association, the Trades-Union Congress has attracted a large amount of attention. Your readers will bear in mind that with us the present extended suffrage is of comparatively recent date, going back only fourteen years, and that it was not carried into law without gloomy predictions not only from professional Conservative politicians, but also from independent thinkers, as to the use which the most numerous class of the community might make of it. Later on, in 1875, when trades-unions were granted their legal status, expression was given to the same feelings of alarm, and we heard a great deal of the dangers which would befall us when the working classes got to know their power and combined against the rest of the community. To such fears the Congress which has just brought its sittings to a close supplies the best antidote ; not that the alarmist will not find a programme which is extremely distasteful to him, but that, if he be fair-minded, he will recognize that it is put forward by men who, so far from constituting a class apart, form an integral portion of the community, share its feelings and common interests, and have the same differences of opinion among themselves as any other class. If he has heard much of the Socialists of the Continent, or of the doctrines of the "Internationale," and expects to find furious denunciations of religion, marriage, and private property, he will be agreeably surprised. The programme contains nothing so exciting. The Congress is, in the first place, a business meeting, where the special trade interests of the workmen are treated in a practical and sensible manner ; then it is a meeting for the discussion of measures of a more or less political character, which are calculated to benefit the working classes, and which the Legislature is to be prevailed upon to pass ; and throughout its proceedings there reigned a spirit which is absolutely the reverse of anything that can be called revolutionary.

The Congress met on the 12th, and was attended by one hundred and twenty-nine delegates of trades-unions and trade councils, representing one hundred and two distinct trade organizations, which have an aggregate of over four hundred and seventeen thousand members. Among the delegates were several women, who represented trades in which women were em-

ployed, and, as the sequel showed, took an active part in the discussions. The proceedings were opened by an address by the chairman of the Parliamentary Committee, which was an admirable example of the temper I have indicated; and then, after the election of officers, followed a resolution, unanimously agreed to, expressive of the horror felt by the trade societies at the attempted assassination of the President of the United States, and of sympathy with the American people under the calamity thus brought upon them. To dwell upon the details of the discussion which ensued would hardly be worth while. A great variety of matters was brought before the meeting. Some of these were specially trade questions, such as the working of the Employers' Liability Act of last year, the appointment of workingmen—and working-women too, as carried by an amendment—as inspectors of factories and workshops, under the Factory and Workshops Consolidation Act, and the establishment of co-operative societies for purposes of production, which was commended to the notice of the branches. Others were questions of a general kind, such as imprisonment for debt, the codification of the law, the land laws, and the assimilation of the borough and county franchise, all of which might have stood for debate at any Radical club. One of the discussions which arose was so signal an instance of the temper in which the delegates treated political questions that it is worth while to dwell upon it for a moment. Your readers are aware that one of the most peculiar of English institutions is the existence of an unpaid magistracy, sitting in petty sessions throughout the country districts. In each county men of position and standing are put upon the bench, and attendance at sessions forms part of the ordinary life of most country gentlemen. The system is obviously open to criticism on many grounds, and the main charge made against it at the Congress was that magistrates were appointed who had received no special training for the work, and that in certain cases, such as offences under the game laws, their sympathies as landowners biassed their decisions. Here was a case in which it might have been expected that all the speeches would have been on one side, and that the leaning to a paid magistracy would have been unanimous. Yet it was not so. One member pointed out that in the towns, where there was always a stipendiary, the system was not more satisfactory, and another called attention to the small number of appeals from the decisions of the unpaid magistracy. A mixed bench was advocated, in which the trained skill of the lawyer and the common sense of the plain man might both find a place; and though ultimately a somewhat vague resolution expressing dissatisfaction with the present system was carried, it was not till after both sides of the question had been before the meeting.

But by far the most important act of the Congress, as far as the public are concerned, has been its emphatic repudiation of the Fair-Trade movement. The president gave the key-note in his address by the remark, which was received with loud applause, that they "were not willing to tolerate any reversion to the old nonsense of protection." Later on, a curious incident took place. In order to ensure that the delegates who attend are duly accredited by the bodies which they profess to represent, a resolution was passed at the second meeting to the effect that no one should be eligible as a delegate whose expenses were paid by private individuals or institutions not *bona-fide* trades-societies or trade councils. Under this resolution five delegates were found to be present without proper credentials, and were accordingly expelled from the Congress. These men were known to be advocates of the Fair-Trade theory, and the Congress has been charged in some quarters with insisting on an unduly strict interpretation of its resolution in order to burke a discussion of the question. It is more generally felt, however, that, in view of the importance of ensuring to the Congress its character of a *bona-fide* representative body, it could have taken no other course if it was to maintain its authority. In any case, its decided vote on the question of Free Trade is the point which has impressed itself upon the public mind. The tax on bread has proved, as was to be expected, too much for the working classes to swallow.

The Methodist Œcumenical Conference, which has been attended by members of every sect into which Methodism is divided, and by representatives from every quarter of the globe, is assuredly a unique gathering, and one which, from its circumstances and the cause which it represents, might be expected to create a considerable amount of interest. Yet I do not think I should be misrepresenting public opinion here if I were to say that, whatever may be the effect produced within the circle of the adherents of the creed, it has not in any great degree attracted the attention of the public. The reason of this want of interest is probably to be found partly in the existence in this country of an established church, to which, from its learning and prestige, the public habitually look for the best that can be said in behalf of the distinctively Christian as opposed to the secular view of life; and partly in the wide diffusion throughout all classes of scientific theories which, to say the least of them, tend to throw considerable doubt on the fundamental beliefs common to all divisions of Christendom. From these causes Methodism has somewhat fallen out of account in the reckoning up of the forces from which society may expect fresh developments, or the solution of social problems. As a force operating upon individuals, beginning and ending with the individual, it certainly cannot be ignored; but as a force operating upon society as a whole, either with a mission to impress upon the world a new social ideal, or, like Roman Catholicism, claiming allegiance in rivalry to the state, it cannot be said to command attention. In the proceedings of the Conference itself there was nothing calculated to modify materially the general view. The interest of the discussion has been mainly for the initiated. The questions brought up for debate have partly belonged to the work of organization within the church, and have partly dealt with matters which might well have come before any Christian assemblage. The history of Methodism and the statistical results of its success naturally occupied the first place. The subject was introduced by the Rev. Dr. Cooke, of the Methodist New Connection of Great Britain, who drew attention to the fact that Methodism, which one hundred and forty-four years ago had no existence, now numbered 4,688,083 members, and, including adherents, a Methodist population of nearly 23,500,000 souls, and, he somewhat quaintly added, "besides these, many millions of glorified spirits in heaven." Then followed a discussion on the advantages of the itinerant ministry and of the institution of lay preachers; the training of children, both in the Sunday-school and at home, so as to attach them to Methodism; and, among other questions, the sphere of women's work in Methodism. Subjects of a more general character were also dealt with, such as the observance of the Sabbath; the attitude to be observed by Methodists towards temperance; the use of the press as a means of Christian propagandism; foreign missions; the opium traffic; and the armaments of Europe. On the question of the possible perils of Methodism from modern scepticism, the Rev. Dr. Todd, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, boldly enjoined upon the ministry the duty of familiarizing themselves with current scientific teaching, and advocated the introduction of physical science into the course of study of candidates for the ministry. On the concluding day papers were read on the question how Christian unity might be increased among the Methodists, and on the catholicity of Methodism, and the Conference separated with a resolution declaring it advisable that a second Œcumenical Conference should be held, if practicable, in the United States, in 1887.

One group of questions with which we are familiar here was conspicuous by its absence—viz., the political aspects of Dissent. Here the political Nonconformist is a prominent figure: he is an ardent and useful Liberal, ranging himself habitually on the side of the party now in power; he denounces wars and armaments, and it was owing greatly to his efforts that the Jingo policy of the late Government received so crushing a defeat; he is ever on the watch to guard against the encroachments of the Church in education and the administration of the poor-law; and he holds tenaciously, I need scarcely add, to the idea of the separation of Church and State, and looks forward to the realization of this idea as his final goal. In a purely English gathering of Nonconformists such a question as that of disestablishment, and cognate questions, would certainly have found a place; and it is a striking testimony to the success of the policy of practical and theoretical religious equality which has been carried out in America and the colonies, that these matters found no place in the programme of the Conference. In this gathering Methodism has appeared in its true colors, as a purely spiritual force, not organized in the sense in which Comte conceived a spiritual organization, but working with a method and procedure of its own which experience has proved to be adapted to its ends. No better key to its position can be found than the eloquent words with which the Rev. John Myers closed his paper on the concluding day, and which I may be perhaps allowed to quote in full:

"Our Conference will soon close; our essays are well-nigh all read, our addresses nearly all spoken, our discussions nearly ended, and what are to be the results? Shall Methodism from this Conference renew its youth, and return to its ancient path of going 'into the highways and hedges' to compel the millions of our perishing fellow-sinners to come in to the feast which our loving Father has prepared? Say not that they will not hear, for the thousands that press along the streets and crowd into dreary, most uncomfortable buildings to hear, and who subscribe of their pence thousands sterling a year to support the Salvation Army, show us that they will hear where the conditions of hearing are suitable to them. They may not come to our churches and chapels to present their destitution as a contrast to our respectability; they may not listen to well-prepared essays, whose finish is so perfect that, to use the words of one of them, they are so smooth that there is not friction enough to light a Congreve match upon them; but the entire history of Methodism shows that whoever will tell the old, old story in plain and simple words and loving tones, will never want an ear to hear his message." H.

A SUMMER RESORT IN SOUTHEASTERN EUROPE.

HERCULESBAD, NEAR MEHÁDIA, Sept. 10, 1881.

BUDA-PESTH and Bucharest are like the rhymes in a poor distich: all very well in themselves, it is the intervening space that is tedious. The great, drab plains of Hungary and Wallachia, where the towns, the roads, the people all look equally dusty and dilapidated, are what decides the character of the impressions of most travellers going from Vienna to the East. On

the whole, the effect is of a dead level, and yet half-way between the two extremes there is the beautiful scenery of the Transylvanian Alps. A little halt among these mountains may be made so agreeable as to cause one to forget the tedium of the rest of the journey. This fact is worth insisting on, in view of the great number of travellers who now follow this route to Constantinople and the East, and who are apt to regard this particular stretch as the most wearisome one of all the weary way.

Fortunately, as nearly as may be half-way between Pesth and Bucharest, is a station that seems placed there by a kind of travellers' Providence. It breaks the monotonous line of stations where, were there anything to be seen, there would still be lacking a bed to lie down in without fear, or a dish not smothered in red pepper and other strangling condiments. But Herculesbad (Herculesfürdö in Magyar) is Austrian, though in respect to cookery it is but a poor and far-away cousin of Vienna. In other respects this is a bathing-place that has been in repute for more than seventeen hundred years. The Romans used it and consecrated one of the principal springs to Hercules. Inscriptions in his honor to Æsculapius and Hygieia and other divinities, together with fragments of sculpture, have been found and now ornament the promenades of the place. The springs, of which nine are in actual use, are held to be sovereign for rheumatism, and good for gout, neuralgia, and hypochondria. The Government maintains here a military hospital, besides which the baths are visited by about five thousand strangers in the course of the season. In its height the affluence is so great that bathing, even in the waters of some of the less-renowned springs, begins at two o'clock in the morning, and many have to wait two or three hours for their turn.

Our recommendation is directed, however, rather to tourists and pleasure-seekers than to invalids. Herculesbad exists for all classes. It is indeed the principal watering-place for Rumania, Servia, and a large part of Hungary. Notices of amusements and advertisements are addressed to visitors in the languages of these three countries, with, ordinarily, a German translation for the rest of the world. It goes without saying that the aspect of the place is in a high degree varied; the more so as national costumes have not died out in this part of the world, and race and position are made evident even to a careless eye. To be sure, the taint of affectation occasionally kills the character of the dress; the pretty ladies of Bucharest, who sometimes appear at the Cursalon as superb versions of the peasant-girls of their neighborhood, are prompted by the same spirit that induces the Englishman, who has rented a Highland shooting, to bare his legs and don kilt and tartan when he goes out with the gillies. But the old-fashioned Hungarian, peasant or noble, wears his embroideries like a man to whom no idea of wearing any other dress has ever come. So with the Servian ladies, with their velvet jackets bordered with silver, and their caps of scarlet or of gold coins. Indeed, Servia is such a land of unpretentiousness that I dare say even its Jewesses are contented in the ugly head-gear that marks their race. But of all the costumes here, that of the peasant women of the country is the most striking. Its elements are few, at least during the warm weather, when it consists in a handkerchief on the head, a long chemise, and a fringed girdle. Lest it should be assumed that this covering is all too scant, we hasten to add that both the chemise, which is richly embroidered, and the fringe of scarlet and violet, descend to the ankles. In color and in grace the costume leaves nothing to be desired. In colder weather a jacket of white sheepskin, gay with silk embroidery, is put on, and, as the cold increases, above this is worn a long mantle of white felt, also ornamented, but usually in black. It is well worth while on a fête day to go to one of the neighboring villages, or to Orsova, to see the youths and maidens in their best—the above is only the ordinary wear—dancing the *Lora*, the Rumanian national dance, in all the open places. Even after having seen the popular dances of Greece and Russia, it must be owned that this spectacle has a character quite its own.

Herculesbad has the ordinary watering-place amusements, excepting that the music given two or three times a day in the Garden of the Cursalon is usually from an Hungarian orchestra. While freely yielding to the Hungarians the doubtful honor they may claim for their *cuisine*, it must be said that they owe their music, which is not without a certain weird beauty, to the Gypsies. The players in all their orchestras look as strange and wild as the music they play, so that it is, to our mind, a question how far these famous dances deserve the name of Hungarian.

The crowning glory of Herculesbad is its situation. It is in a narrow valley, between mountains whose slopes are richly covered with wood, above which rise the summits in precipices and needles of bare rock. Between the slopes, often occupying the full width of the valley, flows a river, named, in the simple nomenclature of the peasants, the Cserna, or Cserna Reka ("Black River"), because its bed is rocky and abounds in deep, dark pools, though the real color of the water is a lovely, transparent, chrysoprase green. It joins, not far below, the Bela Reka, or "White River," which is shallow, and flows over pale sands. The beauty of the Cserna and its valley cannot be too highly extolled. It is all the more striking as the mountains seen from the rail—at least when coming from the west—are rather tame and lumpish in character, and one is quite unprepared for the change that one sees in leaving the valley of the Bela Reka (Mehadika on some maps) for that of the Cserna. On arriving one is surprised at being driven, not to the hotel of one's choice, but to a central bureau, where the rooms of all the hotels are distributed according to tariff, and where all business connected with them or with the baths is conducted. The distances at Herculesbad are so small that the awkwardness of having the clerks' office outside the hotel is rather apparent than real; so with the fact that the two principal hotels have one restaurant midway between them that serves for them and, to a certain extent, for the others also. The whole place belongs to the state, and is farmed out to a *General-Pächter*, who no doubt finds that a central bureau administers everything more economically than would be possible for several special offices. One must allow that houses, gardens, promenades are kept in good order, and that the service is on the whole as prompt as in other watering-places.

The shadow side of the whole, to one who believes in the principle of nationalities founded upon race, is that Herculesbad should be in Hungary at all. These picturesque peasants are Rumanian, as, indeed, they are almost throughout this eastern portion of the kingdom, constituting more than one-sixth of the entire population. For the rest of Hungary, two-sixths are Slav, another sixth is German or Jewish; so that the Magyars, the dominant race, form barely a third of the population. In such a mixture of races, one might content one's self with the reflection that, after all, somebody must rule, if only it could be seen that the Hungarian rule were reasonably wise and just. In fact, the country is administered upon the assumption that the interests of the Magyars are those of the kingdom; indeed, to read the Pesth journals, one might be led to think that Magyar interests were those of the world. But this assumption agrees so little with the subject races that, unable to bear longer with the denial of justice, with arrogance, and the intolerable burden of taxation, they are emigrating in large numbers to Servia, to Rumania, to Bulgaria, to countries where they may be at home, and where it is possible to earn something more than a bare subsistence. This movement is so marked that during the last ten years, while the debt of Hungary has grown to enormous proportions, the population has remained almost absolutely stationary in numbers.

Fortunately, at Herculesbad itself the misery of this state of things cannot be seen as it can at a distance of a few miles. The people subsist upon the summer visitors, and seem to do well enough. So the future traveller who may come here to enjoy the rocks, the splendid beeches, and the spectacle of the motley crowd of pleasure-seekers, need find nothing to vex him beyond an occasional official inscription in untranslated Hungarian, which very few of the inhabitants or visitors can read.

THE FRENCH ARMY ORGANIZATION TESTED.

PARIS, Sept. 16, 1881.

THE general elections have had the result which was anticipated: the minority has been reduced and the majority augmented. The minority will be now composed of only 200 members—100 Royalists or Imperialists, and 100 Intransigeants or Radical Republicans. The new Chamber is composed to a very great extent of the same men as the old one, only they have made more promises and their platform is positive, while at the elections which took place four years ago it had a merely negative character. There is a remarkable sameness in all the programmes which issue from the ministerial fraction of the new majority, which styles itself the Republican Left, or of the Gambettist fraction, which calls itself the Republican Union. The new deputies all speak invariably with more or less warmth of changes in the magistracy, of the future separation of Church and State, but, till this separation can be effected, of the strict observance of the Concordat; of the diminution in the time of the military service.

The clerical question is somewhat dormant just now, as the clergy preserved a noticeable silence during the elections. Still, the Ministerialists would like to continue the *Kulturkampf* rather than do anything else; they are afraid to touch the magistracy or the army, though in their proclamations to the electors they propose to do so. There is in the *Kulturkampf* a certain vagueness which makes it peculiarly eligible for those who would rather talk than act. The President of the Council, M. Jules Ferry, has made the *Kulturkampf* his own question; he is never tired of speaking of the rights of the state, of the rights of science. He is the Dr. Falk of France. He has probably not the slightest desire to go any further than the Concordat; but there is in the Gambettist camp a large number of men who would go further, who would not be satisfied to treat the clergy like a body of functionaries salaried by the state; they would rather have the State and the Church completely separated. Such a separation exists in some countries, but it has as a corollary the independence of the corporate bodies. In France the enemies of the Church would deprive it of its actual salary, which was a compensation for all the Church property confiscated during the Revolution, and they do not recognize the liberty of the

corporations—testamentary liberty, the right of entail—none, in fact, of the guarantees of the churches in other countries. They go so far even as to claim all the cathedrals and churches of France as municipal buildings, as well as all the presbyteries; they would turn the Church naked into the streets, deprive it of its meagre salary, deprive it of all its houses and public places of meeting. They would not allow the Church, as such, to receive any legacy, to organize any system of public teaching or any system of public assistance.

The fact is that these followers of M. Paul Bert and others are absolutely hostile to every Christian church; they look upon all churches as mere schools of superstition and tyranny; they believe only in social science, and they have undertaken to make mankind happy without providing for its spiritual wants. Time only will show what may become of a country in which the new positivist, materialistic doctrines, instead of remaining in the abstract domains of science, take possession of the whole machinery of government; in which the spiritual doctrines which have always been looked upon as the refuge and the consolation of the poor, the weak, the oppressed, will come to be considered as mere phantoms, and mankind will ignore everything except its appetites and its rights. Our generation cannot see the full development of all such ideas, because there is something of the old man—I mean of the spiritual man—even in M. Paul Bert. He can vivisect dogs and crocodiles, but he cannot cut out of his own flesh the seeds which have been planted in it by the past.

The attitude of the French clergy in the present situation is so submissive that we cannot expect many tragical or sensational incidents in the continuation of our *Kulturkampf*. The Chamber will have to find some other question than the clerical. The military question will hardly be very convenient, as we have now Tunis on our hands; and though I do not believe that Tunis will become the Mexico of our Republic, it would be idle to deny that the expectations of our diplomacy have not been fulfilled. We expected to enter Tunis, as the French say, *comme dans du beurre;* but we find that we must occupy the country with a large army, since the authority of the old Bey is merely nominal. Next month operations will begin in earnest, and we hear every day of the departure of fresh troops for the seat of war. The preparations for this Tunisian war have been extremely troublesome. The French army is now divided into nineteen *corps d'armée*, none of which can be mobilized separately. The reserves can only be called for the whole army, and not by the President, but by the Chambers. The mobilization of the whole French army is a measure which can only be thought of in a great national danger. When the Minister of War needs troops for Algiers he can only depend on a certain number of purely Algerine regiments, such as the regiments of Zouaves, Spahis, and Turcos; for the rest, he must call French regiments, or parts of regiments, detailed from the seventeen *corps d'armée*. In this case he had to call in the fourth battalions of almost all our infantry regiments—the depot battalions; but these had to be placed on a war footing; and, in order to do this, a large number of the men belonging to the three first battalions had to be merged in the depot. The depot, which is in ordinary times the centre of recruiting, and the most immovable part of the regiment, became the active part at the expense of the whole regiment. You can easily imagine that such an operation could only take place with much disorder and confusion. The regiments were completely disorganized in order to furnish fighting battalions; and the colonels complain bitterly that they have now only skeletons of regiments in their hands. The fighting battalions have been one by one sent to Algiers. Only a few days ago I met one which was on its way from Dunkirk to Tunis. Once arrived on African soil, these battalions must be united again into regiments, and then new difficulties begin, as they don't know their new commanders, and wear different numbers. They remind us, in fact, of our *régiments de marche* in the Army of the Loire in our last campaign.

All these difficulties, no doubt, will be overcome, as the present war is not against a well-organized European army; we have only before us brave savages, without any organization. The general public, however, and especially the chiefs of the army, cannot but be moved by the defects of the existing organization. We had totally ignored the possibility of an African war when we copied the Prussian system in 1872. We see now that besides our European army, with its *corps d'armée* and its reserves, we must find the means of making an African army on totally different principles. We must augment the number of our Zouaves and Spahis, and of the negro regiments; we must have a light artillery corps. We shall find the elements of this army in the native population and in Corsica. It must be formed of men serving during many years, and attracted by premiums and by the hope of pensions. With a permanent African army, it will be easy to hold Tunis as well as Algeria; without it, our African colonies will also be a source of danger and of uneasiness.

I will not touch now this difficult subject of the African colonies. I am personally of opinion that it is the mission of all the Christian countries of the Mediterranean basin to do on the African soil what the Spaniards once did in Spain. At any rate, though the expedition to Tunis will be attacked by the Opposition in the Chambers, nobody will be found now to recommend the abandonment of Tunis. The question of the army comes before the Chamber with an imperative character; and though it is in the nature of democratic governments to diminish as much as possible the burden of the military service, I doubt if the Chamber will do much at present in this direction. What, then, can it do? The Republicans will probably be content at first to alter the organization of the magistracy in France. They are angry at seeing everywhere on the judicial bench men who were notoriously hostile to their party, when their party was only a party of sedition and of insurrection; men who administered the law under Napoleon III., some even under Louis Philippe. While the public prosecutor, the *Procureur de la République*, can be removed at the will of the Minister of Justice, the judge is still irremovable. He is ill paid, but generally belongs to a good family, and has a good fortune; he lives in an atmosphere of quiet dignity. In the provinces nobody equals the judge in independence and in consideration. He bears a very high character, and the administration of the laws in France is perhaps as perfect as it can be in any human community.

The Chamber would do better if it applied its energy to economical questions. It has become absolutely urgent to settle our commercial relations with England and with Italy. It is almost a shame that the conversion of our five per cent. stock should not yet be made. This stock stood some time ago as high as 120, and is now worth about 116. The Government has a right to repay it at par or to convert it into some stock bearing a lower interest. Why is it not done? In the present condition of France there is no excuse for a delay which costs the people a large sum of money every year. The Republicans are always boasting, and they have a right to do so, of the financial prosperity of France; they can give no better proof of it than by the conversion of the state funds. They can do it better at the beginning of a parliamentary session, as they have now four years before them during which their hands are completely free.

Correspondence.

GROWTH UNDER BLUE GLASS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Believers in the blue-glass theory—of whom there are some even yet—might read with profit Dr. Siemens's address before the late meeting of the British Association, describing his experiments with the electric light to ascertain the effect of constant light on the growth of plants. In one experiment he placed plants in several compartments covered with different colored glass. He says:

"The relative progress of the plants was noted from day to day, and the differences of effect upon the development of the plants were sufficiently striking to justify the following conclusions: Under the clear glass the largest amount of and most vigorous growth was induced; the yellow glass came next in order, but the plants, though nearly equal in size, were greatly inferior in color and thickness of stem to those under the clear glass; the red glass gives rise to lanky growth and yellowish leaf; while the blue glass produces still more lanky growth and sickly leaf."

Yours truly, A.

Springfield, Mo., Oct. 1, 1881.

GARFIELD AND GUITEAU.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: To-day the national flag is everywhere draped in mourning, and the hearts of the people keep pace with the majestic funeral procession as it moves towards the open grave at Cleveland. It was once said by an eloquent Southerner at a great political gathering in this city at which there were representatives with their flags from every State in the Union: "We rejoice not because our banners are many, but because our hearts are one." It may be truly said to-day that in the depth of the people's sorrow they still rejoice because now their banner and their hearts are one. The blood of President Garfield, whether shed by a madman or a murderer, has sealed in blood the unity of the nation. And such has been the sorrowing sympathy with the American people of all the peoples, that the brotherhood of nations is felt now throughout the world as it never was felt before.

But the tragic drama has not yet ended. It remains that impartial justice be done on the wretched man by whom the life of the President was taken. Not a few inconsiderate persons, and some newspapers echoing and stimulating the feelings of the hour, are impatient that any obstacles should be interposed between Guiteau and a speedy sentence of death.

The *Nation* has not been carried away by this impulse. On the 7th of July last, after announcing the deadly assault, it added: "All the details of the crime show a cool deliberation which in an ordinary case and with any adequate motive would remove all doubts on the subject of the prisoner's sanity; but there are features in it which look the other way." The *Nation* then proceeded to detail such facts as had come to light. Since then nothing has occurred to remove the doubts thus expressed, and they must remain until a full and careful trial is had in court with the aid of able counsel.

The events which have subsequently occurred

in the jail where Guiteau is confined have, so far as they are known, only served to confuse the public mind. It is plain that he has not been treated like other prisoners charged with similar offences, and that restrictions have been imposed which were not necessary for his safe-keeping; and the struggle between him and his keeper on the 17th of August, in which he is described as attempting to stab his keeper with a knife, and the latter as having accidentally discharged his pistol, has not been satisfactorily explained. The attempt of one of the military guard, set to protect Guiteau, to kill him by firing into his cell was a startling outrage. Until judgment has been pronounced a prisoner is confined for safe-keeping, and not for punishment. However base the accused may be, however strong the facts appearing against him, and however distinguished his victim, the law wisely and humanely holds over him its protecting shield, and declares him to be innocent until he is in court proved to be guilty.

The execution of the madman Bellingham for the assassination in 1812 of Perceval, the Prime Minister, has left a stain on English justice. The trial by court-martial and the execution of Mrs. Surratt as an accessory to the death of President Lincoln have left a still deeper stain on American justice. It is devoutly to be hoped that the trial of Guiteau, which will be memorable in the annals of the country, will be worthy of a great, magnanimous, and just people.

G. W. B.

Baltimore, Sept. 26, 1881.

THE SCIENTIFIC MODE OF TEACHING MATHEMATICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review of Professor Simon Newcomb's new work on the Higher Arithmetic, or Algebra, you speak of his method as more direct than that of the great bulk of mathematical text-books. You praise him especially for the arithmetic definition which he gives of the sine and cosine, making them wholly independent of triangles and of the circle also. I have not seen the book itself; but the great desideratum in mathematical text-books, whether on algebra or on geometry, is one that will cut loose entirely from the history of mathematics; that will not teach the branches of the science simply in the order in which they have been discovered and developed, but which will take up the mathematical knowledge of the present day, and teach it simply in the order in which the simpler truths serve as demonstrations for the more complex and distant.

This want was felt by Professor J. J. Littrow, the Imperial Astronomer at Vienna, as long as fifty years ago, and he published two text-books—a larger with some pretence to completeness, and a shorter practical abstract, in which he laid down the plan in the introductory preface, and attempted to carry it out in the course of each treatise, that all the old prejudices about "lower" and "higher" mathematics should be disregarded. He introduces the theory of functions, their development into an infinite series, progressing in the powers of the original variable, and differentials, almost at the very beginning. After explaining logarithms and exponentials, he proceeds to define the cosine and sine of a number: the former as half the sum of the number of which the given number, multiplied by the square root of —1 is the Napierian logarithm, and of the reciprocal of that number; the latter as half the difference of the number having such a logarithm and of its reciprocal, divided by that impossible root. In his algebra he gives but few examples for equations, and avoids those playful, worthless puzzles, in which ordinary algebras abound; in his geometry he avoids those problems and theorems that lead nowhere.

The books were both published in German, while a work of Littrow's on the higher branches alone ('Calculus and its Applications') appeared in Latin. They were, however, all very slovenly in their details, and highly unscientific in leaving theorems unproved the demonstration of which is of the very essence of mathematical science. For this and other reasons the efforts of Professor Littrow have had very little effect, and the mode of teaching mathematics is now almost as historical, and I might say as nonsensical, as it was fifty or a hundred years ago.

When quite young, I began to work on an English treatise in which Littrow's ideas should be worked out to their legitimate conclusions: nothing should be admitted that was a mere *cul de sac*, leading nowhere either in theory or practice; nothing should be demonstrated otherwise than in the most thoroughly scientific way; no examples should be given for the solution of equations that had no practical value. Was it my general want of energy, or was it the difficulty of the undertaking?—I never brought it to an end. At last I came to the deliberate conclusion that a man pursuing an entirely different profession should not meddle with mathematics, and gave up the job, putting my manuscripts away far out of sight. I wish some man like Professor Newcomb, whose authority would be followed, would take up this task, and show, once for all, how the mathematical science of the present day can be taught. There must be no waste in proving theorems by constructions that can be more readily worked out by analysis, or *vice versa;* there must be no fanciful illustrations where nature and art supply so many real cases. The scholars ought never to be led to expect integer numbers as the roots of equations; for where nature herself gives the problem the solution is always broken, badly broken, incommensurable. The scholar will never say then: "Oh! I can do this without algebra"; he will see that the science teaches him a way to find what could not be found without it. He will have time to reach the applications of mathematics to the laws of nature, such as we find in "pure mechanics," to the problems of social life, in the doctrine of probabilities, or to the movements and appearances of the heavenly bodies. Under such methods those who attend classes in mathematics will conceive a respect for the science which they cannot possibly have while in most of its manifestations to the young mind it hardly rises above Chinese puzzles or the now happily forgotten 13, 14, 15. As I have found that the study of pure mathematics ennobles the mind, and drives out low and impure thoughts, I should feel very thankful to any master in the science who would undertake the task of reforming the mode of teaching it—a task which I found too heavy for my own weak shoulders—so that a greater percentage of human beings might drink in the refreshing dew of the most truthful of all systems of truth. With old Boyle I firmly believe: ὁ θεὸς γεωμετρίζει.

L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., Sept. 26, 1881.

[It must be evident to every one who reads "L. N. D.'s" forcible and interesting letter that it suggests a number of questions the satisfactory discussion of which would form the subject of a book rather than of a brief note in the *Nation*. What we shall say is not so much for the purpose of confirming or refuting his opinions as to show that the subject may be looked at from different points of view, and that there are many encouraging signs of the future realization of his wishes. First, then, we doubt whether any science can be properly learned or taught by one who cuts entirely loose from its history. The individual must, in many respects, travel the road which the race has travelled; but he need not grope through all the forests, wade through all the mire-holes, and lose himself in all the by-paths which have hindered and harassed past generations. We will give a single specimen, which lies near at hand, of what we consider the truly historical method. The school-algebra of Professor Wentworth, the more elaborate treatise of Professor Newcomb, and the 'Calculus of Variations' of Mr. Carll were published almost simultaneously this summer, and have all been noticed in the *Nation*. Each author in his preface makes substantially the same statement as to the method he has pursued. We quote Mr. Carll's, as at once the most compact and complete:

"When a new principle is to be introduced for the first time, a simple problem involving it is first proposed, and the principle is established when required in the discussion of this problem. This having been followed by other problems of the same class, the general theory of the subject is finally given and illustrated by one or two of the most difficult problems attainable; after which another principle is introduced in like manner" (p. iv.)

The statements of Professors Wentworth and Newcomb are essentially the same. Here are Professor Wentworth, for many years a teacher in one of our oldest and best-known high-schools, Professor Newcomb, a practical teacher and of world-wide reputation as a man of science, and Mr. Carll, also a teacher, and who, literally, has double and triple integrals at his fingers' ends, all agreeing as to the best method, at least in one important point. Now let us see what has been the course of history. We quote from the introduction to Professor Jellett's treatise on the calculus of variations:

"This, indeed, is the ordinary history of the great improvements in mathematical science. Some problem, physical or mathematical, is proposed, which is found to be insoluble by known methods; and in the solution of such a problem a new principle is necessarily introduced. It is soon observed that this principle is not limited in its application to the particular question which occasioned its discovery, and it is then stated in an abstract form and applied to problems of gradually increasing generality. Other principles similar in their nature are added; and the original principle itself receives such modifications and extensions as are from time to time suggested by the various problems to which it is applied. Finally, these several parts are grouped together, a uniform system of notation is adopted, and the principles of the new method become entitled to rank as a new science."

Secondly. In regard to the waste of time over "playful, worthless" "Chinese puzzles," Professor Newcomb, in a passage in his preface, too long to quote, has expressed much the same idea, and has assigned to "problems" a very subordinate part.

Thirdly. We should be very careful in deciding what parts of the science of mathematics "lead nowhere." The theory of the conic sections had been cultivated for centuries almost as a mere matter of curiosity, when Kepler's discovery of the laws of planetary motion, and Newton's theory of gravitation, gave to the conic sections an importance

in astronomy and other branches of science which can hardly be overestimated.

Fourthly. The high opinion which "L. N. D." has of the moral effect of mathematical studies we cordially endorse. We believe, nay, we know, there are those who have found a refuge from petty cares, consolation for wrecked hopes, even relief from torturing physical pain, in those sublime speculations which "lead nowhere" except to comfort and peace.

Lastly. We say, in all sincerity, that the perusal of "L. N. D.'s" letter has convinced us that when circumstances forced upon him the conclusion that it was his duty to abandon his mathematical studies, the number of promising mathematicians in the world was decreased by one.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

MACMILLAN & Co. have in preparation a new work, 'The Graphic Arts,' by Philip Gilbert Hamerton, of which limited editions will be issued in 8vo and in large-paper, and which will contain some fifty illustrations, mostly in facsimile, after masters new and old. Besides conveying the technical information to be expected from the title, the author will aim "to show the influence of technical conditions upon the expression of thought and feeling." The illustrations will imitate lead-pencil, silver-point, various chalks, charcoal, pen-and-ink, pen with wash, sepia, woodcuts, lithographs, etchings, mezzotint, aquatint, line and stipple, etc., etc.——White & Stokes, 1152 Broadway, New York, will publish 'Esau Hardery,' a novel by W. O. Stoddard, author of 'Dab Kinzer'; 'Watching for Santa Claus,' by Mrs. Martha J. Lamb; and 'Good Times,' a series of designs by Miss Dora Wheeler, part in color and part in outline, the latter on water-color paper, and the subject of three prizes offered by the publishers for the best coloring of them.——A "humorous and dashing brochure, profusely illustrated," and bearing the title of 'Summer Rambles,' is announced by A. Williams & Co., Boston. It purports to relate the adventures of two "well-known Boston gentlemen through Florida."——'French Dramatists of the Nineteenth Century,' a volume in which Mr. J. Brander Matthews considers the course of modern French drama from the Romantic revival to the present Naturalistic outbreak, will be published shortly by Charles Scribner's Sons in New York, and in London by Remington & Co.——Mr. Dutton Cook, one of the most competent of English dramatic critics—best known, perhaps, in this country from his amusing 'Book of the Play'—has gathered together a number of brief histrionic biographical sketches, which will shortly be published, in two volumes, as 'Hours with the Players.'——Mr. Austin Dobson is preparing for the "Parchment Series" of C. Kegan Paul & Co. a volume of selections from the British essayists, neglecting the merely literary papers, and seeking especially to gather together those describing manners and customs and social characteristics. The volume will have a frontispiece by Mr. Randolph Caldecott, and will be introduced by a brief preface of the editor's.——For the same series Mr. Andrew Lang is selecting a volume of Poe's verse. Mr. Lang and Mr. S. H. Butcher, whose noteworthy prose translation of the 'Odyssey' will be remembered, are now engaged on a prose translation of the 'Iliad.'——Ellis & White, of London, announce for immediate publication 'Ballads and Sonnets,' by Dante Gabriel Rossetti, and also a new edition, with additions, of Mr. Rossetti's 'Poems.' Both volumes will be bound from designs by the poet.

—A fourth edition (since 1874) of Mr. Frank Vincent, jr.'s 'Land of the White Elephant' has just been published by Harper & Bros. The book has been considerably enlarged by a supplement in which the history of the several countries of Farther India is brought down to date; but this portion is remarkable chiefly for the confident decision of the questions involved in the parallelism between Buddhism and Christianity, and the author's architectural and ethnological speculations in regard to the ruins of Cambodia. We should not consider the book less valuable without these.——That "the great public is sick of reprints" has not proved true in the case of Prof. Goldwin Smith's privately-printed 'Lectures and Essays,' published early in the year at Toronto. The "American" demand for it has been such as to induce the author to arrange for its sale on this side of the line by Macmillan & Co.——Wittemann Brothers, 45 Murray Street, send us a pocket 'Centennial Album of Yorktown and of Richmond, Va.,' a guide and a souvenir for such as may attend the coming celebration on the historic battle-ground of two wars. The subjects for pictorial representation have been well chosen and neatly executed, and a map has not been forgotten.——Mr. L. B. Thomas, 409 West Twentieth Street, has become the American agent of 'Putzger's Historischer Schul-Atlas,' comprising twenty-eight leading and forty-eight side-maps, and to be recommended for the broader aspects of politico-historical changes. Mr. Thomas has overcome an objection to its use by those who are ignorant of German, by supplying a translation of the table of contents and of the geographical terminology, and has added a comparative scale of miles.——No. 93 of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Zeitschrift* contains a map showing the Weser delta about the year 1511, with the present lines of the mainland, and one exhibiting the German communities nestled in the extreme north of Italy, between Lago Maggiore and Monte Rosa. They both illustrate articles devoted to their subjects. A third article may be signalized—G. Niederlein's exposure of significant errors in South American maps. It shows how the ablest geographers are led astray in their delineations, and how their imitators perpetuate their mistakes.——In addition to the usual charts of the State Engineer and Surveyor's annual report on the New York canals, that for 1881 gives a useful map showing the chain of American lakes and the canals—whether of Canada or of the United States—connected with them. An indication of the wheat country to the north and west of Lake Superior is perhaps intended to make the British farmer pause and reflect.——Mr. Frederick Prime, jr., Ph.D., has again issued a supplementary list to his valuable Catalogue of Official Reports upon Geological Surveys of the United States and Territories, and of British North America. The entries are for the most part not recent. Mr. Prime's address is 230 South Third Street, Philadelphia.————We made a serious omission when describing the Q. P. Index to the *Eclectic Magazine*, which we should have said includes also (and this adds greatly to the value of it) vols. 37-148—*i.e.*, the last twenty-eight years—of the cognate periodical, the *Living Age*.——Westermann's *Illustrirte Deutsche Monatshefte* holds a little jubilee over its 300th number, completing its fiftieth volume.——It is unfortunate that Sainte-Beuve's complete works are not published by one firm, who would have an interest in making a uniform and carefully-edited edition. However, MM. Garnier Frères, the publishers of the 'Causeries du Lundi,' 'Portraits de Femmes,' and 'Portraits Littéraires,' have now got out an analytical index to these nineteen volumes, prepared by M. Ch. Pierrot. It fills 388 double-column pages, and is preceded by two hitherto uncollected articles of Sainte-Beuve—one on Madame Tastu, the other on Le Sage and 'Gil Blas'—and by a few other odds and ends of criticism.

—There is always apt to be a good deal of mystery about the profits of dramatic authors and poets. The former are generally believed to be greater now than at any previous period in the history of the drama. The latter are supposed to have risen a little, but not in proportion to dramatic profits. The account given by Mr. McKee Rankin of the pecuniary history of the "Danites" shows that the public have still a good deal to learn on these subjects. The play was announced on its appearance as the joint work of Mr. Joaquin Miller and Mr. Rankin, and it has met with great success. Mr. Rankin now says that Mr. Miller never had anything to do with the play except to contribute the use of his name, for which he has been paid $5,000. Mr. Miller seems in the sale of his name to have behaved in a very handsome way, for all he insisted upon was that the play should be read to him "so that he might at least know something about what he was going to be father of." On its being read to him "he was perfectly satisfied, never making one suggestion of addition or alteration." Mr. Rankin claims the entire authorship himself, though he admits that he "hired a literary man" to do the amanuensis work at $25 an act. This story, we regret to say, is alleged to be open to the objection that it is inconsistent with an earlier account of the origin of the play, in which Mr. Rankin gave a curious description of the manuscript as it came to him from the hands of the great poet. It would be interesting to know a little more about the "literary man" and his "amanuensis work"; he ought to know who wrote the play. The sale of Mr. Miller's name, if it was sold, shows in a rather striking way the increasing commercial value of poetical reputations. There is many a national poet who would be glad to go into dramatic collaboration of this kind on such terms. Indeed, it is difficult to see why it should be confined to poets. Who would not go to see a play—let us say—announced as the joint work of George Bancroft and Lester Wallack, or President Arthur and Augustin Daly, or George Bliss and Edgar Fawcett?

—Cincinnati will have her fifth biennial musical festival on May 16, 17, 18, and 19, 1882. As usual, there will be seven performances, three of which will be in the afternoon and four in the evening. The orchestra, consisting of over one hundred and fifty performers, will be substantially the same as at the last festival. The chorus of six hundred trained singers, which was organized in 1880, has since that time been under the most careful training for the fifth festival. Frau Materna and other distinguished soloists will be secured, some of whom will also appear at the festivals which are to take place the same month in New York and Chicago, under Mr. Thomas's direction. The programmes at Cincinnati will include, on the first night, Mozart's Requiem, Beethoven's Eighth Symphony, and Handel's Dettingen Te Deum; on the second night, Bach's Passion music; on the third, Schubert's Ninth Symphony, Schumann's scenes from Goethe's "Faust," Wagner's "Faust" overture, Berlioz's "The Fall of Troy," and a prize composition which will be selected from eighteen works now submitted to the judgment of Mr. Thomas, M. Saint-Saëns, and Carl Reinecke, of Leipzig. The programmes of the afternoon concerts will be published hereafter.

—Besides the usual number of music festivals which take place in England every autumn, there has been one this year which has been aptly designated as a musical invasion. It was organized by a number of the Orpheon societies of France and Belgium, who came across the Channel to compete at Brighton for various prizes, mostly contributed by wealthy citizens of Brighton, and consisting of medals, silver-gilt wreaths, and other objects of art. All the various classes into which the Orpheons are divided —such as brass bands, mixed bands, orchestras, and vocal societies—were represented, about two thousand members of various societies having come without expecting pecuniary compensation for their travelling expenses, but solely impelled by their love of art, their ambition, and perhaps also a desire to see a little of the world. This is the more noteworthy in view of the fact that most of the members of these societies are farmers and artisans, and therefore amateurs, professionals being strictly excluded except under certain peculiar conditions. One of the rules of these contests prescribes that every society must read at sight a piece composed for the occasion and kept in a sealed package, only ten minutes being allowed the conductor and performers to read over their parts before executing them. The English papers unite in their praise of the way in which this test was stood by most of the societies, as well as of the excellence of their performances in general. England has just as good vocal societies as those heard on this occasion, but she has no instrumental societies comparable to them. The Brighton festival might have been made more interesting still if some of the English choral societies had been admitted to the contest; but this was prevented by the very strict rules of the Orpheon societies embodied in a code of forty-four articles. As for the artistic result of the festival, the London *Times* says that the style of art cultivated by the French and Belgian singers is not of the highest or even of a very high order, because art when taken up by workmen and mechanics is apt to become itself mechanical, as proved by the case of the Meistersingers in mediæval times. These societies, however, provide the raw material for an artist to work with, and they make a love of the art so general in a country as to give rise to the remarkable phenomenon of an excellent opera or concert institute being in France or Germany supported by a town of only a few thousand inhabitants.

—Forty-four years ago there was a lively little controversy going on between Mr. Panizzi, then an extra-assistant at the British Museum, and the Royal Society. Mr. Fagan's report of the matter is the report of a biographer, and is designed to show the capable cataloguer at war with a powerful society, and winning the day by the force of his character and the righteousness of his cause. But now Mr. C. Tomlinson writes to *Nature* to show another side of the story: "Mr. Panizzi insisted on adding to some of the items of the catalogue original comments of his own, to which the Library Committee justly objected as committing the Society to opinions of doubtful value." One instance Mr. Tomlinson gives in which, certainly, Panizzi in a single mistake had included ignorance and carelessness; but it will not do to reason from a single instance. Mr. Tomlinson says there were others, but does not give them. It did not need his letter to prove that Panizzi had an absolute confidence in himself. What we do learn is that his self-confidence was not always justified. Besides the erroneous note cited, Mr. Tomlinson recalls from his own experience what appears to have been a momentary slip of Mr. Panizzi's memory in regard to a famous French chemical author, which, however, unluckily for his posthumous fame, Mr. Panizzi ensured his hearers' not forgetting by treating him with, we fear we must say, his not unusual discourtesy. Still, one would like to see a few more instances of error in the notes which he roundly abused the Committee for not accepting. After all, perhaps the Committee had a right to decide what sort of a catalogue they would print, as they were to pay for it. But the main burden of Panizzi's complaint was that they did not pay him according to agreement till after repeated demands and a threat of legal proceedings, and this Mr. Tomlinson does not at all explain away; so that the effect of his letter is not so favorable to his friends as it is damaging to their opponent.

—One of the English "society journals" has again broached the question, which seems always coming up for discussion and yet which is never decided, whether women, as they become more and more emancipated, are likely to become smokers. The *Herald* attempts to settle it *ex cathedrâ* by saying that "the answer depends upon whether the young woman will want to smoke; if she does, she will." In other words, she is not any longer likely to be prevented by her deference to man's opinion, and her course in the matter must hereafter be determined solely by her like or dislike of the habit. But this overlooks the fact that one of the strongest permanent motives which influence women in society is the desire for admiration from the other sex. Women whose enlightenment and self-reliance have brought them to the point of not any longer caring for what "the men" think about their behavior will undoubtedly smoke or not, as they like tobacco or not; but with the great majority of them one of the strongest influences that actuate their conduct must continue to be the love of man's admiration and approval, and with regard to such a habit as smoking it can be almost demonstrated that its being taken up by women will depend chiefly upon the feeling of men about it. It is pre-eminently a social habit, and secret smoking is never likely to have much charm for anybody, so that it cannot become common among women—as for instance opium eating might—without the fact being generally known. At present there is no dispute that Americans and Englishmen, fond as they are of smoking themselves, dislike the spectacle presented by a lady's smoking. It is distasteful to them. It looks fast and disreputable, and they "frown upon it." A woman who smokes knows that this feeling exists, and consequently smokes either in a state of defiance, or solitarily with a fear of detection and exposure. Now either of these states of mind is fatal to the full enjoyment of tobacco, which requires a mind entirely free from care and anxiety. Hence few Anglo-Saxon women who smoke can enjoy smoking as it ought to be enjoyed, while with the majority the masculine sentiment on the subject prevents them from wishing to enjoy it. If the "coming woman" is to smoke, the masculine feeling with regard to it must in some way first be modified.

—Professor Wm. Dwight Whitney's 'Index Verborum to the published text of the Atharva-Veda' is now published as volume xii. of the Journal of the American Oriental Society, and is a work of 383 pp. in double columns. Volume xi. of the Society's Journal is not yet published. From the introduction we learn that the work was begun in 1851, when the Atharvan manuscripts at Berlin were undertaken by the professor in a way that led afterwards to the publication of the text of that veda by him in connection with Professor Roth, of Tübingen; and the collection and arrangement of it occupied more or less of his time up to 1875. The index was to form part of the second volume in connection with other indexes, notes, translation, etc.; but the second volume waits the collection of other materials and the freedom of Professor Roth, and the publication of the index seemed to need the auspices of some learned society. Hence its publication by the Oriental Society. The first volume of the 'Atharva-Veda Sanhita' was published at Berlin in 1856, and it was followed in 1862 by the publication, as vol. vii. of the Journal of the American Oriental Society, of Professor Whitney's own edition of the 'Atharva-Veda-Prātiçākhya,' text, translation, and notes. The last 40 pp. of the present work are given to a reversed index of roots and stems (index of finals). The various niceties of the work and the difficult labor it bears witness to are rather for the specialist to point out. No small part of this labor consisted in making the printed work, which is in the Roman character, accurate. It may be remarked, however, that the words "published text" in the title refer to another text up to this time represented by a single inaccurate and mostly unaccented MS. on strips of birch bark, now in Professor Roth's hands, and hunted up at his instance a few years ago in Cashmir. The word also refers to the fact that due account is taken of readings of the Roth-Whitney text which do not rest on MS. authority, part of the last two books consisting of "such utter nonsense" that it did not seem advisable to the editors to let the text pass through their hands without some amendment of its numerous and obvious false readings. On the other hand, there are parts of the text of which the material is not included in the index. The most important instance of this is the greater part of the twentieth book, which is made up of extracts taken bodily from the established text of the Rig-Veda, and it seemed to be useless to burden the Atharvan Index with words not peculiar to it. Aside from these exceptions, the Index is intended to be a complete one, giving every word and form (even down to *ca*, and the cases of the demonstrative and relative pronouns) in every instance of its occurrence.

—The superiority of the Germans in learning, and their incapacity for writing anything which in style and treatment is not heavy, dull, and awkward, have become proverbial. There are, however, exceptions on both sides of the equation; there are plenty of Germans who treat serious subjects superficially, and there are a few who write as cleverly as any French or English writer of the same calibre. Heine will at once occur to the mind as the best instance of this; but since his day no one, we suppose, has used his language so advantageously as has Paul Lindau, from its foundation in 1872 till the present day editor of the only German paper which could claim a place in the same class as the *Saturday Review* or *Spectator*—the *Gegenwart*. Many readers besides Germans will learn with regret that Herr Lindau withdrew from this journal October 1.

—While speaking of literary journalism in Germany, it may be worth while, in view of the inaccurate statements frequently printed in this country, to say something on the subject in general, not ignoring in so doing the German-American press. Of the hundreds of Americans who habitually read German books and papers, very few know of the existence of the German periodicals published in this country. Of these the oldest and best known is the *New-Yorker Belletristisches Journal*, a sixteen-page weekly. The eight-page *Sonntagsblatt* of the New York *Staats-Zeitung* is of the same character, though less well printed; and to these has just been added a third, the New York *Figaro*, which typographically is more attractive than either. In all of these the three prominent features are

the sérial novel (which in the *Belletristisches Journal* is often a translation of the popular American novel of the day—at present Mrs. Burnett's 'Fair Barbarian'), criticism of the German stage, at home and abroad, and an easily-read three or four-column article on things in general, corresponding to the *chronique* of Paris papers, and called simply "New York" or "New Yorker Revue." The first number (September 17) of the *Figaro* contains also an article on the most popular of German magazines, the *Gartenlaube*, to which the editor of the *Journal*, Mr. Udo Brachvogel, is a frequent contributor. Among the many proofs of the thirst for knowledge which fills all Americans (except the characters in Mr. Edgar Fawcett's novels), and the wide extent of American culture, the enormous popularity of our magazines, and especially *Harper's Magazine*, is often instanced. Except, however, for an occasional article or novel which seems hardly at home in *Harper's*, the *Gartenlaube* is fully equal to it in literary merit, while its circulation exceeds *Harper's* by one hundred thousand or more. Nor is this enormous popularity due to absence of competition, as we shall see later on. The illustrations are not so good as American woodcuts, but they are good; the miscellaneous articles are generally valuable and always interesting, and, when upon political or religious topics, pervaded by a self-contained but decided liberalism; while the novels, thanks to Mrs. Wister, are as well known in this country as they are at home. Critics have often praised this lady, not only for her literary skill, but for the extraordinary tact displayed in the choice of tales for translation. Praise for the latter, however, is due not to her, but to the lately deceased editor of the *Gartenlaube*, who, as was some years since pointed out in the *Gegenwart*, called into life a new school of novelists, mostly women, writing pseudonymously, and some of whom —"E. Marlitt," for instance, and "E. Werner"—are to-day popular in every European language. It is of course unnecessary to say that this opinion of the *Gartenlaube* is not held universally. The late Johannes Huber, the Bavarian Old Catholic, deemed it sacrilegious and impertinent, and the *Figaro* writer says it represents merely superficial culture and slow politics, while it cramps and emasculates those of its contributors who show signs of originality, and prostitutes its columns to dishonest money-getting by means of skilfully-disguised advertisements.

—We have little room left in which to speak of other periodicals. *Ueber Land und Meer* enjoys great and well-deserved popularity, being much superior to the *Gartenlaube* in illustrations, but generally inferior in literary contents, especially in its fiction. The *Deutsches Familienblatt* and *Daheim* are close and fairly successful imitators of the *Gartenlaube*. The Stuttgart monthly, *Freya*, now dead, was, aside from fiction, better than any of these. Of the now existing monthlies the oldest is *Westermann's*, a periodical of the same style as the ante-bellum *Harper*. It began publication shortly before *Harper's*, and, singularly enough, both adopted the design for their covers from the long since deceased *Bentley's Miscellany*. The *Deutsches Magazin*, of Berlin, was very good during its short life, as was also the still living *Salon* (Leipzig) till within a year or two. The less popular journals, the *Deutsche Revue*, the *Deutsche Rundschau*, *Unsere Zeit*, the *Grenzboten*, *Im Neuen Reich*, and Lindau's ambitious *Nord und Süd*, are too well known to need mention here.

—Seven cities disputed the honor of the birthplace of Homer. They were all pretenders, if M. Théophile Cailleux is right. In his 'Belges et Bataves, leur origine, leur haute importance dans la civilisation primitive,' he has restored the poet to his true country—Belgium! Schliemann has been wasting his money in digging for Troy in Asia Minor; it was in England, near Cambridge. The Ægean was the German Ocean; Ithaca, Cadiz. Homer wrote in Greek, and not in French or Flemish or Walloon, as he would do nowadays, because Greek was the original language of the whole Atlantic coast. Those who maintain the superiority of scientific over classical studies because there is no room for discoveries in the latter, must seek a new argument.

—In illustration of the extremes of climate which the past month exhibited within the boundaries of the United States, we extract the following from a private letter written by a member of a scientific party in the Northwest: "On the 6th inst. [September], we were caught in a snow-storm—eight or ten inches—and this was followed by cold so intense as to slaughter the migratory birds on all sides. The wrens, bluebirds, sparrows, etc., were so chilled as to allow us to pick them from the ground or bushes. You can imagine how much we enjoyed the weather, in summer outfit, without fire or tents."

—The final reports of the Norwegian North Atlantic Expedition are just being received here. Those on Chemistry, by Hercules Tornöe, and on Fishes, by R. Collett, have recently come to hand, and contain data and results of importance. The expedition, between 1876 and 1878, has been doing a valuable work in supplementing the labors of similar expeditions in other regions, and pushing their researches into seas which by common consent are the especial province of Scandinavian investigators. The researches of Svendsen, continued and greatly augmented by Tornöe, considerably enlarge our knowledge on the subject of the air, carbonic acid, and salt contained in sea-water, and are illustrated by maps showing the distribution of salt in the surface-water and at greater depths, as well as the proportion of nitrogen in the deeps. They show essentially that the distribution accords with that of the Gulf and Polar Stream waters, the larger amount of salt and the lesser of nitrogen being the property of the warmer water. The amount of air was found to be related strictly to the temperature, the pressure at great depths having no bearing on the question. The water was obtained by an ingenious, and the first really reliable, apparatus for the purpose, designed by Captain C. Wille, of the Norwegian Navy, who commanded the steamer *Vöringen*, on which the work of the expedition was done. Jacobsen's method was adopted for the determinations. The amount of oxygen was found to diminish with the depth to about 350 fathoms, after which it remains nearly constant, or, if anything, increases a little, in accordance with the results obtained by Buchanan from the *Challenger* observations.

—It was finally determined by Tornöe that, contrary to previous assumptions, free carbonic acid does not exist in ordinary sea-water, which indeed has an alkaline reaction; but that the carbonic acid was present in the form of carbonates, and in a less degree of bicarbonates, which, by the saline mixture present in the water, when at the boiling point became decomposed. These important results were obtained through new methods and by new apparatus designed by the author. In regard to saltness, a remarkable fact was determined, which has a most important bearing on various theories of oceanic circulation—namely, that the excess of salt noticeable and expected in the warm Atlantic current water was not confined to it, but almost equally characterized the deep strata which were reduced to the freezing point. This water is, therefore, not a Polar indraught, as has been supposed, Arctic or Antarctic, but is tropical surface-water which has been cooled; while the Polar water continues equally distinguished from it by its deficient saltness, and appears to allow the cooled salt water of the surface to sink through it without mixing, and to form on the bottom certain portions of what has been called the "cold area." The examination of the fishes by Collett has afforded six or seven new species —a ray, a sucking pout (*Liparis*), several species of *Lycodes*, and a translucent raspberry-colored ghost, with the ventral fins reduced to long bifid filaments attached to the throat, and with no scales, which was called *Rhodichthys regina*. It was brought up from a depth of a mile and a half in the open sea between Jan Mayen and Finmark. The majority of the fishes belonged to the cod, blenny, sculpin, soft cod (*Lycodes*), and flat-fish families, and they comprised in all thirty-two kinds, whose food was found to be chiefly minute crustacea. Both these reports are elegantly printed and illustrated, with the text in parallel columns of Norwegian and English. Others are expected before long.

PARTON'S LIFE OF VOLTAIRE.—I.

Life of Voltaire. By James Parton. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

When Mr. Parton appears as an author before the tribunal of literary criticism the judge must at once feel, if he be endowed with any acumen or with any sense of justice, that the case is one which it is difficult to dispose of with perfect fairness; for Mr. Parton has produced a book which is at once one of the worst and one of the best of biographies. The workmanship is in several points deplorably poor, yet the article produced is in many respects deserving of high praise. Of Mr. Parton's volumes it may with absolute truth be said that "you neither can praise them nor blame them too much." A reviewer, therefore, who wishes to act justly at once by the public, who have a right to discriminating criticism, and by a meritorious author, who has a claim to a due meed of praise, finds no other course open to him than to point out with unmistakable clearness what are the defects of Mr. Parton's literary workmanship, and then to dwell with equal emphasis on the merits of a book which, if revised and to a certain extent rewritten, may become for all Englishmen and Americans *the* life of Voltaire.

Mr. Parton's defects are a conspicuous want of critical acumen, and a deficiency in that complete literary training and education which in the present day must be possessed by any man who wishes to take rank with such biographers as Strauss or Morley. Of his deficiency in critical thoroughness one example (which has already been pointed out by other reviewers) may suffice:

"Much ingenuity has been expended upon the derivation of the word Voltaire. A writer in *Le Derby*, a French sporting paper, has the honor of settling this unimportant controversy. While investigating, in 1869, the pedigree of a French horse, he came upon the records of a family named Voltaire, and the family proved to be ancestors of our prisoner's mother."

The solution here suggested of an unimportant but curious riddle may be the right one. The odd point is that Mr. Parton has apparently no authority for the statement he makes except the *Pall Mall Budget* of February 26, 1869. If the London newspaper does contain further references establishing the truth of a curious fact, why are they not given? If the *Pall Mall Budget* merely quotes from the columns of *Le Derby*,

what are we to say of a serious writer who disposes of a knotty question which has vexed men like Carlyle and Strauss by adopting a mere newspaper rumor? The answer is that Mr. Parton here betrays what may be inferred from the whole tone of his writing—that he has not formed a conception of the critical acumen and the laborious research which even on minor points ought to be displayed by any one who is worthy to labor in the field of historical biography.

This lack of critical acumen is closely connected with that deficiency in literary training which constitutes Mr. Parton's most serious fault. The very titles of his chapters, such as "The First Tiff," "The Kind of an Orange," "A Fire of Thirty-Sous Books," suggest a lack of good taste. But he may fairly enough plead that his taste, in common with that of writers as eminent as Mr. Motley, has been somewhat corrupted by Carlyle, and that he has a right to avail himself of the defence contained in the maxim *de gustibus non est disputandum*. A far more serious matter, which, it so happens, is also betrayed by one of his headings, is his curious infelicity, not to say inaccuracy, in the use of the English language. "The Lord of Ferney Communes" is the title at the head of one of the most amusing chapters in the work. We wonder whether any of our readers who do not happen to be acquainted with the incidents of Voltaire's life understand what this heading means. It signifies, or is meant to signify, "Voltaire takes the Communion." This is the interpretation of Mr. Parton's language. Unhappily, though his peculiar dialect is explainable, and may even be called intelligible, it has not the merit of being English. Nor is this a criticism aimed at an isolated verbal conceit. The pages of translation from the French, which form a valuable feature in Mr. Parton's work, are constantly marred by awkwardnesses of expression on the part of the translator.

It is, however, when our author has the misfortune to deal with Latin that his want of complete training appears in the strongest light. When an Italian guest is made to say to Voltaire, "Est ubi peccus," we of course assume that Mr. Parton's printer (who assuredly needs sharply looking after) is responsible for the extraordinary substitution of "peccus" for "peccas." But when we find the Latin sentence translated, "Whence is your fault?" we certainly begin to think that Mr. Parton has, to save himself trouble, used the help of some not very accurate translator. This, it will be said, is a mere verbal criticism. It were sufficient to reply that verbal inaccuracy is no slight defect in an author of high pretensions. But, unfortunately, laxity in the rendering of Latin has at least in one place betrayed Mr. Parton into one of the most curious blunders which it has ever been our fortune to notice. When Voltaire came to Cirey to commence the course of life in which Voltaire himself, Madame Du Châtelet, the Marquis, and ultimately Captain Saint-Lambert each played so singular a part, the poet wrote a Latin inscription commemorating the fact of his concealing himself in the country. The "Latin inscription, witty in itself," writes Mr. Parton, "is also amusing for its observance of the established decorum of the Château. The masculine gender is assigned to the 'lover of virtue, the despiser of the vulgar and the court, the cultivator of friendship who, withdrawn to his estate, was hiding a poet.' The world was invited to take note that it was a marquis who hid the poet, not Madame la Marquise:

> 'His virtutis amans, vulgi contemptor et aulæ,
> Cultor amicitiæ vates latet abditus agro.'"

Need we point out to our readers that the masculine gender is assigned to the "lover of virtue" because the lover of virtue is "the poet"—that is, Voltaire himself? Not a word is said in the lines cited either about the Marquis or about his wife. The whole of our author's far-fetched comment rests upon a mistranslation which certainly would bring condign punishment of some kind on any schoolboy in the upper form of a good school. We are absolutely unable to explain Mr. Parton's astounding slip. That he does not understand Latin is quite incredible; that, understanding Latin, he should have failed to see the meaning of the lines he cites is almost equally incredible. We must in fairness add that this is by far the worst blunder we have noticed in the book. It is, in one sense, a blunder of no special consequence, but it conclusively establishes the existence, to speak in the mildest terms, of a kind of literary laxity on Mr. Parton's part which, one might have thought, was sufficient to disqualify him from composing a work of half the excellence of the book which he has in fact produced.

For, whatever be the deficiencies in Mr. Parton's workmanship, his work has many great and rare merits. It is, in the first place, exactly what it terms itself—a genuine life of Voltaire, and not a critique upon the life and character of Voltaire. In this respect it differs entirely from the works of Strauss and of Morley. These writers have written essays which are each admirable in their way. One might say without much exaggeration that Strauss's 'Voltaire' was, as a set of lectures, a literary gem. It is precisely what lectures ought to be: it gives the main facts of Voltaire's life; it supplies a series of most interesting reflections upon his works, his opinions, his position in literature and in the history of thought; it stimulates, and is meant to stimulate, the hearers of the lecturer to study Voltaire's writings and life. But just because Strauss aimed at producing an admirable set of lectures on Voltaire, he did not aim at producing and did not produce a life of Voltaire. The same remark holds good in a great degree of Mr. Morley's very meritorious essay; his 'Voltaire' must be looked upon as one of a set of volumes which aim at giving the author's estimate of the intellectual movement in favor of free-thought which took place in France during the eighteenth century. And it is, we think, palpable that Mr. Morley, in the biographies of Voltaire, of Rousseau, and of Diderot, is far more intent on explaining, and to a certain extent defending, the moral and intellectual movement of which these writers were the leaders, than on giving a complete life of any one of the three celebrated Frenchmen.

Mr. Parton, on the other hand, is primarily and fundamentally a biographer. He of course must incidentally comment upon Voltaire's position and teaching, and his comments, when he makes them, are those of a liberal-minded man of sense; but his real object is not to tell his readers what Mr. Parton thinks about Voltaire, but to give them full, complete, ample details as to what Voltaire himself did, wrote, spoke, and thought during the course of a long existence, of which not one moment was wasted. Moreover, Mr. Parton has, while giving a complete life of the great freethinker, resolutely abstained from yielding to the temptation to produce that disgusting cross between biography and history known as a "life and times" of Voltaire. Mr. Parton's two volumes are long—some persons might say (though we certainly do not) that they are too long; they might be improved by compression; but they do not contain a page which is not strictly relevant to their subject. You are shown Voltaire, indeed, in every point of view—you see him at school, in the Bastille, as a man of business, as Chamberlain of Frederic the Great, as the defender of the oppressed, as a country squire, as the triumphant man of letters, as a host at Ferney, as the leader of an assault upon the religious prejudices or principles of the age, and, in short, in almost every attitude in which he can conceivably be contemplated. But, while you are shown Voltaire by Mr. Parton in every possible light, you are never shown anything but Voltaire. The result of the conscientious tenacity with which Mr. Parton has clung to his subject is that he has written a book which, whatever its defects, makes the English and American public for the first time acquainted with Voltaire somewhat in the same sense in which they have long been acquainted with Johnson or Scott. They now can appreciate his boundless energy, his resource, his cunning, his audacity, his impatience, his hatred of his foes, his fervent loyalty to his friends, his astounding combination of vanity with dignity (or, at any rate, with the power to hold his own against men of superior position), and of a determination to make his fortune at all costs with an equally firm resolution to fight every kind of injustice to the death. Whoever wishes to see how much his real knowledge of Voltaire is increased by the mass of details collected together by Mr. Parton should study the chapter which treats of Voltaire as a man of business, or the chapters which describe Voltaire's private life at Ferney. No one, we are assured, can study these portions of Mr. Parton's book without coming to the conclusion that he has for the first time learned what kind of man Voltaire really was.

Nor is strict adherence to the duties of a biographer our author's sole merit. He shows throughout his work an amount of sound and calm judgment not always found in men who have devoted themselves to elucidating the career of an author who has been the object of more unmeasured praise, as well as of more unmeasured censure, than any other man of letters. Mr. Parton shows himself fully alive to Voltaire's foibles and vices; he does not conceal any of the traits in Voltaire's life or writings which are likely to offend the taste or the principles of the present generation. On the other hand, Mr. Parton recognizes the fact that Voltaire, whatever his faults, was a king of men, and an author engaged through life in a desperate struggle—mainly on behalf of justice—with classes and individuals who might, it seemed, at any time crush an assailant who wielded no arms but his pen. Mr. Parton exhibits that true impartiality which is an utterly distinct thing from indifference, and from that spurious sort of charity which consists in holding that, at every great crisis which divides men into different and hostile camps, both parties were in some sense in the right. Hence he explains better than any writer we have met with the true bearing and significance of the Voltairean "Écrasez l'infâme." He shows, as it seems to us, conclusively that, despite the Frenchman's follies and even want of principle, Frederic was assuredly not more sinned against than sinning, and by the mere ample and detailed statement of facts makes it clear that if Voltaire was reckless in his assault on religious dogmatism, his attack, savage as it might be, was assuredly not unprovoked. Mr. Parton has, in short, not indeed drawn a picture of Voltaire, but set before ordinary Englishmen and Americans the data from which they may draw something like a portrait for themselves. To have done this is sufficient to atone for the commission of numberless literary faults. Our earnest advice to Mr. Parton is that he should carefully revise the next edition of his work, and seriously reflect whether (considering the class of persons to whom the book is addressed) it would not be well to give the extracts from the works of French writers

in the original French. We still more earnestly advise our readers at once to get and read a book which has the one transcendent virtue of not containing a page which is not filled with matters of interest.

BEACONSFIELD'S POLITICS, WIT, AND WISDOM.

Memorials of Lord Beaconsfield. Reprinted from the *Standard*. With Portrait. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1881.

Wit and Wisdom of Benjamin Disraeli, Earl of Beaconsfield. Collected from his writings and speeches. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881.

WHEN 'Endymion' appeared we ventured to express in these columns the opinion that the book, notwithstanding the fact that it contained some witty epigram and shrewd observation, was as a whole a very slight performance. The temporary interest excited by it was produced in a great measure by the author's peculiar career and brilliant political position, by the familiarity which these were assumed to have given him with English society, and by the fact that well-known characters were popularly supposed to be introduced into the story. As time goes on the peculiar features of his career must inevitably fade out of the public recollection, and it has already begun to dawn upon the mind of the novel-reading public that, so far as they put any faith in the accuracy of Lord Beaconsfield's descriptions of English society, they were, in plain English, egregiously taken in. That his deception of the public on this subject should have lasted as long as it was profitable to him that it should last, is a singular illustration of his constant good luck; for there is no such mystery about English society as to prevent any one who desires to do so from making himself sufficiently master of the subject to tell the difference between true and false pictures of it. The social world of Thackeray's earlier novels is the social world of Disraeli's as well, and Trollope, by common consent, shows us with minute fidelity the social world of his later period. Any one who examines such books as 'Henrietta Temple' or 'Endymion' can see at a glance that Lord Beaconsfield's opportunities as a social observer were entirely wasted, so far as the public are concerned. He introduces us to lords and ladies, kings and queens, mansions and palaces, and nobody has ever accused him of stinting his descriptive powers when he lets us into the secrets of high life, but the high life, when we examine the details, is too suspiciously like "society" as it exists in the minds of young children, and sometimes even of nursery maids, cooks, and servants, to be of any permanent value. There is not, and never was, any such society as that represented in these novels, and to call them romances only removes the difficulty one single step. Romance furnishes an atmosphere of its own, different from that of real life, but easily recognized when we meet it. A romantic writer deals with sentiments and ideas elevated above the ordinary level of common life, and he is at liberty to select for the material of his plot incidents of a sufficiently unusual and exciting character to make the elevation of the treatment seem natural. There are two qualities which romance cannot have—prosiness and vulgarity—and both of them have from the first conspicuously marked Lord Beaconsfield's stories. If there is anything flat in fiction, it is the career of the hero of 'Endymion,' whose life from first to last presents no feature of interest except a constant success, in which there is not enough luck to excite our curiosity, and no struggle with fortune to excite our sympathy. Of vulgarity the later novels present more glaring instances than the earlier, but all of them are pervaded more or less by that debased admiration of display, in clothes, in houses, in ornaments, in manners, in the conduct of life itself, which is the sure test of a vulgar imagination.

A man of imagination Lord Beaconsfield certainly was, as he was also a man of wit. These qualities would probably lead him to regard with some amusement the memorial performances contained in the first of the volumes whose titles have been given above. The *Standard*'s memoir of the Prime Minister makes him out not merely what everybody must admit that he was, a man of great cleverness as a parliamentary politician, who managed to use one of the great parties of England as a tool for his own advancement with complete success, but as a Tory reformer, who early in life grasped the true conservative theory of the British Constitution and devoted his life to educating the Tories up to it. The writer of the memoir undertakes, as several Tory writers have done before, to explain what this theory was, and as usual he makes very funny work of it. He says that there cannot be the "slightest doubt" that the victory of the Tories in 1874 was largely due to "the principles which he had promulgated exactly thirty years before" in 'Coningsby' and 'Sybil.' Considering that in the next sentence it is candidly admitted that "the Toryism which was presented to the world through the medium of these brilliant fictions was an ideal Toryism, and could hardly have been reproduced in modern England any more than Plato's republic could have been reproduced in ancient Greece," it is at first rather puzzling to the reader to guess what the causal connection between these brilliant fictions and the defeat of the Liberals in 1874 was; still more so as we are next told that this Toryism was "founded partly on a study of Lord Bolingbroke, without due allowance being made for the difference between parliamentary government in the reign of Queen Victoria and parliamentary government in the reign of George II." Bolingbroke "saw only the abuses which flourished under the system of Walpole," and as he "could not foresee the glories of Chatham and his famous son," he very naturally attributed these abuses to the Revolution, and "turned for a remedy to the system which presented the greatest contrast to it—the monarchy, namely, of the Tudors and the Plantagenets"; a revival of which in the middle of the eighteenth century, our publicist thinks, "had not become absolutely impossible." In 1844 and 1845, however, he admits that it had become out of the question, and "the weak point in 'Coningsby' and 'Sybil' was that they vaguely suggested the restoration of such a polity as the remedy for prevailing evils." Thus far we do not seem to have made much of an advance towards a comprehension of the connection between the Tory victory of 1874 and the Tory theories of 'Coningsby' and 'Sybil'; but the next sentence makes it delightfully clear. There was a "more important part of the theory"—"the doctrine, namely, that Toryism and not Radicalism ought to be the popular political creed of this country," and that this part of it "was capable of being adapted to modern politics Mr. Disraeli has himself shown." This is of course true. He has shown it just as often as the Tories in the House of Commons or out of it have had more votes than the Liberals, just as Mr. Gladstone has proved the truth of the equally important but converse proposition, that Radicalism and not Toryism ought to be the popular creed of the country, whenever the Liberals have had more votes than the Tories.

It is impossible to recall the connection between the Conservative party and Lord Beaconsfield without a feeling somewhat like the pity which in private life the spectacle of a respectable, simple-minded country family in the hands of a clever and unscrupulous adventurer excites. At the opening of his career he found the Tories in a position of great danger, but according to his own account full of brilliant opportunities; at its close he left them in a plight out of which their leaders profess to see no road. And certainly no one ever did more to help them on the downward path than Lord Beaconsfield. His mission from the first seemed to be to make Conservatism ridiculous, to make Conservatives do as many ridiculous things as possible, and to persuade them that this was the way to redeem their fortunes. And he succeeded, too, in a most astonishing way. Even the Young England creed, which was too ridiculous for sensible Tories when its inventor first produced it, strikes the author of the memoir before us as having had great merits. With a touch of that fond regret which often lingers in the minds of the honest family at the recollection of the brilliant ideas of the vanished charlatan, he insists that "its sentiment was true. With much that was extravagant on the surface, the fundamental ideas of the Young England creed touched the heart of the rising generation. Men began to feel that the relations between sovereign and subject, between landlord and tenant, between gentle and simple, between priest and parishioner, might be beautified and sweetened. As far as the movement aimed at a revival merely of ancient customs, it was harmless and ineffective, and in some measure was laughed down. But the spirit which those customs had once represented was awakened from a long sleep, and it is impossible to deny that the relations between the different orders of society have benefited by the revival."

Now the social development of England during the last fifty years has been in nothing more remarkable than in the progress that has been made towards completely breaking down the semi-feudal sentiments between the different orders of society which it was the object of the Young England party to revive. For the old feeling that tenants owed their landlords not merely rent, but a loyal respect and deference as well; that religious submission was due the parson apart from any question as to the value of his character or teaching; that social respect was the right of the squire without enquiry into his respectability, has been substituted to a very remarkable degree the modern rationalistic, democratic jealousy of all rights which can show nothing more than tradition or position to rest upon. The sentiment growing out of status has pretty much died out, and there is nothing to take its place but the purely commercial spirit against which the Young England movement was directed. Disraeli himself, as he grew older, was far too clever not to see that a revival of feudal sentiment was an absurdity, and the real problem before the Conservatives was to find a new and modern sentiment as a basis of union between the aristocracy and the masses. He thought that he had found this in imperialism, no doubt being misled by the example of countries in which the spread of democratic ideas had ended in despotism. It would be curious to analyze the causes which seem to make any such political metamorphosis impossible in England; but we have only space now to call attention to the fact that neither the semi-feudal vagaries of his earlier days, nor the imperialistic tinsel of his later policy, ever entirely lost him the confidence of the Tories, who, even now that an English land bill and the disestablishment of the Church are agitated, and all talk of Conservative obstinacy is met by threats of abolishing the House of Lords, do not seem to

see how much the brilliant tricks and devices and political theories of their late leader have helped them on in the fatal road to destruction.

The anthology contained in the second of the above volumes is rather voluminous, for it comprises not only the epigrams, apophthegms, and *pensées* of the late Prime Minister, which really constitute his most valuable permanent contribution to literature, but also long extracts from his novels, apparently selected with the idea of showing his opinions on the subjects to which they relate. If this was the idea of the collector, it was a mistake, for most of the opinions expressed are not those of the author, but of fictitious characters, for whose ideas he certainly cannot be held responsible. It would be as easy to attempt to get at the opinions of Molière or Sardou by extracts from their plays as at Disraeli's opinions through the dialogues in his novels. It is true that from some of the earlier ones a sort of prophecy of his later Eastern policy may be gathered; but we fancy a little ingenuity only would have been required to make them seem equally prophetic had the ultimate result been something quite different from what actually happened. Had Egypt been taken instead of Cyprus, and "peace with honor" been secured by a bloody war instead of a Berlin conference, passages foreshadowing these events might probably have readily been found in 'Coningsby' and 'Alroy.' However that may be, the collection has not been made with much skill, as one or two extracts taken at random will show. It is divided by subjects arranged alphabetically, beginning with "Ability" and ending with "Youth." The book opens with an extract from a speech made at Newport Pagnell in 1874, in which Lord Beaconsfield said: "I pride myself upon recognizing and upholding ability in every party and wherever I meet it." Waiving all questions of the truth of this statement, there is certainly nothing so original about it that it deserves preservation. Under the head of "Action" we find a quotation from 'Lothair': "The Standing Committee of the Holy Alliance of Peoples all rose, although they were extreme Republicans, when the General entered. Such is the magical influence of a man of action over men of the pen and the tongue." This is certainly not very witty, and if it is supposed to record the result of extensive observation of mankind, it is of comparatively little value. Everybody knows that men of action do exercise a powerful influence upon the imagination of men "of the pen and the tongue," and the statement about the committee, from its exaggerated emphasis, is rather flat than impressive. The next is better, from its expression being good—"Action must be founded on knowledge," though in various other forms it is as old as man himself. Under the head of "Advice" we find that Miss Arundel in 'Lothair' is authority for the proposition that "advice is not a popular thing to give," and, strange to say, Miss Arundel's feeling on the subject was shared by the gifted author; for at Aylesbury in 1865 he boldly announced that he did "not like giving advice," because it involves "unnecessary responsibility under any circumstances." Under "Age" we find him declaring in 1864 that "the characteristic of the present age is craving credulity," though in 1873 he had come to regard it as chiefly marked by "the spirit of equality." Under "Americans" 'Lothair' yields the following nugget: "American ladies—I can never make out what they believe or what they disbelieve. It is a sort of confusion between Mrs. Beecher Stowe and the Fifth Avenue Congregation and Barnum"—but this again is not anything that the author himself says. Under the head of "Poetry" we find verses which carry us back to the period when every lady had an album containing lines written by the gentlemen of her acquaintance, which not infrequently afterwards found their way to an immortal obscurity in the pages of the "Book of Beauty" and similar publications. It was hardly fair for the present collector to drag out the verses beginning—

> "Tell me the star from which she fell,
> Oh! name the flower
> From out whose wild and perfumed bell,
> At witching hour,
> Sprang forth this fair and fairy maiden
> Like a bee with honey laden"

—hardly fair either to Lord Beaconsfield or the public, with whom almost any memorial would be more likely to keep the recollection of him a kindly and agreeable one than his poetical efforts.

But although the book as a whole is a failure, the reader will find it worth looking over for the many epigrams and maxims, some of them very familiar, some of them, to us at least, absolutely new, that really show what Lord Beaconsfield's wit was at its best. "Apologies only account for that which they do not alter" is even better than "qui s'excuse s'accuse," for it contains a neat and true explanation of the grounds of the maxim, which the other almost hides behind a play on words. "Next to knowing when to seize an opportunity, the most important thing in life is to know when to forego an advantage," is from 'The Infernal Marriage,' a little-known early satire, full of witty observation and turns of expression. Life is said in 'Tancred' to be "monotonous only to the monotonous"—an amusing idea amusingly expressed, whatever may be thought of its truth. "Those who have known grief seldom seem sad," may not be altogether true, but it contains an amount of truth which to many persons will make it seem at first absolutely so. We have no space for further quotations. It is undoubtedly as a wit, and as a shrewd observer of the tangled skein of motives which guide men in society, that Lord Beaconsfield will be hereafter remembered, when his astounding "pictures of English society" and his "statesmanship" have been long forgotten.

GOOD MANNERS.

Social Etiquette and Home Culture. The Glass of Fashion: A Universal Handbook of Social Etiquette and Home Culture for Ladies and Gentlemen. With Copious and Practical Hints upon the Manners and Ceremonies of every Relation in Life, at Home, in Society, and at Court. Interspersed with numerous anecdotes. By the Lounger in Society. [Franklin Square Library.] New York: Harper & Brothers.

THIS book by no means confines itself to the discussion of the matters suggested by its title. The author has touched upon a wide variety of topics connected not only with good breeding, but with the conduct of life in general. Precisely what "home culture" means may of course be differently decided by different people. But the "Lounger in Society" certainly takes a very wide view of his field when he makes it include advice to ladies and gentlemen on amateur theatricals, on marriage, articulation in singing, on flirtations and proposals at balls, on beards, on the furniture of bedrooms, on gastronomy, on tooth-powders and tooth-brushes, on bathing, on cornet-playing, on cosmetics, on Rowland's "incomparable Macassar" and Hapgood's "Nutritive Pomade." Much as we should like to do so, we cannot follow the Lounger through the long list of subjects on which the time and thought evidently devoted to them entitle him to an attentive hearing, and therefore restrict what we have to say to what gives his book its chief interest—that part of it which relates to the laws of good breeding.

In most books of etiquette, a comical effect is produced by the fact that while the fundamental assumption of the author is that his readers are persons of refinement and delicacy of feeling, a large part of his advice and exhortation seems to imply a belief that the same persons are innately vulgar and hopelessly ignorant of all the usages of decent society. A very amusing instance of this last sort of advice may be found in the present volume, in a quotation from a manual of etiquette which teaches how to acquire good habits at table, by a running and vigorous correction of supposed faults, in the following manner. The imaginary pupil being ready for the meal, the master discourses as follows:

"'The first thing you do,' he says, 'is to sit down. Stop, sir!' he continues; 'pray do not *cram yourself* into the table that way. Come, no nonsense; sit up, if you please! I can't have your fine head of hair filling a side-dish on my table. You must not bury your face in the plate; you came to show it, and it ought to be alive. . . . Your soup you eat with a spoon. Yes, that will do; but I beg you will not make that odious noise in drinking your soup. It is louder than a dog lapping water; *and a cat would be quite genteel to it.* . . . Fish must never be touched with a knife. Take a fork in the right, and a small piece of bread in the left hand. Good! but—? Oh, that is atrocious! of course you must not swallow the bones; but you should rather do so than spit them out in that way. Put up your napkin like this, and land the tailbone on your plate. Don't rub your bread in the sauce, my good man, *nor go progging about* after the shrimps or oysters therein. . . . That is the fourth time wine has been handed to you, and I am sure you have had enough. Decline this time, if you please. Decline that dish, too. Are you going to eat of everything that is handed? I pity you if you do. No, you must not ask for more cheese; and you must eat it with your fork. Break the rusk with your fingers. Good! You are drinking a glass of old port. Do not quaff it down at a gulp in that way. Never drink a whole glassful of anything at once.'"

It is not easy to believe that this pupil would be likely to appreciate delicate shades of etiquette or politeness. He would have to confine himself for the time being to elementary matters, like getting his food properly into his mouth and eating without making odious noises. Maxims and advice addressed to him seem inevitably rather wasted on ladies and gentlemen. There is less of this in the book before us than in most volumes of the kind, but the author does not altogether avoid the danger of seeming to assume that his readers can at one and the same time be complete barbarians and ready learners of what society considers "good form." In his last chapter he has collected some two hundred maxims upon manners, which constitute a sort of summary of what he has to say on the subject. They are generally very good; but it is hard to believe that any one who stands in need of maxim 39, "In passing from the drawing room to the dining room remember that it is the lady who takes precedence, not the gentleman," will be able to grasp the force of maxim 9, "Never give letters of introduction unless you are prepared to be responsible for the persons to whom they are given." Maxim 49, "Never use your knife to convey your food to your mouth under any circumstances," is a sound one, but upon a person who still considers the question as open to argument maxim 50, "If at dinner you are requested to help any one to sauce, do not pour it over the meat or vegetables, but on one side," will be wasted. On the whole, however, as we have said, the author makes this sort of mistake far less than most of his rivals.

Another peculiarity of books of etiquette and manners is the fact that they always contain some advice of an extraordinarily novel and unexpected character relating to matters about which one would suppose there could be no difference of opinion. Of this again we have some curious instances in the volume before us.

According to maxim 10, "the holder of a letter of introduction should not take it in person, but should send it with his card of address," for the reason that the bearer of the letter is bound to give the receiver an "option" to call upon him or take no notice of him whatever. The existence of this "option" will be news, at least, to a large body of long-enduring receivers of introduced foreigners in this country, and they will be glad to act upon it, too, if it can be established that it is the fixed rule in England or any other foreign country. Maxim 52 insists that we must "eat peas with a dessert-spoon, and curry also." This no doubt would be a pretty custom to introduce, and would tend to diminish the pressure on the family fork reserves, which the modern custom of eating ice cream with a fork has so greatly increased, besides which it would furnish an opportunity for much foolish conversation and many flat jokes—always a desideratum at table; but where is it a generally recognized usage in society already? Maxim 53, "As a general rule, in helping any one at table, never use a knife where you can use a spoon," we do not understand. Even a person addicted to the habit of eating peas with his knife could not help them with a knife; on the other hand, it is physically possible to help many kinds of cheese with a spoon, but how seldom it is resorted to. Knives, after all, must in the long run be generally used for cutting, and there is little reason to fear that the habit of "helping" with them will ever become common.

The author devotes a good deal of space to the discussion of a matter which has troubled many other enquirers into the mystery of manners—the question as to what the fundamental constituents of good manners are. There is, indeed, little common agreement as to this beyond what seems to be a generally admitted axiom of breeding, that the most important thing is a willingness to sacrifice one's self in the interest of social ends. Swift lays it down that "good manners is the art of making those people easy with whom we converse," which obviously cannot be done by self-assertion. Lord Chatham defined politeness as benevolence in trifles, and insisted upon the necessity of "sacrificing ourselves" to "the convenience and pleasure of others." Our author, however, goes further than this, for he declares that the "whole secret of good manners" is contained in the divine command, "Do unto others as you would that others should do unto you."

"From this point of view politeness becomes a virtue, and a brilliant one; for it is nothing less than a form of self-denial. You make way for this person, you fall behind that, you give up your seat to a third, because it will please those persons; therefore you consult their pleasure rather than your own. Carry this motive into all your daily conduct, and see how it will be elevated and transfigured. The noblest charity, the loftiest self-denial, the truest generosity, these, we see, centre in and are bound up with good manners."

If this were strictly true, Christianity and civility would be synonymous terms, which cannot be the case, for there are and always have been large numbers of excellent Christians in the world, who not only have no manners, but who regard breeding as a worldly affair with which they have nothing to do, while on the other hand the possession of fine manners has at no time been taken to be a necessary indication of a Christian spirit. This fact has indeed been always a puzzle to many good people, who have been unable to reconcile themselves to the idea of such an apparently unselfish thing as good manners being so often associated with a bad life. It is easy to show, however, that it is at least entirely erroneous to suppose politeness a branch of the moral law. There is nothing in the law of good manners to prevent you from cutting an acquaintance in the street who has offended you, though this may cause him pain, and the pleasure you derive from it is intensely selfish. Until very recently, any one who wished to retain his standing in society as a gentleman, was compelled by public opinion to fight with any one whom he had insulted, just as the insulted person was compelled to make him fight. Even to-day the fact that a man has fought a duel, while it may expose him to arrest, is in no part of the world regarded as a social fault, which it certainly would be if the rules which govern intercourse in society were founded on the principles of Christian morality.

The main difference between Christian self-denial and the sort of self-denial which good manners calls for is one of motive. In one case the motive is religious, in the other purely worldly. In one case selfishness is abandoned altogether, in the other it is subjected to discipline at one point in order that at another it may have its reward. In England, where strict precedence is observed, a person of lower rank goes in to dinner behind a person of higher rank simply because the custom has been found to wound the self-love of all concerned less than any other would: a fixed order prevents unseemly quarrels, and people get along with each other better for it. The person who has to yield the *pas*, however, does it in a spirit of enlightened epicurean self-interest, not in that of Christian unselfishness.

The fancy that good manners may be made out to be a branch of the moral law, though not a distinctly modern idea, has been greatly promoted in the present century by the advance made in simplicity at the expense of "shams" and conventionalities. At the beginning of this century all human intercourse was regulated by a highly artificial system of etiquette, which gave no room for the expression of natural feeling, and was undoubtedly to a great extent a hollow mockery. The relations of parent and child, husband and wife, master and servant, lovers, as well as the details of dress, conversation, and carriage, were all governed by a code of great complexity and intricacy, a minute ritual, the observance of which at all points was essential. Only persons of good birth could lay claim to a full knowledge of it, for its voluminous artificiality made an early education the only safe road to a familiarity with its rules. The great mass of mankind knew no more about it than they did about the dead languages. It was essentially a body of aristocratic tradition. At this period to have seriously argued that the province of Christian morals was conterminous with that of good breeding would never have occurred to any one. No amount of Christian morality would supply the place of a knowledge of etiquette, and the laws of etiquette were clearly based on a realistic view of existing society, while those of Christian morals were based on an ideal view of it as it ought to exist.

But modern democracy, as it has broken down political barriers, has also swept away social distinctions, and has made an aristocratic code of etiquette seem ridiculous. The inheritors of the old traditions as to "fine manners" have been gradually thrust into the background, and as a theory of some kind is always necessary to support any innovation, the modern democratic theory of manners has been invented—that good breeding is nothing more than being good and kind, and gentle, and amiable, and telling the truth, and giving way to your neighbor. It must be admitted that in a democratic country any one who carries this theory into practice will probably come nearer being himself in accord with the requirements of the existing code of good manners than there was ever a chance of his doing at any previous period in the history of the world; still, as we have said, morality and good manners have not become one and the same thing. Democracy is the foe of conventionalities in form, and in the last fifty years it has succeeded in driving conventionality out of society to an extent which, as we look back, seems almost incredible. For the old formalism has been substituted an easy-going, good-humored *bonhomie*, which is no doubt the only possible basis for modern society as it exists, with its curious medley of refinement and vulgarity, of intelligence and ignorance. But we have not yet reached a time when we can go to church to find out how we ought to "behave in society," nor when we can find the moral law between the covers of manuals of good manners

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adamson, Prof. R. Fichte. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 25.
Barrett, L. Edwin Forrest. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Boulger, D. C. History of China. Vol. I. London: W. H. Allen & Co.
Brooks, Rev. P. The Candle of the Lord, and Other Sermons: New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1 75.
Byerly, Prof. W. E. Elements of the Integral Calculus. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. $2 20.
Cartwright, Julia. Mantegna and Francia. New York: Scribner & Welford. $1 25.
Chatterbox, Junior. New York: R. Worthington. $1.
Cox, R. Manual of Trade-Mark Cases. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $6 50.
Diaz, Mrs. A. M. King Grimalkum and Pussyanita. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1 25.
Farrar, C. S. History of Sculpture, Painting, and Architecture. Topical Lessons. Chicago: Townsend MacCoun.

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The Wandering Jew.

An account of the Legend in various places and at all times. By Moncure D. Conway. 12mo, $1 50.

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HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 13, 1881.

The Week.

SOME of our contemporaries have indulged in profound speculations about the motives which induced Mr. Conkling to stay away from the Republican State Convention. The very natural explanation, that he stayed away because he knew a large majority of the Convention to be against him, is rejected as not deep and mysterious enough. There are dark hints of some particularly grave and far-reaching reasons of state, which only the distant future will disclose. Not being given to an habitually awestruck state of mind, and believing that a certain class of motives is common to most men, we still think that when Mr. Conkling attended personally to the primary election in his ward in Utica, and "shook hands with everybody," and when he made his friends "bolt" for him from the District Convention to appoint him as a delegate, he meant to attend the Convention personally, expecting to have a majority there in his favor; and that when he found himself in an unexpectedly small minority, he thought he had better stay away. Nobody will deny that this was a sensible conclusion. He has now gone to Washington to attend upon President Arthur, where he expects to be in a majority again. Perhaps the reorganization of the Cabinet may now be taken up. One of his friends is reported to have said yesterday that in the new arrangements Mr. Conkling will not be seen, but he "will be felt." This seems to us impossible. President Arthur may, perhaps, permit Mr. Conkling to make himself felt, but he certainly cannot be felt without being seen.

As Senator Mahone has become the financial guide of the colored voters in Virginia, the doctrine he produced before the members of the Union League Club last week deserves the serious attention of Republicans as a specimen of his teaching. Hardly anything more mischievous or misleading in the way of financial instruction could be communicated to a body of simple-minded and ignorant voters than the assertion that the rate of interest paid by a state on its loans is regulated by its resources, or, in other words, that the poorer a country is the lower the interest it has to pay, and that therefore it has only to talk poor to justify "scaling" and repudiation. It seems hardly possible that Mr. Mahone does not know that the richer a country is the higher its credit—supposing its honesty to be unimpeachable—and the better the terms on which it can borrow; the poorer it is, or pretends to be, the higher the rate of interest it has to pay. We are bound to presume, however, that when he said that this had been the experience of England, France, and Russia he was expressing his honest belief, and that he really thought that England, for instance, being very rich, paid ten or twelve per cent. on its debt, while Mexico, being very poor, paid only two or three. But one who holds such beliefs is hardly a person whom Northern business men can afford to send back to Southern communities endorsed and approved as a trustworthy financial authority. Here at the North we should consider any State in a bad way in which a majority of the voters were under the control of anybody holding Mr. Mahone's peculiar views of the conditions of public credit. We have been fighting for fifteen years, and sometimes very hard, to protect Northern States against any such calamity, although none of them offers nearly such promising material to crazy financiers as Virginia and other Southern States do. We have no right, then, to help to inflict it on any Southern State.

The autobiography of Guiteau published by the *Herald* has no value except from the light that it throws upon his defence in his coming trial. His counsel has announced that he will only rely on the insanity of his client, and we find accordingly that the autobiography makes the killing of the President to have been pretty clearly the result of homicidal mania. There seemed in the first accounts of the crime to be the suggestion of a motive in the failure of Guiteau to get an office; but he now declares that at the very time he shot the President he was applying for the Paris consulship, and, of course, this would have furnished a motive in the opposite direction. He killed the President, he says, because "the idea flashed through my brain that if the President was out of the way, everything would go better. At first this was a mere impression. It startled me, but the next morning it came to me with renewed force, and I began to read the papers with my eye on the possibility that the President would have to go, and the more I read, the more I saw the complication of public affairs, the more I was impressed with the necessity of removing him. This thing continued for about two weeks. I kept reading the papers and kept being impressed, and the idea kept bearing and bearing and bearing down upon me that the only way to unite the two factions of the Republican party, and save the Republic from going into the hands of the rebels and Democrats, was to quietly remove the President."

The French steamer *Canada*, having on board the party of French visitors who are to be the guests of the country during the Yorktown celebration, arrived on the 5th instant, and were met on landing by the Seventh Regiment and escorted to the Fifth Avenue Hotel. The names of many of the civilians who have come over are very familiar to Americans. The Marquis de Lafayette is represented by a number of descendants. The Vicomte de Noailles is the great-grandson of the De Noailles who came to this country with Rochambeau with the rank of lieutenant-colonel, and was commissioner of the French army at the surrender of Yorktown. Curiously enough, the Marquis de Rochambeau who comes to the Yorktown celebration is said to have none of the blood of the original Rochambeau in his veins, as he is an adopted son of a descendant of his. The Comte de Grasse is a grand-nephew of the De Grasse whose name is connected with the French Alliance and the Revolution, and also with the history of several well-known New York families. The Government delegates have of course no connection, except an official one, with Yorktown, but they are very numerous, and represent all branches of the French service. During the afternoon many of the visitors had an opportunity of seeing some of the most distinguished "Stalwarts" and "Half-breeds" at the Fifth Avenue Hotel and in the Convention; but owing to the spirit of harmony, and even tameness, which prevailed, the spectacle was not so startling as it would have been had they been engaged in active warfare. It was, in fact, the old story of the orderly working of American institutions with which our visitors have been familiar from their cradles.

The military reception of the French visitors on Thursday was very successful. The weather was fine, and there were over five thousand men in line, including all the crack militia regiments. The marching was unusually good, and the French officers were much pleased with the spectacle. In the evening General Boulanger sent a despatch to the French Minister of War praising "the citizen soldiers of the United States," evidently regarding the Seventh and Twenty-second regiments as ordinary products of the militia system, which is perhaps fortunate for us. Few of the visitors speak English easily, and as the reporters generally labor under the same difficulty with regard to French, the opportunity afforded by the visit for "interviews" is almost entirely wasted. It is really a splendid field, and it is impossible not to feel a pang of regret when we think what enterprise might accomplish in it if this obstacle were only removed. The public would greatly like to know not only all about the visitors' "home life" in France, but what are their impressions about this country—hotel life in New York, Pullman palace cars and the "check" system, the unwillingness of our citizens to attend "primaries," "Bosses" and "Halls," the search for Stewart's bones, &c., &c. On the other hand, the visitors may congratulate themselves that the difference of language shields them from what they, with their European notions, might possibly regard as impertinent curiosity and an intolerable bore.

It is reported that Mr. Dudley, Commissioner of Pensions, is on the track of a "ring" consisting of clerks in the Pension Office and outsiders, organized for the purpose of putting through fraudulent pension claims and thus robbing the Government. There would be nothing surprising in this discovery. Similar combinations were discovered and the guilty parties punished under Mr. Bentley's energetic administration of the Pension Office, but they will reorganize and be discovered again and again as long as the present laws governing the

examination of pension claims stand upon the statute book. It is almost incredible, but strictly true, that pension claims are now legally adjudicated upon mere ex-parte evidence. This is a direct invitation to fraud, and that invitation has been very extensively accepted. The most watchful man at the head of the Pension Office could not, with the most unremitting exertions, protect the Treasury, for the ex-parte system gives so great an advantage to the fraudulent claimant that the discovery of such practices is in most cases a matter of accident. That there were millions paid for pensions fraudulently obtained has not only been admitted for many years past, but those in charge of the Pension service lost no opportunity to inform members of Congress of their experiences and opinions on that subject. Time and again during the last four years Commissioner Bentley, supported by the Secretary of the Interior, pointed out to Congress the fatal defect in the law, and urgently recommended the substitution for the ex-parte system of substantiating pension claims one permitting a thorough enquiry by the Government and the cross-examination of claimants and witnesses. But instead of acting upon these recommendations, Congress passed the act granting to pensioners arrears of pensions covering the time from the date of their application back to the period of the war. Not only did this act take uncounted millions out of the Treasury, but by offering a greater prize and multiplied opportunities to rascality it increased the abuses springing from the defective laws a hundred-fold.

The Wolfe movement in Pennsylvania is beginning to assume proportions that alarm the managers of the Machine. The Council of the National Republican League of Philadelphia has issued an address calling upon Republican voters to support Mr. Wolfe, in which the danger from the "boss" system—not only to Pennsylvania but to the whole country—is very clearly stated. The address points out that for years the control of parties has fallen more and more into the hands of "bosses"; that the larger cities are almost all in the hands of some one or more of them; that many State Governments are run by them, and the national Government is in constant danger from them. The success of the system means "the virtual overthrow of our free institutions by placing all the powers of government in the hands of a few able and unprincipled men, whose methods would permit them to transfer the authority thus acquired to a practically unlimited line of successors." Mr Wolfe has long been a fearless enemy of the system in Pennsylvania, and though he cannot, perhaps, hope to be elected, he may, if a substantial support be given him, succeed in defeating General Bailey. His success would go far in accomplishing in Pennsylvania, by determined action outside of the regular party organization, what has in great part been accomplished here by an energetic effort of the anti-Machine sentiment in the Republican party. Whether the same result could have been achieved in Pennsylvania in the same way, we do not know. That it must be done in some way is certain, and Mr. Wolfe, who enjoys in a rare degree the personal respect and confidence of friend and foe, is probably the best man to rally the anti-Machine forces for a decisive effort in that State.

During the week the Bank of England advanced its posted discount rate to 5 per cent. from 4 per cent., the rise having been caused by the shipment of specie to Egypt and the decline here in the rates of exchange to the point which warrants the shipment of gold from London to New York. Only a small amount of specie came here ($704,900), and the total imports since August 1 are only $17,094,318 against $31,571,728 in the corresponding time a year ago. Nor have fresh shipments of any amount been made from London since the Bank rate there became 5 per cent. The disbursements of the Sub-Treasury at New York during the week covered by the bank statement exceeded the receipts by the sum of $3,662,195, and yet the banks lost $577,250 in their reserve, so that they lack $3,333,275 of holding a 25 per cent. reserve. The main reason for the reduction in the reserve was the heavy shipment of currency to the West; the speculation in grain at Chicago received a severe check, and prices declined so that a good deal of money was sent from here to strengthen margins at Chicago, in addition to the usual amount required by Western trade at this season. In this condition of the money market, speculators for lower prices of stocks here "manipulated" the rates for loans so that on some days as high as ⅛ of 1 per cent. per day was paid in addition to 6 per cent. per annum. The stringency in the loan market was so severe that, as is usual at such times, the Treasury was implored to "grant relief." It had already been buying $2,000,000 of bonds per week, and it was asked to increase its purchases. This it refused to do, but agreed to begin on October 17 the prepayment, with rebate, of $5,000,000 out of the $20,000,000 bonds called for redemption December 24 next. This as a relief measure was not up to the expectations of Wall street, and failed to have any influence in advancing the prices of stocks. In the markets United States bonds declined ⅛@⅜, and the 3½ per cents at one time sold below par. Railroad investments fell ½@5 per cent. and railroad stocks 2@12⅝ per cent. There is as yet no sign of an early settlement of the railroad war. General trade continues active.

The woman-suffragists held a meeting last week in this city which a Dutch lady enlivened by some new arguments, and by some new applications of the old *ab uno disce omnes* argument. She held that if Senator Mahone, who only weighed ninety pounds, could bear arms and serve in the wars with credit, so could any person of the same or greater weight. Women weigh in most cases ninety pounds or over, and therefore could achieve the fame which General Mahone has achieved. This leaves out of account, however, completely the part played by the heart in a military career. A woman's fighting weight would surely be regulated as a man's really is by the condition of her nerves. "Ordinarily," said a valiant Hoosier, "I weigh one hundred and twenty pounds; but when I'm mad I weigh a ton." So it would undoubtedly be with woman if she undertook to serve as a soldier. When her blood was up, the minutest woman would weigh as much as three Mahones in time of peace. But women of ninety pounds without Mahone's pluck would simply encumber the battle-field. Mrs. Iliohan, the Dutch lady in question, if this be her name, also derived political comfort for women from the fact that men frequently cheat in counting ballots. She predicted that women would not cheat in this way, and as there is no refuting a prophet, she had it all her own way on this point. She also knew of an Albany man who would not let his wife vote at a school election, and then sold his own vote for two dollars. The force of this anecdote seems to lie in the suggestion that man being capable of such conduct as this, the admission of woman to the franchise could not make the world worse than it is. This has a painful resemblance, however, to General Grant's argument against competitive examination—that he knew a man who after passing a very brilliant examination got into the penitentiary. We can assure Mrs. Iliohan, as an answer to this, that we have known scores of men who, while discouraging their wives from voting, refused to sell their own votes, or who, having sold them, used the money in presents for the children. Then, too, in judging a man for selling his vote, we must take his necessities into account. There are probably many cases like that of the poor member of the old Irish Parliament, who, on being reproached at the time of the Union with having "sold his country," so great were his needs, "thanked God that he had a country to sell." Such cases, whatever one may feel about the value of political purity, cannot but excite commiseration.

The Court of Appeals has at length decided that the prohibition of the courts of this State against the guilty party in a divorce proceeding marrying again has no force outside the State, and that marriages of persons divorced here, who go elsewhere to evade the prohibition, are valid in New York. The argument which probably affected the minds of the judges most was drawn from the inconvenient results which would follow from holding anything else. In theory it seems a preposterous state of the law which visits a man with a heavy penalty for marrying in New York, and at the same time informs him that if he will take the trouble to cross the Connecticut State line he can marry there and immediately bring his wife to live with him in New York without any danger from the penalty. But on the other hand the marriage is perfectly good in Connecticut, and the general principle is that a marriage good in one place is good all over the world. With the facilities which exist in this country for procuring divorces, it is perhaps better to have marriages of whatever kind recognized as valid, as the alternative is the bastardizing of children, who certainly ought not to be made to suffer for the laxity of their parents' views on the subject of marriage and divorce. The only

remedy for the present condition of affairs is a uniform law, which is not possible except under a Constitutional amendment, or the introduction of some uniform practice throughout the States by voluntary agreement. The chief obstacle in the way of this is the lack of interest which those chiefly affected, *i. e.*, those who take advantage of the existing chaotic condition of the law, naturally feel in the subject. All they want is to be let alone.

Coudert Brothers have written a letter to the *Evening Post* with regard to the Esposito scandal, in which they insist that the original warrant was perfectly legal, meaning by this that there was nothing illegal in arresting the man in New Orleans on a New York Commissioner's warrant. They say nothing with regard to the execution of the warrant by a private detective, as they had nothing to do with the case at that stage. After he had been committed in New York, he was of course in the Marshal's legal custody, though his capture in New Orleans may have been entirely illegal. Nor does anything they say affect the propriety of trying the question of the man's identity fourteen hundred miles away from his place of residence. The Heinrichs case merely held that the prisoner might legally be brought from Wisconsin to New York. There was no question of identity in it. In the Esposito case, the prisoner's counsel had, we believe, some twenty-five affidavits of residents of New Orleans that the prisoner had been living there at the time of the commission of the alleged crimes, and all this evidence was ruled out because the witnesses could not be produced in court. With the final proceedings by which the prisoner was got out of the country, the Messrs. Coudert had nothing to do, and therefore their opinion on the subject is entitled only to the weight that would be due to that of any other intelligent lawyers conversant with the facts. The whole matter ought to be carefully sifted by the State Department.

We are informed by Atlantic cable that at the Socialist Congress assembled at Chur, in Switzerland, "the American delegate gave a desponding account of the condition of Socialism in America." He said that "the number of Socialist newspapers there had been reduced by one-half since 1877, and that the better times had caused a thinning of their ranks." This reminds us of the reply given by a prominent Communist leader who visited America thirty years ago to the question what he thought of the condition of the working classes here. "It is very bad," said he, "they are so discouragingly prosperous."

Mr. Gladstone has made at last the first one of those speeches which every English politician of prominence is expected to make to his constituents in the recess, giving his general view of the political situation. It is very seldom that a session passes in which Ministers are so far prevented from freeing their minds on all the problems of the day as they have been during that which has just closed, so completely was their attention and that of the House engrossed in the passage of the Irish Land Bill. It is very seldom, indeed, that half a year passes with so few great debates on a variety of questions. This has been probably due to the intellectual weakness of the Opposition in the Commons, but in a still greater degree to the absolute necessity of devoting every available minute to pushing the Irish legislation. It is none the less true, however, that Mr. Gladstone's reputation, great as it was at the beginning, has grown during the session. Opposition newspapers unite with the Liberal in admiring not simply the extraordinary vigor and readiness which he displayed in piloting the Land Bill—with these qualities of his the public had long been familiar—but the extraordinary tact and patience he displayed—for these were qualities which even his friends in time past have not ventured to claim for him. In fact a certain heat and irritability of temper, a tendency to be indignant over folly and absurdity, for which he has hitherto been somewhat noted, seems to be leaving him in his old age, and to be succeeded by a sort of jocular serenity which makes it impossible any longer for the young men of the Carlton Club to have the fun, to which they used formerly to treat themselves, of going down to the House in the evening full of wine, and "drawing" him.

In his speech at Leeds, where he was almost overwhelmed by the cordiality of his welcome, he gave the key to the Liberal foreign policy by saying that it was based on the presumption that the motives of all foreign powers were good, until the contrary was shown, in this differing from the Tory policy, which always assumes the existence of one foreign villain. This villain used to be France ; it is now Russia. But Mr. Gladstone's statement would have been more correct if he had confined it to Christian powers. His Government does not and cannot deal with Turkey on the assumption that she means well. The policy of the great Powers towards her is now and has been for fifty years based on the theory that she means ill, and will only behave decently under threats and watching. On the Irish question he was very strong in his eulogies of those Irish nationalists, like Sir Charles Gavan Duffy, and even Mr. John Dillon, who, while regretting the English connection in its present shape, accept the Land Act as a boon for the peasantry. He was equally strong in his denunciations of Parnell, whose mingled ferocity, duplicity, and tergiversation certainly make him fair game for any amount of vituperation. But Mr. Gladstone nevertheless did not touch the root of the Irish difficulty. If his compliments to Sir Charles Duffy were deserved, and Sir Charles's good word may do much to make the Land Act acceptable, then Sir Charles, or some Irishman like him, ought to be in the Irish Secretaryship. There ought, in short, to be an Irish department in the Government from which "healing measures" would come as native legislation, and not as a "boon" from Englishmen, like Mr. Forster, or for that matter Mr. Gladstone himself, who, however estimable, have as rulers the capital defect of being strangers, and unsympathetic strangers.

The British troubles with the Boers of South Africa are apparently not over. The convention under which peace was concluded with Paul Kruger and his two colleagues, popularly known as "the Triumvirate," had to be submitted to the Transvaal Parliament, or Volksraad, for ratification, and the news now is that the ratification is likely to be refused, on the general ground that the convention reserves too much power to the British Government. It establishes religious liberty, which the Boers, like our early Puritans, appreciate highly for themselves, but do not think suitable for other denominations than their own. They are, in fact, now almost the only real Old Testament Christians left in the world. They are not prepared to surrender all foreign relations, as the convention requires them to do. They are willing to have their foreign relations controlled. but not conducted, by the Queen's Government. Nor are they willing to have the natives assured equal standing in the courts with the Dutch and protected against all exceptional legislation. These objections seem to be partly practical and partly sentimental. The natives by whom the Dutch are surrounded outnumber them greatly, and are in a state of almost complete savagery. To treat them as equals, and relinquish all control of them, is something of which the Dutch have a traditional dread. It was to avoid it that they emigrated from the Cape Colony into the wilderness fifty years ago. In fact they contemplate it very much with the feelings with which the Southerners contemplated negro equality in 1860. Unfortunately, however, they do not possess the adaptability to circumstances and the readiness to accept the inevitable, when once clearly recognized, which delivers Americans out of so many dismal situations. The Boers are emphatically a stiff-necked people. They are real Bourbons, and they believe they have the Almighty at their back.

The resistance of the Volksraad is, however, in all probability largely due to the opinion of their own military prowess which the country Boers have derived from the late contest. The triumvirs who made the convention are men of some education, who have travelled in Europe and know the resources of the British Government. The farmers from the interior, however, are satisfied, like our Indians on the plains, that they had before them in the late contest the whole British power, and that in the three fights in which they defeated Sir George Colley, England was doing her "level best." They think, therefore, they let her off too easy, or rather conceded too much, and that if they hold out she will abate some of her pretensions. There is much reason to fear that this ignorance may hurry the Volksraad into a renewal of the contest. Accordingly the withdrawal of the British troops has been stopped, and if the convention has not been ratified by the 9th of November, the war will begin again. This time, however, the Boers will have few or no friends in England, and even their Dutch cousins will find it difficult to lift up their voices for them after having thanked the Gladstone Ministry for the liberality of its dealings with them.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS

DOMESTIC.

THE Senate met in extra session on Monday. Owing to the resignation of the two Senators from New York, and the death of Senator Burnside of Rhode Island, the Democrats had a majority. Senator Edmunds, who was spokesman for the Republicans, moved that the new Senators from the above-mentioned States be sworn in before proceeding to the election of a President *pro tem.* This was lost by a strict party vote, and, after an ineffectual struggle on the part of the Republicans, Senator Bayard, of Delaware, was elected President *pro tem.* The Senate then adjourned.

Senators Miller, Lapham, and Nelson W. Aldrich, the newly chosen successor of the late General Burnside from Rhode Island, were sworn in immediately upon the assembling of the Senate on Tuesday.

President Arthur intends to send to the Senate for confirmation the names of nearly all the persons nominated by President Garfield after the Senate adjourned.

It is tolerably certain that two Cabinet changes will be announced when the Senate meets on Thursday, the retiring members being Secretary Windom and Attorney-General MacVeagh.

Secretary Blaine has denied the report that he ever made any efforts to remain in the Cabinet.

Mr. Blaine's letter to President Garfield accepting the Secretaryship of State has been published. It concludes, "However much, my dear Garfield, I might admire you as a statesman, I would not enter your Cabinet if I did not believe in you as a man and love you as a friend."

Mr. Edgerton, who was appointed by the Governor of Minnesota to succeed Mr. Windom in the Senate, will not press his claim on the Legislature. The Legislature will begin to ballot for Senator on the 18th instant, and Mr. Windom's election is regarded as certain.

The United States Supreme Court met on Tuesday. Chief-Justice Waite and Associate-Justices Miller, Bradley, Harlan, Woods, and Matthews were present, and subsequently waited upon the President.

Guiteau has made a long statement to the Washington correspondent of the New York *Herald*, in which he gives the history of his life from his birth to the day on which he shot the President. He says he watched for an opportunity to shoot President Garfield from May 18 to July 2. In conclusion, Guiteau reviews the legal aspects of his case in a clear and deliberate way, which shows that as a lawyer, at least, he is perfectly sane.

The indictment against Guiteau was presented to the Grand Jury on Saturday morning at eleven o'clock. At a quarter before one P. M. "a true bill" was found. The indictment embraces eleven counts.

A copy of the indictment and a list of the witnesses for the prosecution have been read to Guiteau in his cell at the jail. He will be arraigned for trial on Thursday.

Mr. Scoville, Guiteau's brother-in-law and counsel, has been trying to obtain assistant counsel. He has been unsuccessful so far. Guiteau has requested him to telegraph to General B. F. Butler and ask him to take charge of his defence.

The paper upon President Garfield's case which Dr. Bliss has been engaged in preparing, in company with Dr. Shrady of New York, has been published in the *Medical Record*.

The fund for Mrs. Garfield reached $837,334 06 on Sunday. The Michigan Relief Fund reached a grand total of $93,436 84 on the same day.

The executive committee appointed to devise means for building a "Garfield Memorial Hospital" in Washington met on Monday evening. General Sherman presided. Secretary Blaine and Dr. Busey were appointed a committee to draft a national and an international appeal to carry the undertaking into immediate effect.

The New York State Republican Convention met in the Academy of Music, in New York city, on Wednesday. The Convention was called to order by ex-Senator T. C. Platt, *pro tempore* Chairman of the Republican State Committee. Senator Warner Miller and Congressman Hiscock were the candidates respectively of the "Anti-Conkling" and "Stalwart" wings for the office of temporary Chairman of the Convention. Mr. Miller was elected by a majority of 108. This was the test vote, and showed the Anti-Conklingites to be in a sufficient majority to control the proceedings of the Convention. At the evening session Mr. Chauncey Depew was made permanent chairman. The various committees then made their reports. A noteworthy feature of the report of the Committee upon Contested Seats was that the contesting delegation from the First Oneida District, headed by Mr. Conkling, was adjudged not entitled to seats. The motion to lay on the table the resolution referring the question of the reënrolment of the Republicans of New York and Kings counties to the State Committee, with power, was carried by a majority of five votes. The Convention adjourned at 1 A. M. The ticket nominated is as follows: Secretary of State, Joseph B. Carr; Controller, Ira Davenport; Attorney-General, Leslie W. Russell; Treasurer, James W. Husted; Engineer and Surveyor, Silas Seymour; Judge of Court of Appeals, Francis M. Finch. The platform deplores the death of General Garfield, declares the entire confidence of the Republicans of New York in the "ability, integrity, and patriotic intentions of Chester A. Arthur"; calls for the reduction of taxes, but adds that Congress should approach this duty "with due regard to the protection of American industry"; assures President Arthur of the hearty approval of the people in pressing the prosecution of the Star-route frauds; eulogizes the administration of Governor Cornell; favors "submitting to the people the question of making our canals practically free"; and calls for an "equitable system of taxation which will reach corporations as well as individuals."

Mr. George Bliss has addressed an ill-natured letter to the New York *Times* in reply to its comments on his opposing the reorganization of the Republican party in this city. He says his letter two years ago "corrected some abuses," and till within a few weeks he has known of "no new flagrant case of abuse." As many Republicans take part in the city organizations as in the country, and a larger number would not alter the present control to any great extent. He admits cases of prevention of membership, and that there is fraud in voting "at times" at the primary elections, as at State elections. But to reorganize just now would be dangerous to an already divided party. At the Convention he only wished for postponement, though it is an extreme measure to invoke the intervention of the State Convention.

The Massachusetts Democratic State Convention was held at Worcester on Wednesday. Charles P. Thompson of Gloucester and James H. Carleton of Haverhill were nominated for the offices of Governor and Lieutenant-Governor respectively. The platform declares the national debt to be a hindrance to our "commercial well-being"; calls for an "intelligently bold revision of the tariff laws," and declares that the present tariff should give place to "lighter duties more justly distributed." It further declares the intention of the Democrats, so soon as they shall obtain control of the National Administration, to simplify the civil service "from its present overgrown and corrupting proportions"; to regulate appointment to it by law; and to bring it about that "all subordinate officers shall know and feel that during their prescribed term of service they owe all to their country and nothing to party chiefs"; but that "they shall also know and feel that they cannot, any more than Senators and Representatives, fasten themselves as a permanent life burden on the body politic."

The Minnesota Democratic State Convention met at St. Paul on Thursday. Nominations were made for all the State offices. The platform pledges the Democratic party to the payment of all obligations resting upon the State, expresses sorrow for the death of President Garfield, and reaffirms the principles of the last Democratic National Convention.

The Connecticut town elections, which took place last week, show a Republican gain over the similar elections of last year, when the Republicans carried an unusually large number of towns.

Mr. S. J. Tilden, having been importuned to use his influence in behalf of certain would-be candidates for nomination at the New York Democratic Convention, has written a letter in which he disavows any intention of controlling the Convention at Albany so as to obtain the nomination for Governor next year. He concludes by saying: "All I desire for the Democratic party in the coming canvass is that it shall make the best possible choice of candidates, and do everything to advance the principles of administration to which I have devoted so many efforts and sacrifices."

At the meeting of the Minnesota Legislature in special session on Tuesday, a strong resolution in favor of civil-service reform was introduced. It demands an amendment to the Constitution to the effect that officers appointed to fill Federal offices "be no longer subject to annoyance or removal at the whim or caprice of men wielding the appointing power for personal or political ends, but each shall be vested with a Constitutional right to hold any office to which he has been appointed during good behavior, or for a time prescribed by the Constitution."

The International Cotton Exposition was opened at Atlanta, Georgia, on Wednesday. There was a large attendance and much enthusiasm was manifested. Governor Colquitt presided, and Senator Voorhees made a speech which is said to have been the "incident of the day." There will be one thousand eight hundred distinct entries and displays, which will make it the largest exposition, with the exception of the Centennial, ever seen in America.

The French gentlemen who have come to attend the Yorktown celebration arrived in New York on Wednesday. They were received by the State Reception Committee and escorted to the Fifth Avenue Hotel. Governor Cornell and his staff were presented to them in the afternoon. On Friday the United States steamers *Kearsarge* and *Tennessee* took the visitors, together with prominent officials and invited guests, to West Point. From there they went on a tour to Niagara Falls, Elmira, Baltimore, and Washington.

Under the provisions of the Act of Congress relating to the centennial celebration at Yorktown, the sum of $20,000 was appropriated for the entertainment of the foreign guests, and an equal sum was set apart to defray the expenses of the military celebration. The latter appropriation has already been expended, and there will be a deficit of $9,500, which Congress will be appealed to to make good.

A three days' festival incidental to the Yorktown celebration was begun at Baltimore on Monday, an incident of which was the introduction into the city of water from the new works at Gunpowder River.

Mr. Windom has issued a circular giving notice that the United States bonds embraced in the one hundred and fifth call, to the amount of $5,000,000, will be redeemed on and after October 17.

The reports of various cotton exchanges in the Southern States announce the cotton crop to be considerably damaged by the unfavorable weather. It is estimated that there will be a decrease of about thirty-three per cent. in the yield this year.

The Iron Mountain train robbers have pleaded guilty to fourteen indictments, which makes the term of punishment seventy years for each man. The men who captured the robbers found $9,000 in their possession. This amount they divided among themselves, promising to pay $100 a year to the families of the robbers and to leave no means untried to secure their release from the Penitentiary after conviction, on condition that the robbers should keep the matter secret. One of the capturers, however, being troubled by his conscience, revealed the whole thing.

The counsel for the defendants in the Star-route cases have filed papers attacking the information against Brady, and a motion has been made to rescind the order allowing the filing of the information.

A statement just prepared by the Post-Office Department shows for the fiscal year ending June 30 a deficiency of $2,786,340, a gain over the previous term of $320,002. Postmaster-General James's savings in consequence of the Star-route overhauling are exhibited, of course, only in the last quarter, where the net gain appears to be a little more than half a million.

Nothing of importance has occurred in the Malley case during the week. The defence continues to bring forward evidence to prove an *alibi*.

There has been an unusually large amount of hazing at the Annapolis Naval Academy this year, and on Tuesday last the whole third class was put on board the *Santee*, where they remained until they signed a pledge to refrain from any further hazing. It is expected that this will have a salutary effect upon future classes.

A gold life-saving medal has been presented to Mrs. Ida Lewis Wilson for her brave conduct in rescuing two soldiers stationed at Fort Adams, near Newport, who fell through the ice in the harbor.

There was a great fire in New York on Monday night. It originated in the car stables of the Fourth Avenue road, and before it was subdued it had destroyed the greater part of the Morrell storage warehouse, situated on Fourth avenue and Thirty-second street. Much valuable property in the way of books, furniture, and pictures was stored in this building. The loss is estimated at $2,000,000.

The Coudert Bros., counsel for the Italian Government in procuring the extradition of Esposito, have addressed a letter to the *Evening Post* in regard to the two points whether Esposito was kidnapped, and whether he was "smuggled out of the country by means of an imposition on the State Department." They say the legality of the warrant by which he was arrested "was never questioned during the trial," and was even conceded by one of his counsel. Otherwise a remedy by *habeas corpus* lay open. They deny the issuing of a second warrant for rearrest on Esposito's arrival here from New Orleans. The subsequent procedure was in the routine of the State Department, and bears no marks of haste. There was no understanding about an appeal, and there were six days in which to make one.

It is reported that Mr. Jay Gould has secured a majority of the shares of the stock of the Manhattan Elevated Railway and will control the next election.

FOREIGN.

Mr. Gladstone arrived at Leeds on Thursday, and was received with great enthusiasm. He made a speech in reply to eighty-six addresses which were presented to him, in the course of which he referred to the Fair-Trade League. He said that some persons had complained about the American tariff, and that although America sent to England only £3,000,000 worth of manufactures, while England had sent to America from £30,000,000 to £40,000,000, yet the Fair Traders wanted America to cease to be England's customers to that amount. More unfair leaguers, he said, he never knew. He also said that he expected Sir Stafford Northcote to declare emphatically before long whether he favored protection and a corn duty, but that as for himself he would be no party to a retrograde movement. At a banquet given to Mr. Gladstone on Friday he made a speech in which he attacked Parnell, contrasting his course with that of O'Connell. He concluded by saying that Parliament was not going to overturn the principles of public right and public order to please Mr. Parnell. The London *Times* says that these "speeches of Mr. Gladstone, in the present condition of affairs, can hardly fail to be taken as an important political manifesto."

In his reply to an address from the Leeds Chamber of Commerce on Saturday, Mr. Gladstone said that although he could not make an explicit statement in regard to the negotiations for a new Anglo-French commercial treaty, they were in no way surrounded by doubt or difficulty.

It is reported as tolerably certain that the Anglo-French and Franco-Italian treaty negotiations will not be resumed until after the formation of the new French Cabinet.

The Cobden Club is calling upon its friends for a special subscription of £2,000, to be expended upon Free-Trade books and pamphlets to combat the Fair-Trade movement.

A letter has been published in the Paris *Bourse* from Sir Garnet Wolseley, in which he says he earnestly trusts the English Channel Tunnel project may never be carried out, as he feels that its construction would be a lasting source of danger to England.

Further trouble seems to be impending between England and the Boers. The Volksraad objects to a number of articles of the convention with England. The Boer Triumvirate desire that England shall merely have control of, and not conduct, foreign affairs, and shall have no right of approval of the Transvaal laws.

In an address at Wexford, on Sunday, Mr. Parnell referred to the speeches which Mr. Gladstone had been making at Leeds and elsewhere. He characterized them as unscrupulous and dishonest, and declared that Mr. Gladstone had maligned the Irish people, the bishops and Mr. Dillon.

The midland counties of Ireland are still very lawless. "Boycotting" is being carried on with unrelenting vigor, and incendiarism is frequent.

The Land Commission has issued a notice announcing that any tenant evicted since the 23d of February last has the right to ask the settlement of the judicial rent of the holding.

The first notice filed by a landlord has been sent in to the Land Commissioners by the Marquis of Waterford, asking to have the rents of two tenants increased.

A Labor Convention will assemble in Dublin at the end of October for the purpose of forming a national organization of farm laborers to act with and under the direction of the Land League. A few of the prominent leaders of the labor movement will be selected at the Convention as candidates for Parliament.

The directors of the Scottish Chamber of Agriculture have formally approved the draft of the Land Bill for Scotland. They also approved the draft of a bill for the abolition of primogeniture and entail.

Lord Lorne's Western trip has excited great interest among Scottish farmers. The London *Times* says that they have been impressed with the fact that the Canadians are opening up a country which is a promising field for occupation "by people who are still proud to call themselves British subjects."

Foxhall won the Cesarevitch stakes at the Newmarket Second October Meeting on Tuesday. The betting against Foxhall just before the start was 9 to 2.

In the Spanish Cortes on Saturday Señor Guell presented an amendment to the reply to the address from the throne, demanding autonomy for Cuba and the conclusion of a commercial treaty between Cuba and the United States on the basis of absolute freedom of commerce.

General Prendergast has been appointed Governor of Cuba, in the place of General Blanco. He will start for Cuba on October 28.

The Kings of Spain and Portugal met at Valencia de Alcantara on Saturday, and opened the Caceres railway, by which the journey between Madrid and Lisbon is materially shortened.

The Marquis of Northcote invested King Alfonso of Spain with the British Order of the Garter on Tuesday.

The Portuguese court has gone into four days' mourning for President Garfield.

Telegrams have been received confirming the report of a massacre at Wady Zerga by the Arabs. Wady Zerga is a station on the French railway sixty miles from Tunis. The stationmaster, who was an ex-lieutenant in the French army, was burned alive and ten employees massacred. The preparations for operations against Bou-Amena are reported to have been completed. Two thousand camels have been collected at Oran for a long expedition against him in the desert.

In deference to urgent representations by M. Roustan, the French Minister, the Bey finally consented to a partial occupation of Tunis, and on Monday morning the French troops entered the city and occupied the Kashbar and two other forts.

It is reported that a secret council of Ministers has been held in Tunis, and that a scheme is proposed for the surrender of the financial administration of the country to France and the issue of a French loan of 225,000,000 francs.

The Paris *Weekly Medical Gazette* publishes communications from members of the ambulance service in Algeria complaining bitterly of the want of organization in the sanitary arrangements of the army.

The Turkish delegates to Egypt demanded a special court of enquiry into the general state of the country, but the Khedive refused his consent to any interference with Egyptian independence, and the Porte authorized the delegates to withdraw the demand. The Khedive has, however, given his consent to an informal enquiry, which is now proceeding.

Immediately upon being informed of the despatch of the Turkish mission to Egypt, Lord Granville informed France that he was willing to take the initiative in a proposal for joint action in Egypt, and suggested that an identical note be sent to the Porte explaining the perfect understanding existing between France and England, and declaring that while both nations fully recognized the Porte's right of suzerainty, they would not tolerate any manifestation likely to endanger the influence and rights enjoyed by the two powers in the financial administration of Egypt. England and France have each sent an iron-clad to Alexandria.

Negotiations for including the city of Bremen in the Zollverein will begin this week. Herr von Bitter, the Prussian Minister of Finance, has gone to Bremen to pave the way for the conclusion of the arrangement.

The Vienna Regatta Committee have written a letter to the London *Sportsman* repudiating the insinuation that one of the committee was concerned in bribing Shinkel, of the Cornell crew. They declare the statements published in the New York *Tribune* of the 6th of September, and alleged to have been made by Mr. Allen, a member of the Cornell crew, to be falsehoods.

The Committee of the Mexican Congress has reported in favor of the approval of the railroad concessions granted by the President during the recess.

TUESDAY, October 11, 1881.

REPUBLICAN PROSPECTS.

The anti-Stalwart majority which controlled the recent Republican State Convention owed its power to a popular movement against boss-rule in the management of the Republican party. The proceedings of many of the district conventions, and the resolutions passed there, leave no doubt of this fact. It was no mere contest between two factions of the party for the possession of the spoils; at least this was not the motive power with the rank and file on the anti-Machine side. Had it been so, then—as many predicted—the death of President Garfield and the accession of Mr. Arthur to the Presidency would have given the faction with which Mr. Arthur had been identified a great advantage in the election of delegates, and probably the control of the Convention. But the change in the national Administration had no visible effect upon the Republicans in this State. They remained as determined as ever to overthrow the old Conkling machine, and they sent their delegates to the State Convention for that purpose.

Taking the object to be accomplished in a narrow sense, they did what they were sent for. They took the organization of the Convention out of the hands of the Stalwarts. They defeated the attempts of the Conkling men to obtain seats in the Convention by trumped-up contests. They appointed a State Committee with an anti-Stalwart majority, and thus changed the character of the official representation of the party. They showed in a variety of ways, without mentioning any names, that the Republican party of this State very positively and firmly declines to be ruled by the Grant-Conkling combination. This was well as far as it went. But leadership of a higher order would have broadened the objects of the movement to which the majority in the Convention owed its existence. With the exception of an eloquent resolution on President Garfield's death and another one in favor of a railroad commission, which was added to the report of the committee on the motion of a delegate, the platform is scarcely above the ordinary routine standard. The resolution on civil-service reform, instead of being outspoken and specific in its propositions and demands, virtually refers the whole subject to President Arthur for his kind consideration, simply assuring him that if he sees fit to do anything in that line, the Republicans of New York will stand by him. We will not say that the committee which drew up and reported this resolution meant to trifle with the subject, but if it intended to say and do anything for a real reform of the civil service, it was singularly unfortunate in expressing its sentiments. A simple statement of the moral of President Garfield's death would have been very much more pointed and effective. Had the leaders of the majority made this Convention the starting point of a general crusade against the spoils system instead of being satisfied with the destruction of one of its excrescences, they would have made a far deeper impression upon the popular mind and imparted a living and moving interest to the campaign, the lack of which will perhaps be severely felt.

The failure of the resolution entrusting the State Committee with the reorganization of the party in this city and Kings county is not only a lamentable thing in itself, but it puts the leaders of the majority in an almost ludicrous light. The resolution was one of those reported by the Platform Committee. A well-known member of the Machine promptly moved that its consideration be postponed until after the nomination of candidates for the State offices. The purpose of this motion must have been clear to anybody who has ever watched the proceedings of a convention. It is a well-known experience that when the main business is done the delegates become impatient to go home, and the most important things sometimes fail to arrest their attention. But nobody attempted to stop this trick of the Machine men, which was as successful as they expected. Mr. George Bliss was even permitted to put forth, without a word in reply, the astounding assertion that the increase of the Republican vote in this city at the Presidential election last autumn was owing to the efficiency of the district organizations governed by the "Mike" Cregans, the "Jake" Pattersons, and the like. However, in this way the much-needed reorganization of the Republican party in this city was defeated by a majority of five votes, the Machine men raised a shout of triumph, and the rotten boroughs will flourish a while longer, until the reform of party organization is taken in hand by committees of the most respected citizens, and until the leaders of the anti-Machine Republicans in conventions will have learned how to be vigilant and how to use the advantages of a majority. On the whole, this Convention may be looked upon as a forward step, but there is still much more to do.

That the "Stalwarts" were greatly displeased, and that some of them should have indulged in little exhibitions of a soured temper in talk and manner when the control of the Republican party had passed from their hands, is but natural. Such personal demonstrations of disappointment may continue for a little while, as they are apt to do after almost every party convention in which one set of politicians gets the better of another set. But they are not likely to continue very long or to spread very far; and if there be any Democrats who count upon deep and fierce dissensions in the Republican ranks as an element of Democratic strength, they will probably find themselves mistaken. Even if Mr. Conkling himself desired the defeat of the Republican candidates, of which there is a possibility but no evidence, his influence upon the Stalwart hosts, however large or small they may be, will now be vastly inferior to that of President Arthur, and it may be taken for granted that the latter cannot possibly desire a Republican defeat in New York this autumn. The strongest leading influences on the Stalwart side will therefore be in favor of the ticket nominated by the late Convention.

Nor is the Stalwart mind likely to be impressed by the idea that a defeat under the leadership of the anti-Stalwart Republicans would ultimately strengthen their side again. All they might hope to accomplish by such a defeat is to show that they are strong enough, by refusing their active support, to prevent the success of Republican candidates whom they dislike. But in this way they have nothing to gain. If they try it and fail, it will be a crushing demonstration of their own weakness. If they try it and succeed, they will lose their only political capital, which consists in party fidelity. The time is past when they might in such a way persuade the Republican party of this State that victory is possible only with Stalwart leadership, and that therefore the staff of command must be restored to them. The only effect they could produce would be to provoke retaliation, and thus cut off all their own personal hopes for the future; for if the Stalwarts are strong enough to defeat anti-Stalwart candidates, the anti-Stalwarts, with their superiority in popular strength, will certainly be able to defeat Stalwart candidates. It is, therefore, not probable that the Stalwart politicians, who are no sluggards when their own interests are involved, will now do anything to make themselves in any way responsible for a defeat of the Republican party.

But there is danger in another direction. It has been remarked that this year's campaign in Ohio is without spirit and interest; that people will not turn out to attend public meetings, and that the demonstrations attempted are tame and profitless. The same thing is observed in other States. The reason for this is not to be found only in the universal mourning for President Garfield: the people do not take any interest in the campaigns because there are no subjects under discussion which arouse the popular interest. When the question of specie payments was before the people nothing could surpass the spirit and energy of a campaign in Ohio. People would attend meetings every day in the week. So it was all over the country during the last Presidential campaign, when the relation of politics to the prosperity of the country was an absorbing theme. But there is no question of similar interest called up for discussion now, and most people are heartily tired of the old ding-dong about the infinite goodness of one party and the infinite badness of the other. When an election signifies nothing more to the mind of the ordinary citizen than the question whether Jones or Smith is to be Secretary of State, the ordinary citizen is very apt to content himself with the belief that Jones and Smith are both respectable men, and that the republic will not be imperilled by the triumph or defeat of either. The campaign in this State will be virtually in this condition, and, as experience shows, the Republicans usually suffer most from such apathy. The only public topic which has of late been engaging the popular mind and an earnest discussion of which might arouse the interest of the masses, is that of civil-service reform. But since the Republican Convention contented itself with referring that whole subject to the discretion of President Arthur, who, with all the good qualities he possesses, has so far not been known as a friend of a systematic civil-service reform, no practical issue is furnished by the party. While we might make a fit subject of discussion before the people what the President ought to do, we can scarcely argue the question what he is probably going to do so that the Republicans of New York may support him in it. It may turn out that the "practical politicians" who made the platform missed their

chance in this respect. It has not unfrequently been observed that the "doctrinaires" are, under such circumstances, apt to be more practical. But while the want or rather the throwing away of an interesting issue will be unfavorable to the Republicans, we shall not at all be surprised to see the Democrats throw away their advantages by a new, or rather a continuation of the old, quarrel among themselves.

MR. GEORGE BLISS AND REPUBLICAN REORGANIZATION.

Mr. George Bliss is a person who excites a good deal of hostility, for one reason or another, but he enjoys one great advantage over his enemies in that they never know where to find him. The whereabouts of the "little joker" at the fair is not more uncertain to the innocent rustic gambler than Mr. Bliss's political position in any particular month of the year to those desirous either of acting with him or against him. Sometimes he is for reform and sometimes for things as they are, but there are no outward signs by which his exact attitude towards either reform or abuse can be ascertained at any particular moment. There are, of course, laws which govern his motions as the motions of all other created bodies, but nobody knows them but himself, and all questioning about them he resents fiercely.

The Republican party in this city was reorganized in 1871, by Mr. Jackson S. Schultz and Mr. William Orton. Mr. Bliss has since acknowledged that when this reorganization was effected in that year, Mr. Schultz said in his presence, and he concurred, "that the usefulness of the reorganization therein established would not last more than ten years, for the reason that everything degenerates in New York, and nothing so fast as political organization." Nevertheless, after it had been in operation for four years, Mr. Bliss, in a letter to the *Nation* (September 7, 1876), gave this account of the primaries:

> "Since I have had any influence in such matters, I have attended no primary at which there was even an accusation of unfair dealing. In the district in which I reside, which is the only one in which I ever attended a primary, I have procured the adoption of a practice which does away with all secret or close caucuses. Every member of the association is invited to every caucus, and can make himself heard.
>
> "No Republican has, to my knowledge, ever been refused admission to the association. From the indefiniteness of your word 'fixing,' I can only meet it by repeating that neither in primary, caucus, nor convention have I ever been concerned in anything which prevented, or was intended to prevent, the fair expression of the views and wishes of all. I have usually had my own candidates and my own opinions, and have urged the one and expressed the other freely. Sometimes I have succeeded and sometimes I have been beaten. When overruled I have concluded I was wrong, for, not being the editor of a weekly reform newspaper, I have never claimed omniscience. I may add I do not believe that Republican caucuses or primaries or conventions in this city are often 'fixed,' if by that you mean the prevention of the fair expression of opinion."

This is plain enough. He considered the system a great success, and saw no signs of the degeneration he had anticipated. Three years later—in 1879—however, he wrote another letter about it, this time to General Arthur, in which he said that of the 13,355 names on the rolls of the District Associations, nearly half were those of dead men, of men who had removed, and of men who had turned Democrats. "Not six thousand," said he, "should be there." The rolls, too, were full of the names of avowed Democrats, kept there by the managers to perpetuate their control of the Associations. "Desirable members, good Republicans," he added, "were excluded," "sometimes by direct rejection, but oftener by a refusal to act on the names presented, by hanging them up in a committee which never reports." Mr. Bliss then described the other tricks of the "inspectors" and the "henchmen," and wound up with a most dismal wail of despair. "He had tried," he said, "in vain, in his weak way, to bring about that reform from within which he believed to be essential to the usefulness or long continuance of the organization," but "had accomplished little except to receive the sneers and slurs of those who glory in fraud because they profit by it, and whose approval is a disgrace to any honorable man."

We presume there was hardly a reform eye in New York which did not drop what the Colorado man called a "good square tear" over this modest picture of Mr. Bliss's exertions, sacrifices, and final collapse. There was nothing left him in 1879 to boast of, as the result of his toils, but the hatred of the wicked, which is always an unsubstantial trophy. The degeneration predicted by Mr. Schultz had clearly gone far, and the end was near. The period of ten years expires this year, and we thought the time for reorganization had come, and that Mr. Bliss would lead the demand for it in the late Convention.

It now appears that in spite of long and careful observation we little knew our man. He appeared at the Convention as the opponent of reorganization. Moreover, he justifies his conduct in a letter to Tuesday's *Times*, in which he maintains, not that the process of degeneration has been arrested, but apparently that there never was any degeneration at all. The pea is not only not under the thimble we have selected, but it never was under it. Indeed, he does not know what we mean by thimble. Within two years he has heard of no "new flagrant case of abuse." Moreover, although the proportion of the Republicans of the city who take part in the primaries is small, it is, he says, as large as the proportion in the country. Finally, the reason why there are so few names on the rolls is that "you can't get the bulk of the Republicans to take part in any permanent organization," so he does not want any reorganization. The present organization is good enough, he says, for any little reform that may be needed, and he intimates that, if it does not effect it, at some future time—which he is careful not to fix—he will join in asking for the intervention of the State Convention.

What it is which has arrested the process of degeneration described by our erratic friend in 1879, and brought back the halcyon days of 1876, and which has converted Mr. Bliss from a broken-hearted martyr into a smug and satisfied manager, we do not profess to know. It can hardly be any purely human agency. But we would warn those who think they may count on having Mr. Bliss's support in seeking reorganization some time or other, not to be too confident, for it is all but certain that his time will not be their time, and that when they call on him he will give his opinion of them in language, as the reporters say, "the reverse of complimentary."

THE TREASURY AND THE MONEY MARKET.

The present stringency in the money market is due in part undoubtedly to the operations of the Treasury, whereby several millions of dollars have been temporarily locked up to meet the December call for bonds to be redeemed. Inasmuch as these calls and withdrawals of loanable funds are frequent, and as they generally produce an artificial stringency, the question is asked whether means cannot be devised to take the Treasury out of the money market altogether. Too much power and responsibility are lodged in the hands of the Secretary under existing law and practice. Under present arrangements money comes into the Treasury much faster than it goes out in the course of ordinary disbursement. Consequently it becomes necessary to make extraordinary disbursements—that is, to buy in or redeem portions of the public debt from time to time with the surplus The amounts and times of redemption are purely arbitrary, within the limits of the Secretary's available means. Consequently the money market is exposed to occasional jerks and spasms, and the Secretary himself, however unquestionable may be the rectitude of his conduct, is exposed to the suspicion of improper motives, for it would be quite within his power to put the prices of securities and of many staple articles up or down at his will. No such suspicion has attached to Secretary Windom, but the purest man in the world could not escape it forever if, as is sure to happen, some men were enriched and others impoverished as incidents of his official action. It is needless to add that a dishonest Secretary could do an immense amount of mischief without much danger of legal detection.

It is an axiom of fiscal science that the public treasury should meddle not at all with private business. It should operate neither for nor against any class of citizens. It does operate against some and in favor of others when, voluntarily or involuntarily, it takes out of the common stock of trade more money than it has immediate use for. Very likely its influence at the present time has been exaggerated, but it ought not to exist at all. The fault is in the law, or in the absence of law, regulating specifically the method of applying the surplus revenues to the extinguishment of the public debt.

There are two ways of meeting the difficulty. One is to repeal taxes and stop the flow of money into the Treasury beyond the amount needed for the ordinary expenses of the Government. This would put an end to the process of national debt-paying, and would run counter to public opinion on that subject, and would be unwise financially as well as politically. The other way is to establish by law a mode of redeeming the public debt with surplus revenues, which shall conform to Adam Smith's first axiom of taxation—viz., to take out and keep out of the pockets of the people as little as possible. Secretary Win-

dom's success in dealing with the extended 6s and 5s has put $588,000,000 of bonds within reach of the Government at any time. No holder of any of these securities can complain if his bond is drawn by lot and paid off. It has been customary to give two or three months' notice of intention to redeem bonds, but the length of the notice is discretionary. There is no reason for waiting till ten or twelve millions of money is drained out of the channels of trade and then waiting ninety days more to send it back. The ordinary operations of the Treasury—*i. e.*, the accumulations of money for pensions and interest and other regular disbursements—are in themselves sufficiently obstructive to business, as has been shown by a careful analysis in the current number of the *International Review*. But since we have no fiscal agency like the Bank of England to take charge of all Government collections and pay all Government dues—whereby the Government's money is never out of the money market although always on hand when required—we must make shift to put up with this inconvenience. But there is no valid excuse for jerking the money market by successive pulls of ten million dollars. It is not merely "Wall street" that is affected, but every trade centre in the United States, besides many important ones in Europe. To provide means for disbursing the surplus revenues by small instalments and at frequent intervals, is a mere matter of detail. Secretary Windom can add to his renown by making suggestions to this end in his forthcoming report to Congress.

WILL WIMBLES.

Mr. Thomas Hughes's attempt to provide a refuge in Tennessee for the large class of young Englishmen whom he calls "Will Wimbles," after one of Sir Roger de Coverley's friends in Addison's *Spectator*, is said to be a failure, owing mainly to the poverty of the land and the remoteness of the markets. An acute writer in the *Pall Mall Gazette* maintains that there is another and more potent cause to be found in the quality of the Will Wimbles. The Will Wimbles are the young men who are educated in the public schools and Universities, or at least in the public schools, and are turned out into the world between eighteen and twenty-one, without any special training whatever, but with the manners and instincts of gentlemen, and with entire willingness to take to any calling but the lower walks of "trade." The great body of them are the sons of middle-class parents, clergymen, doctors, lawyers, and small squires, whose means are very moderate, and who have to submit to more or less privation in order to send their sons to the public schools at all. They do it in order to launch them in the world unmistakably in the gentle class, and in order to enable them to form their first social relations in that class. Unfortunately, however, as the writer in the *Pall Mall Gazette* points out, the tone and temper of the public schools, and their way of looking at life, are the products of a vague but none the less powerful assumption that every boy is the son of a man with about five thousand pounds a year. The whole atmosphere of the school is permeated with this assumption. The boys' code of manners is formed in it. Their intercourse with each other is more or less influenced by it, and they all look out on the world up to their last day at school with the eyes of youths whose home is a well-equipped manor-house surrounded by a prosperous estate.

The love of the middle-class Englishman of every age for this point of view is curiously exemplified in the social articles not only in the "society papers," properly so called, but in the *Saturday Review*. The troubles and perplexities and minor disappointments of life form a favorite topic with the writer of the "sub-leaders" in this last-named paper, but they are always of the troubles, perplexities, and disappointments of a landed gentleman who keeps hunters, and has a stud groom and extensive covers. He hardly ever examines the state of mind of any one less well-to-do than a younger son whose means only allow him to hunt two days in a week instead of six, and who has to rely on invitations for his shooting. These and their sisters, cousins, and aunts, apparently form the reviewer's entire world, and the only world in which there are any social phenomena worth discussion. It is, in other words, a world made up exclusively of "gentlemen," and of the persons, male and female, who wait upon them. Its sorrows are the sorrows of gentlemen, and arise mostly out of the failure of some amusement, or the loss of the money with which amusements are provided, the missing of some social distinction, or the misconduct of "upper servants." It is, however, really the only world that the English public-school boy or University man sees, or hears of, or thinks about while *in statu pupillari*. This is true, let his own home be never so modest, or the sacrifices made by his father to secure him the fashionable curriculum be never so painful. The result is, of course, that when his "education" is finished, he is really only prepared for what is technically called a gentleman's life. He has only thought of certain employments as possible to him, and all these are exceedingly hard to get. The manners of the great bulk of mankind, too, are more or less repulsive to him, and so is a good deal of the popular morality. In short, he is turned out a Will Wimble—or in other words, a good-hearted, kindly, gentlemanly, honorable fellow, who is, however, entirely unfitted for the social *milieu* in which he must not only live, but make a living.

Mr. Hughes's idea has been that though he dislikes trade, and is a little too nice for it as now carried on, at least on the retail side, he has an innate liking and readiness for agriculture, and that if enabled to till the soil under pleasant, or at least not too novel, social conditions, he would do it successfully. Out of this the Rugby, Tennessee, experiment has grown, and if it has not actually failed, as some say, it is certainly too early to pronounce it a success. At all events, the signs that it is going to fail are numerous. Among them is the deep disappointment of the settlers, few of whom probably realized not only the monotony and drudgery of labor in the fields—these things can be borne by men with stout hearts and strong arms—but its effect in unfitting a man for any kind of amusement. There has been much delusion on this subject in this country, where far more is known by the reading class about all kinds of manual labor than is known in England. The possibility of working hard in the fields and keeping up at the same time some process of intellectual culture, has been much preached among us both by educational projectors and social reformers, though nearly every man who listens to them here knows the effect of physical toil in the open air in producing sleepiness and mental inertness. It is not surprising, therefore, that it should find ready acceptance in England among people who think ability to bear a hard day on the moors after grouse, or a long run in the saddle after the hounds, argues capacity to hoe potatoes or corn for twelve hours, and settle down in the evening, after a bath and a good dinner, to Dante, or Wallace, or Huxley.

Will Wimbles are much less common among us than in England. We fortunately have not a dozen great endowments used in turning them out, or a large and rich society occupied in spreading the gentlemanly view of life. But they, nevertheless, are more numerous than is altogether pleasant. The difficulty which our college graduate experiences in getting room for what the newspapers call his "bark" on the stream of life, is one of the standing jokes of our light literature. We have no schools which take the place of the English public schools in our scheme of education. But the view of life which prevails in the English public schools, and turns out the Will Wimbles, is more or less prevalent in our colleges, and tends to spread as the wealth of the class which sends its boys to college increases. In other words, colleges are to a much greater extent than they used to be places in which social relations are formed, rather than places of preparation for the active work of life. This last character, indeed, they almost wholly lost when they ceased to have the training of ministers as their main function. Scarcely any man who can afford it now likes to refuse his son a college education if the boy wants it; but probably not one boy in one thousand can say, five years after graduating, that he has been helped by his college education in making his start in life. It may have been never so useful to him as a means of moral and intellectual culture, but it has not helped to adapt him to the environment in which he has to live and work; or, in other words, to a world in which not one man in a hundred thousand has either the manners or cultivation of a gentleman, or changes his shirt more than once a week, or eats with a fork.

College education is prevented from suffering as much from this source in popular estimation in England as it does here, by the fact that, owing to the peculiar political traditions of the country, college-bred men begin life in a large number of cases in possession of great advantages of other kinds, such as hereditary wealth. Here they have almost all to face the world on their own merits, and in so far as they face it feebly or unskilfully their defects

are set down in the popular mind to the fact that they went to college. If the discredit ended here, it would perhaps be of small consequence. But it may be safely said that the college graduate is never seen groping about in a helpless and timid way for "a position," and shrinking from the turmoil and dirt of some walks of life, without spreading among the uncultivated a contempt for culture, and increasing their confidence in the rule of thumb. The mere "going to college" is recognized as a sign of pecuniary ease, and of a desire for social advancement, but not as preparation for the kind of work the bulk of the community is doing, and thus makes mental culture seem less desirable, and cultivated men less potent, especially in politics. The question is a serious one for all colleges, and it is not here only, but in England and France, that it is undergoing grave consideration. In Germany society may be said to have been organized as an appendage to the Universities, but here the Universities are simply appendages to society, which is continually doubting whether their existence can be justified.

THE METROPOLITAN CASINO.

THE Metropolitan Concert Hall, although only a year old, is already interesting as the theatre of several experiments in the way of furnishing a place of popular amusement and recreation. Its history illustrates the difficulties which surround all new attempts of the kind in New York, and at the same time the success it has had shows the opportunities which undoubtedly exist here for the development of new varieties of entertainment. Originally planned as a sort of American beer-garden, the first obstacle it encountered was of a peculiarly American description—an unwillingness on the part of some of the subscribers to permit the sale of beer. They liked the idea of a beer-garden, but they were unalterably opposed to the idea of beer. A temperance beer-garden would have been a curious experiment. It would have been a powerful reminder to the thirsty German of the difference between a race which considers amusement an end in itself, and one which regards it with distrust because it amuses. But it was fated that this should not be. The anti-beer party was left out in the cold, and the concert hall fell into the hands of energetic epicureans thoroughly imbued with European ideas on the subject of pleasure, combined with a spirit of enterprise and innovation purely American. Their idea appears to have been to combine the features of a summer beer-garden with an American restaurant, and in thinking how this might be done they hit upon a novel plan, for which they deserve the everlasting praise of every New Yorker, and which we are convinced has a great future before it—we mean the idea of using the roof of the building as a sort of garden.

Hitherto every attempt at a garden in New York had been a ghastly failure. When any one had undertaken to set up a "garden" he generally utilized a back yard for the purpose, which, being enclosed by high walls, always resembled a cellar with the top taken off much more than anything else, and was totally unventilated, close, hot, and generally damp. There was a shocking garden of this kind in connection with Thomas's old concert hall. There was another in Fifth avenue, a few years ago, which was made to seem all the more like a magnified area by being called a *jardin d'été*. There is another in Twenty-third street, where lofty brick walls surround a space in shape something like a tennis court, and in gloom the bottom of a well. Now all these "gardens" were based on a theory the erroneous nature of which the managers of the Metropolitan Concert Hall were first to perceive. The fact is that the price of ground in New York is so enormous that obtaining any large space for a purpose of this kind is out of the question; and yet for a real garden this is absolutely essential. It is economically impossible that the same space should not be turned to a far more profitable account by being built over. Hence the only available spaces for "gardens" are just those spaces which are of least use for such a purpose—little bits of land in the rear of buildings, which cannot very well be built on without making the front building inconvenient—or, in other words, the back yards.

But there is one place which is always accessible, always exposed to the air, always free from surrounding walls, and always cheap. The roof in a city like New York is obviously destined to take the place which in other cities is occupied by gardens on the surface of the ground. It rains very little in New York in summer, and there are few cities in the world where the atmosphere on the level of the street is more unendurable. There is everything in favor of the roof, and nothing to be said against it except that it has not been sufficiently introduced to make the idea familiar. Prejudice is the hardest thing in the world to root out, and it must be confessed that the Anglo-Saxon has a prejudice against the roof, simply for the reason that hitherto in Anglo-Saxendom, the roof has not been utilized in the way we suggest. The founders of the Metropolitan Concert Hall, however, were unprejudiced men, and they determined to make the idea of frequenting and using the roof familiar to everybody. The only mistake they made, it seems to us, was that they did not carry it far enough; they constructed a roof round their building, like an uncovered veranda, and the fundamental correctness of this theory has often been proved on warm evenings, when the interior of the building was nearly empty and the roof thronged with a crowd of people altogether too numerous for it. If they had taken the entire roof, it would have been crowded. The Metropolitan Concert Hall has already proved that the roof theory is right, and if you adopt it, you clearly cannot have too much roof. When we think of the enormous amount of roof space in New York, of the almost universal use of elevators, and the erection of taller and taller buildings, it is impossible to avoid the conclusion that we are on the eve of a great development in the use of the roof as the American substitute for the European garden.

The Metropolitan Concert Hall, having developed the idea of the roof, has now undertaken another experiment, which is as yet perhaps in too early a stage to admit of any very confident prediction as to its success. The plan seems to be to make it into a place of amusement for the winter, combining the features of a vaudeville theatre with a *café chantant*—a place where you can amuse yourself by listening to music, or dine, or smoke, or talk. It is curious that there are no places of this sort in New York, except the German beer-gardens, in which, however, you have only instrumental music. The American theatres which attempt this kind of thing are of a very low order—theatres in which the line between the audience and the performers is not drawn as strictly as it would be at legitimate theatres, and where the vulgarity of the performance makes it utterly uninteresting to persons of cultivation and refinement. To go from the legitimate theatres to these places of amusement suggests the reflection that there is as yet no half-way place with Americans between the stiff and the disreputable; no such thing as careless ease and the harmless pursuit of unconventional amusement. The attempt of the new management at the Metropolitan Concert Hall to occupy this ground will therefore be watched with interest. But the performance on Monday night made the success of the experiment seem still problematical. The place has been converted into a theatre, and a well-known company opened it that night with "Olivette." Of the performance little need be said. "Olivette" and the "Mascotte" occupy at present in the operatic world much the same position that "Pinafore" did a few years since. That is to say, a manager who cannot get up an "Olivette" or "Mascotte" is not worth his salt. The airs are all familiar to the public, and the more familiar they become, the better they seem to be liked. Miss Catherine Lewis, who took the part of *Olivette*, is a favorite with the New York public, and was received by a crowded house with great applause. Her voice has improved within the last two years, and her singing of the "I will obey" song in the second act was as good as anything of the kind we have heard off the French stage. Mr. Howson, who took the part of *Merrimac*, has a great reputation as a humorist of the true English school, and achieves marked hits by extraordinary faces, sudden changes of voice, and a very stiff leg. The choruses were good, and Mr. Paxton's singing of *Valentine's* part was so ludicrously bad that it caused almost an uproar of amusement. But the most noticeable thing about the performance was that after all it was just such an evening's entertainment as might have been had at any other theatre. A stage has taken the place of the restaurant, and the main hall has been filled with long rows of chairs, as any concert hall or theatre is filled. In the rear, under the galleries, and in the boxes up-stairs, people sat at tables, drank beer, ate ices, smoked, and talked. Opposite the stage on the second floor was the restaurant, where people seemed to be actively dining all the evening. But notwithstanding all this the place could hardly be said to be a *café chantant*, any more than Booth's or Daly's. It is a theatre surrounded by a very large café. The two are entirely distinct. As long as you are in the theatre there is nothing either on the stage or in the audience to distinguish the entertainment from any other theatrical performance. The moment you leave the theatre you get into a café, where you look at the performance from a distance, much as you might from the street. The plan has this to recommend it, that you can get away from the theatre without going into the street, but the formality which reigns in the body of the hall is complete; we did not observe a single person get up and leave his seat, except during the *entr'actes*. On the whole, the Metropolitan Casino can hardly as yet be said to have provided New York with a *café chantant* or a vaudeville theatre. It is something different from these, as it is from a beer-garden. Whether it will prove a successful American substitute for all three remains to be seen.

GARFIELD IN LONDON.

LONDON, September 26, 1881.

WE are prone to call ourselves a cynical generation, and to affirm that the worthier qualities of human nature are not much in demand, nor even in great repute. But the effect of President

Garfield's death has been to quash the significance of this jaunty attitude. History holds no record of any scamp, however successful, any demagogue, however blatant, or any complying rogue, however serviceable, whose death has made any memorable ripple on the surface of events. The touch of death has the magic power which either transmutes the man into gold or reveals his essential dross. We look upon Garfield as a hero; and certainly, if any man's claim to the title be valid, his is so. But his heroism consists not in his being above or outside of human nature, but in his being more fully than most men within it. Whatever elements were great in him exist in their germ at least in all men—even in him whose dreary fate it was to be his murderer. And the use which he served to mankind lay not in the practical work he did or might have done, but in the timely indication he gave of the power and possibilities of human virtue. Men who live active lives know how hard it is to be just where injustice is so easy; to be honest where dishonesty is so profitable; and to show moral courage where poltroonery is so fashionable and conciliating. It is the justice, the honesty, and the courage of Garfield—not his ability—that make his memory precious. Because he lived as he lived, and died as he died, it will henceforth be less easy than it was for immorality to appear respectable; and the good that is latent in the race will receive a new impulse and development. The hearty simplicity and kindliness of his disposition, not less than the long duration of his suffering, have vastly multiplied the numbers of those who sympathize with our country's loss. The extent and vitality of that sympathy have astonished even those who feel it. Such an emotion, coming as it does at a political season so full of sinister omens as the present, when the rulers of Europe are glancing threateningly at one another's throats, may conceivably exercise an influence wider than the immediate cause of it can postulate, and destined to be memorable in the moral history of mankind.

The meeting of Americans in London to do honor to the late President's memory was worth seeing and hearing. Exeter Hall is not, indeed, a place especially suitable for such a gathering; and it was suggested (but too late for the hint to be acted upon) that Saint Paul's Cathedral might have been had for the purpose. But this was a minor matter. The hall, such as it was, was filled to overflowing with upwards of three thousand of our countrymen and women. The seats not having been reserved (except a limited number on the platform), this large audience began to assemble long before the hour appointed for the meeting to be opened; and by half-past three all the seats were occupied. An untoward incident occurred at this time—a personage whose speech seemed to indicate English nationality, and whose appearance and vociferousness suggested intoxication, giving way to his feelings in such a manner as to necessitate the interference of a policeman and summary ejection. What sentiments they were that strove to find utterance through him did not transpire. Except for this the audience remained hushed and undemonstrative until, punctually at four o'clock, Mr. James Russell Lowell appeared and took the chair, supported by General Merritt, Bishop Simpson, Rev. Dr. Channing, Mr. Moncure D. Conway, Mr. J. S. Morgan, and others. Mr. Lowell's opening address was in every respect worthy of the deep attention and appreciation with which it was listened to. The American Minister's voice is clear, penetrating, and of measured and just intonation; his language is not more scholarly than it is simple and eloquent. It is not often that a man whose eminence has been attained in other ways has shown so singular a command of the resources of oratory. It was gratifying to see—and the spectacle is not a common one—a man in every way fitted to be the leader and mouthpiece of a great assemblage, acting in that capacity. In Mr. Lowell's position speechmaking is a constant necessity, and the difficulty of saying the right thing at the right time and place is much enhanced by the frequency of the demand. Uniformly felicitous and weighty as he is, however, Mr. Lowell was perhaps never so much so as on this occasion. Deliberate rather than impulsive in manner, and never allowing himself to be carried away by his subject, his every word nevertheless carried the impress of deep sincerity and cordial sentiment, and the impression which he produced of holding power in reserve augmented the effect of all he uttered. The substance of what he said will already have been made known to American readers, and the reports in English newspapers were unusually accurate. It is my object to touch only upon such points of these events as are not likely to find mention elsewhere. A noteworthy feature of his, and of all the addresses delivered on that afternoon, was the quick responsiveness of the audience. It is now many years since the present writer has had an opportunity of mingling with an assemblage of his countrymen; and this sensitiveness of apprehension and recognition, so much more marked than would be the case in a similar collection of Englishmen, strongly impressed him. The sympathies of English people may be as deep as our own, but a certain coldness and stiffness of temperament prevents their giving it adequate expression.

Mr. Lowell was followed by General Merritt, who spoke with manifest emotion; and his speech made its mark, though something seemed to be amiss with his quotation of President Garfield's words during the excitement and consternation following the assassination of Lincoln: "Fellow-citizens, God reigns, and the Government at Washington lives!" No doubt Garfield expressed in some way the truth that "God and the Continental Congress" would not leave the nation in the lurch; but it appears possible that he may have put it in a way less open to the charge of anti-climax. Bishop Simpson's address was full of eloquence of a picturesque type which recalls the earlier and simpler days of the Republic. His voice has the undisguised American intonation which falls so pleasantly on the ear after a lengthened experience of English Parliamentary utterance; and he had the true orator's faculty of perceiving what the audience wished to hear, and saying it with all his heart. His allusion to Queen Victoria called forth a spontaneous and unpremeditated burst of enthusiasm, the like of which is not often seen anywhere. "The Queen of the greatest empire on the earth," he said, "drops a tear beside his widow, and lays a wreath upon his tomb." This sentence was received with cheers; but when the Bishop continued, raising his arms and speaking with great energy, "God bless Queen Victoria for her womanly sympathy and queenly courtesy!" many persons in different parts of the hall started from their seats, and in another moment the whole audience rose in a mass, and cheered repeatedly with all the strength of their lungs. It was a spectacle not easily to be forgotten. And, indeed, the Queen has fully merited the affectionate recognition which she is now receiving from Americans. Her telegram to Mrs. Garfield, her wreath of flowers for his coffin, and her decree of a week's mourning for the President, are evidences of tender sympathy which are only less royal and English than they are human and feminine. But the whole state of feeling created by this tragedy of ours is novel and wonderful, and kindles hopes which outweigh the fears that anarchy and tyranny arouse.

Bishop Simpson drew forth tears from many of his hearers when he told how the President's mother, on hearing of his assassination, cried out: "How could any one be so cruel and so wicked as to kill my baby!" As Mr. Lowell had already expressed it, it was all so human! The formalities and conventionalities of mankind are of great practical convenience, but they do nothing to promote the feeling of brotherhood between men and nations. On occasions like this they appear in the light of very flimsy rags indeed, and the strange fact that all men alike love good and hate evil comes into unsuspected prominence. I have not space to touch upon the remarks made by Channing and Conway, nor to describe the scene on Monday evening, in the church of St. Martin's-in-the-fields, when the Archbishop of Canterbury delivered a touching and eloquent address before a truly gigantic congregation. All England has been in mourning to-day, and we have not yet seen the result in which these things may issue. J. H.

PRUSSIA'S REPRESENTATIVES AT YORKTOWN.

BERLIN, September 24, 1881.

HERR VON SCHLOEZER, having left Rome on the 18th instant, arrived here on the 20th, conferred with Ministers Puttkamer and Gossler, and on the following day started for Varzin to report to the Chancellor the result of his negotiations. As these have been carried on between the Ambassador and Cardinal Jacobini without the interference or presence of anybody else, as the Papal See knows how to keep its secrets, and as the German negotiator is too obedient a supporter of Bismarck to reveal any of his achievements, if there be any, and too eagerly bent upon obtaining the prize sought for by him, nothing of course has transpired, or for the present will transpire, about the terms on which a settlement has been reached. Whatever the papers, therefore, say about their number and character is mere fiction or guess-work. So much only appears certain from the admissions of our official press that it was Bismarck who almost pressed a German Ministership upon Rome. Schloezer is of course a *persona gratissima* to the Pope. In the only audience which the latter granted him, Leo XIII. expressed his ardent wish to receive him soon as the duly accredited and permanent German Minister. This fact proves that an understanding which promises duration has been brought about between Berlin and Rome, for it cannot be supposed that the old diplomatic relations will be taken up again with the intent of breaking them off at the first opportunity.

It would be preposterous to draw from this speedy settlement of old animosities and conflicts conclusions derogatory to the dignity and authority of the German Government, but I cannot deny that the mere fact of secret agreements makes me rather suspicious. It is not customary for Rome to expedite business with foreign powers, but rather to procrastinate negotiations under all possible pretexts and simulations. This quick conclusion of peace is, in the eyes of all impartial observers, *prima-facie* evidence that something is wrong on Bismarck's side. Another fact which does not augur well for the success of his policy is an article published a few days ago by the *Post*, an official paper, which throws all the blame on the Liberals who left the National Liberal party, the so-called Secessionists, if the Government should fail to reëstablish amicable relations with the Papal See. "By separating from their old friends," it says, "they

weakened the Liberal party and threw the balance of power on the side of the Centre." Now it was Bismarck who at the election of 1878 did all in his power to crush the National Liberals and to strengthen the Conservatives, and it was Bismarck, again, who during the sessions of the last Reichstag made the Centre the most important, if not the decisive party in influence and numbers. The secession, however, took place on August 31, 1880, and can of course not be made responsible for a policy which has preferred Ultramontane help to Liberal co-operation. If Rome thus has an undue influence on the interior policy of Germany, it is the Chancellor who has brought about this anomalous state of things, and it is more than ridiculous to make the Secessionists the scapegoats, if Bismarck should really go to Canossa. He likes parliamentary support when it serves him to cover his acts or shield him from responsibility; but in all other respects he considers it a nuisance, with which a statesman must try to get along as well as he can.

In this regard an anecdote characteristic of the Chancellor has lately been made public by a former deputy by the name of Berger, a Conservative and Protectionist. "In 1877," Herr Berger says, "the Chancellor once told me that constitutional government could only be carried on if, as in England, the Prime Minister were at the same time the leader of the majority in Parliament. I," continues Herr Berger, "objected that only the reverse was correct; that on the contrary in England the leader of the House of Commons was made Minister President. Bismarck replied that we could not transplant to Prussia the half-republican institutions which prevailed in England, because the latter was an island, while Prussia's situation between two great military powers was much more exposed. For this reason," Herr Berger again objected, "a parallel could not be drawn between the two powers, as the conditions of their existence were quite different. Bismarck broke off the conversation with the remark that he wanted a majority like that which Louis Napoleon had had in his Corps Législatif."

The meeting of the Prussian Landtag, if not first that of the Reichstag, will throw official light upon the Chancellor's plans, for as soon as he asks for the salary of his Roman Minister he must explain the views and reasons justifying his demand. It is not yet settled whether the new minister is to be appointed in the name of Germany or Prussia. Bismarck, you know, is Secretary of State of both Governments, and can take his choice. If the impending elections for the Reichstag should result in his favor, he will, I believe, apply to it for funds; if not, he will find a ready instrument in the Landtag, where Ultramontanes and Conservatives always have a compact majority for measures of this character, even if the worst apprehensions, which I cannot yet entertain, should be realized.

The death of President Garfield, although anticipated for several weeks and a relief to the noble sufferer, has been received here with the sincerest regret and the deepest emotion by all classes of society. On the day the news arrived our Foreign Office addressed a note of condolence to the American Chargé d'Affaires, Mr. Everett, and men prominent in science and in politics called at the Legation; moreover, the citizens of the United States residing in Berlin, German-Americans, and Germans are preparing a celebration commemorating the services and merits of the deceased President. What will take place here is announced from other cities, like Hamburg and Bremen, Leipzig and Dresden, Stuttgart and Frankfort. The German newspapers do not look on Mr. Arthur's succession with pessimistic eyes, and on the whole agree with your opinion, that a fair chance ought to be given to the new President, who, they expect, will turn out much better than his reputation while Vice-President. In short, the sympathy of the whole German nation, without a single exception, is now as deep and general as it was sixteen years ago, when Abraham Lincoln fell a victim to the assassin's ball.

Another event which will greatly contribute to strengthen the good feelings between the two countries is the invitation which Secretary Blaine, in the name of your Government, has extended to the namesakes and relatives of Baron Steuben to participate in the centenary celebration of the surrender of Yorktown. As it was the sturdy old General to whom Lord Cornwallis made the first overtures of capitulation, and as the descendants of other prominent actors in that great drama have been invited as guests of the nation, the consideration shown to the Steuben family is a tribute of gratitude which in itself is not extraordinary. It, however, assumes a higher importance from the noble-hearted and appreciative motives with which Secretary Blaine has set forth the disposition of the American people towards Germany and the German-Americans. It is chiefly due to the exertions and tact of your late Berlin Minister, Mr. Andrew D. White, that this flattering testimonial to the services of Baron Steuben has been proffered to his family, and through them to the German people. The original invitation of July 30, having been published by your papers, needs no repetition on my part, but allow me to state the other side of the story, the comment of Prince Bismarck, his report to the Emperor, and the resolution based on that report.

The officers invited are Colonel von Steuben, commander of the Seventy-ninth Regiment (Third Hanoverian), at Hildesheim; Captains von Steuben of the Fourth Regiment of the Guards, at Spandau, and of the Ninety-eighth Infantry, at Brandenburg, and three Lieutenants von Steuben of the Thirty-ninth, Twenty-second, and Seventy-ninth Regiments, sons of the above-named colonel. The Chancellor having been summoned by the Emperor to give his views on the subject, says that in his opinion the invitation is an enviable acknowledgment of the services of a former prominent German officer which cannot be appreciated too highly, and which, in the eyes of the world, adds a new laurel wreath to the previous history of the Prussian army. He especially dwells on the modest manner in which the American Secretary attributes some of the greatest results of the Revolutionary war to the merits of Steuben as a disciplinarian, and compares it with the unjustifiably haughty tone in which almost all Englishmen treat the decisive intervention of the Prussian army in the battle of Waterloo, although it was solely won by the timely participation of old Blücher. The Chancellor therefore most heartily recommends acceptance of the flattering invitation, and giving a furlough to the above officers accordingly. This acceptance would not only please the United States Government, but would at the same time give universal satisfaction to our officers, who piously cherish the traditions of the times of the great Frederic, to whose favorite disciples Steuben had belonged. Besides, he thinks it impossible that the acceptance of the invitation should cause any uneasiness in England, as that country took a lively interest in the Philadelphia Exhibition, which had been expressly held for the centennial celebration of the Declaration of American Independence. Consequently the capture of Yorktown, crowning the efforts of a long war, could not form an exception to the rule which the English Government observed in its relations towards its former colonies.

In keeping with this memorial, the Emperor issued his decree, and expressed his special desire that all the Steubens should go to Yorktown in order to represent there the Prussian army and the whole German Fatherland. Without waiting to be asked for it, he has given an eight weeks' furlough to the above-named six officers, who will sail next week from Bremen for New York. The news of this extraordinary invitation has for several days been the principal subject of talk among our officers. The other day a jovial young captain complained to me that his mother's maiden name was Steuben, but that unfortunately it had not devolved on him, for otherwise he would have made the trip to America with his cousins, which would, of course, have offered him really "feudal" pleasure and "Titanic, glacier-like, pyramidal" enjoyment with those fellows yonder. The Steubens, however, who will be your guests are worthy representatives of our country, and will, I am sure, win the esteem and respect of your people. +++

THE EGYPTIAN CRISIS.

CAIRO, Sept. 20, 1881.

IF the teachings of Oriental history are to be believed, the events of the past week are merely the prelude to a crisis which must form an epoch in Egyptian annals. Aside from purely political reasons, Western influence, enterprise, and management have gained the ascendancy in Egypt with a rapidity utterly incomprehensible to the Turkish and Egyptian officials of the old régime. Although distasteful to many of the native Egyptians, it is this influence alone which distinguishes Egypt from all other Eastern lands, and which promises to rescue her from the blight of Moslem stagnation. When Ismaïl Pasha was deposed, the five great Powers of Europe undertook to make themselves responsible for the good government and administration of Egypt. By the establishment of the Control-System the Powers delegated to England and France the task of enforcing upon Egypt a government compatible with Western progress. The Control-System became a *fait accompli*, and England and France maintained it by holding forth the terrible but vague alternative of some kind of foreign intervention. For two years this was sufficient, but the events of the 9th of September now show that nothing less than military force is competent to support the position which Western civilization has assumed in Egypt; and if England and France find it impracticable to make use of such force, then they must stand aside, relinquish their trust, and together with the other powers play a subordinate rôle in the struggle between the effete and decaying civilization of the Moslem and the progressive and vivifying civilization of the Frank.

Last February an Egyptian regiment, on account of grievances partly imaginary and partly real, revolted, and demanded and obtained the removal of the Minister of War. On September 9 the whole Egyptian army, some nine thousand troops of all arms, surrounded the Palace, and held the Khedive and his ministers prisoners, while Ahmet Bey el Araby, an Egyptian colonel, but the *de facto* dictator of Egypt, sword in hand, demanded the dismissal of the Riaz Ministry, a Constitution and Parliament, and an immediate increase of the army. The first demand was conceded, and the other two were, by mutual consent, referred to the Sultan. For three days all order was paralyzed, and it was impossible to form a new Ministry. At last Sherif Pasha consented to take office, and he is at the present moment doing his best to conciliate all parties, and to act as a stopgap until some permanent arrangement can be arrived at. So long as the

power rests with the army there can be no guarantee for the future. Last February the colonels demanded the dismissal of one unpopular Minister; to-day they demand a total change not only of the Ministry, but of the form of Government; and what may they not demand to-morrow? The situation is most critical, and can only be solved by the complete disbanding of the army—a measure not likely to be agreed to—or by European or Turkish intervention, which is fraught with European complications of the most alarming nature. Well-informed persons feel confident that Araby Bey's action is connected with a great Mohammedan rising in Northern Africa—a movement fomented and directed by certain influential personages in Constantinople; and the *Hedjaz*, a Panislam journal published in Cairo, significantly speaks of Araby Bey as the second Prophet, who is to reëstablish the Arab Khalifate. The same journal warns Europeans not to meddle with the internal affairs of Egypt, and complains of the large number of European employees of the Government. It says if Europeans act badly, Egyptians can act worse, and calls for a radical change in the status of Europeans in Egypt. Since last spring Araby Bey has been in communication with the Bedouin chiefs of Upper Egypt, and it is said that recently he has won over the Bedouins of Lower Egypt also. These Bedouins take no interest in matters at Cairo or Alexandria, but would be only too glad of any opportunity to steal and plunder. They are by no means a tranquillizing element in the problem, and happily there is no immediate fear of their intervention.

Araby Bey is not influenced by personal ambition. He is a fanatic, who knows the Koran by heart, who speaks eloquently, and who feels that he is entrusted with a mission to deliver Egypt from foreign influence. The army obeys him blindly, and believes him to be gifted with divine inspiration. As head of the army, he issued a circular to the foreign consuls on the 9th of September, assuring them that Europeans had no cause for fear. The order and regularity with which the military movements were executed are sufficient evidence of his complete authority.

Correspondence.

MR. PARTON AND HIS PRINTER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am much indebted to you for pointing out my error in the translation of the Latin lines placed by Voltaire over his laboratory at the château of Cirey. The error was egregious, and well deserved rebuke. "Peccus" was an oversight, but this was a deliberate and inexcusable mistake, owing to the rusty condition of my Latin from long disuse. You intimate that the "printer" and the "proof-reader" may be in fault, and should be "sharply looked after." Not so. It is they who looked sharply after me, and enabled me to produce the 'Life of Voltaire' reasonably free from verbal mistakes. The critics have corrected several errors, for which I thank them; but my vigilant proof-reader of the Riverside Press saved me from many more.

Respectfully yours,

James Parton.

Newburyport, Mass., Oct. 8, 1881.

MANLY AND WOMANLY BEAUTY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the reply of the Editor to "C. D. M." on "The Sexual Theory of Games," in the *Nation* for September 1, you make use of the same argument (fallacious, *me judice*) which women use to explain the generally admitted lower activity of the female intellect, to account for the hypothetical higher perfection of female beauty—*i.e.*, heredity. Will you permit me to question this higher perfection, to begin with, and, even if compelled to yield, on the principle of *de gustibus*, etc., to dispute any such tendency of heredity to develop such supposed difference between the sexes?

Let me, as a traveller who has seen much of the earth's surface and many of the races on it, state the result of my experience in the matter of the relative beauty of the sexes—viz., that the higher the civilization, and the more woman is removed from severe physical effort in her constant occupations, the higher the average of that peculiar type of beauty which we recognize as the "womanly," while that type which we consider the "manly" predominates in races whose lives are passed in vigorous athletic struggle. In certain races manly beauty is far more common than womanly, and *vice versa*, if any common standard of criticism were acknowledged; but I apprehend that when we consult women we shall find that the manly type is ranked higher, and with men the womanly type will be. At any rate, I remember that one of the most remarkable women I have known for subtlety of thought and critical faculty, when I asked her which type of beauty she regarded as the higher, replied that she did not regard women as really beautiful—she reserved the epithet for men. We must bear this distinction in mind, though the accepted nomenclature of æsthetics does not define it. I deny, therefore, that woman has a "superior beauty"; and if the two types are to be taken together, I deny equally that as a general rule women have a higher average of the quality than men. On the contrary, possibly owing to the fact that men are freer to follow their normal lives, I have found that in a majority of the countries I have visited there are more handsome men than beautiful women. This is peculiarly the case with the modern Greek, and was, if antique sculpture could be accepted as witness, with the ancient.

But supposing that the fact of superior beauty were admitted, it cannot be accounted for on the grounds you suppose. As in the case of explaining the intellectual inferiority of women by heredity and the generations of lower culture, you assume that nature has two processes of development for the two sexes, whereas the functions of father and mother in the process of reproduction are precisely the same for son or daughter, and the inheritance, whether it come by "tissue" or mental communication, is precisely the same in both cases. The daughter inherits just as much from the father as the son does, though to hear the champions of woman's "equality" we should imagine that the women had had for some generations sires of their own sex, or that nature had provided some way of imparting the father's brain tissue alone to sons, and the mother's to the daughters. The fact is that, whether in reference to beauty or intellect, there is no such distinction as a diverse sexual *heredity* would imply: a beautiful daughter as often derives her beauty from the father as from the mother, and so of a handsome son. All we know is that nature is excessively freakish, and that while in some families all the children resemble the father, in others all resemble the mother, and in others still the sons resemble the mother, and the daughters the father; and if the daughter of a talented man is not as intellectual, as a rule, as her brother, it is only because sex in some mysterious way interferes with the development. The most beautiful woman in the circle of my acquaintance resembles her father, and the most beautiful boy I ever saw resembled his mother surprisingly; while, on the other hand, one of the most intellectual men I have known borrowed all his intellectual characteristics from his mother.

But "C. D. M." is utterly wrong, as a matter of fact, in supposing that women have any superiority over men in enjoyment of nature, and particularly in perception of color. Among the women who have most successfully practised art the dominant quality has not been delicacy of perception of color or refinement of treatment—the highest attainment of those qualities invariably belonging to men. And among the whole range of female artists (and we have many here in England) I do not know more than two who have shown the genuine color-feeling in a noteworthy degree. Still more widely is "C. D. M." at variance from the facts, so far as art work shows them, in attributing to women finer perception of forms; for in all women's work the element of form, as elaborated in composition or in ideal form, is rather remarkable for its absence, no woman having ever produced a composition of the highest order, or attained the highest rank in the subtle characterization of form or feature which we find in Chavet, Plassan, Meissonier, Cruikshank, Millet, Raphael, Holbein, Titian, Masaccio, Carpaccio—all varying one from the others, but presenting a collective ideal of refinement of perception and delineation of pure form which no woman has ever approached at any point. In fact, the one quality in which alone woman's art has been excellent is that of sentiment, not perception of any kind: one might say that women do not see, they feel.—Yours truly, W.

London Sept. 22.

[In claiming for man alone that discrimination in sexual selection to which we attributed the superior beauty of women, we were guided rather by a humorous than a serious intention. The question, however, has its serious side, and "W.'s" contribution to it is of interest. We do not propose to discuss the matter here, as that could not be done fully in anything short of a magazine article. It is quite true that the physical and mental characteristics of the parents are often transmitted indiscriminately to their offspring of both sexes. Schopenhauer asserted that children derive their intellectual qualities chiefly from the mother, their character from the father; but in this opinion he was largely influenced by the fact that it was so in his own case. But we know as a fact that among the lower animals beautiful colors and other ornaments are usually transmitted to one sex only. Still, the whole question of heredity is involved in the greatest darkness. Ribot's book left the subject exactly where it had been left by Darwin. We will merely add that Darwin, while admitting that women transmit most of their characters, including some beauty, to the offspring of both sexes, yet remarks: "As women have long been selected for beauty, it is not surprising that some of their successive variations should have been transmitted exclusively to the same sex; consequently, that they should have transmitted beauty in a somewhat higher degree to their female than to their male offspring, and thus have become more beautiful, according to general opinion, than men" ('Descent of Man,' part iii., chap. xx.).—Ed. Nation.]

THE IDEA OF GARFIELD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your editorial in the *Nation* for September 29, entitled "What President Garfield would have done," you say: "If President Arthur, therefore, wishes to carry out either what a mourning people now vaguely think President Garfield would have accomplished, or what his recorded utterances justify us in believing that he would have accomplished, he will not confine himself to imitating what his predecessor actually did during the confusion of the first months of a Presidential term."

The topic of "what his predecessor actually did" you have discussed in a manner which leaves the mind satisfied so far as you go. It is quite probable that you thought of a further item which has occurred to me, but which you may have dismissed as being in your estimation too conjectural. It is this, that President Garfield deliberately played a game with Mr. Conkling, and skilfully beat him. It is known that the ex-Senator resigned because of one of President Garfield's movements—the displacement of Mr. Merritt for Mr. Robertson. Was this a movement designed to drive Mr Conkling into his act of political suicide? I think this theory has confirmation so ample that it may be admitted among the topics that concern the idea of President Garfield. You yourself give Mr. Garfield unqualified praise for the thoroughness of his attainment in reference to his situation. You have asserted that he could have filled any of the departments himself. In this article again you assert, in speaking of what was done in the Treasury and Post-Office departments, that "neither [cabinet officer] could have done the work without the instigation and support of a President who saw the value of it, and could have done it himself if necessary." Thoroughness in the mastery of every situation in which he was placed was a leading trait. As the "raw colonel" he drove the veteran Marshall out of Sandy Valley. At Chickamauga he was the master spirit. When on the Committee of Ways and Means, of Banking and Currency, on Appropriations, and when he was heading the minority, still was he unresting until he was master. And are we not to believe that he made himself master of that situation in which he found himself placed with reference to the spoils system when he came to be President? Did he not take measures to acquaint himself thoroughly with the fortifications of that system? And did he not perceive that the heaviest blow he could strike would consist in his driving Mr. Conkling from his stronghold? Would he not then make Mr. Conkling his study, as he made the regions of Sandy Valley and Chickamauga; or as he made the subjects to which his attention was drawn in Congress?

It is easier to believe this than that he was "overpowered during the canvass and after his inauguration by what seemed to him overwhelming practical considerations, such as the need of some sort of reconciliation and harmony between the leaders of the party which elected him, and the impossibility of bringing this reconciliation and harmony about except in the traditional way of 'recognition' in the distribution of patronage." The practical considerations were weighty. It would have been a dire result, in his view, had he become the agency of disruption in his party. But the man who had already "taken his political life in his hands" was not to be swerved now from honesty, especially since he had made the situation his study, and had discovered the springs of action in the character of Mr. Conkling. President Garfield did not call Mr. Blaine to the chief seat in the Cabinet for the purpose of bringing about "reconciliation and harmony between the leaders of the party which elected him"; he did not do this in the way of "recognition." Was not everybody saying at the time that the call of Mr. Blaine would fail to secure this end? In his secret purpose, thinking his way along, with light dawning on him as he went, independent of popular criticism, sole mover on his side the checkered board, President Garfield checked Mr. Conkling with Mr. Blaine. Players have felt provoked at chess. Senator Conkling was provoked at this game. He had been the autocrat at play before. To meet his equal was an outrage. Angered, he grew confused. Had not President Garfield read this possibility as existing among the qualities of that mind? But this was a check. The next move must be a checkmate. Mr. Conkling must be provoked into greater confusion of mind, to foolish action. The appointment of Mr. Robertson was the move that ended the game. We must grant to President Garfield all this deliberateness of purpose, or else believe in the existence in his character of an element too unnaturally contradictory. He cleared the way of the most formidable obstacle to civil-service reform. In doing so he took the risk of not being understood in case of failure, but he risked his reputation for the sake of the people. If we can let this enter into the idea of the man, let us. A nation needs models. Let us not fail to give a model American the fullest recognition.

W. W. Tufts.

Warwick, Mass., October 3, 1881.

CHANGE OF PUBLIC SENTIMENT IN IRELAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some phases of the Irish question are difficult to understand, especially by those who are not in the country. The letter of your London correspondent "Y.," in the *Nation* of September 8, contains some very just remarks on the tendency to a change in the views of Englishmen in regard to relations with Ireland. In the din of battle between extremists I think sufficient attention has not been given to the change which is gradually working its way in the minds of moderate and thoughtful Irishmen in regard to the relations of Ireland with Great Britain.

As an Irish-American, during a sojourn of some months in my native country, I have been profoundly struck by the altered tone of old acquaintances, and the deeply-rooted disgust expressed by men who idolized Mr. Gladstone when he was in Opposition, at the course of the Government in consigning Michael Davitt to a convict's cell, and being so ready to resort to coercive in advance of ameliorative legislation. In the freedom of the social circle I have again and again been surprised to find men, who a few years ago scouted the idea of home rule as chimerical, expressing the opinion that British legislation and administration had broken down, and that some radical change was necessary for the welfare of Ireland. The fact is referred to with bitterness that the direct administration of the affairs of Ireland is in the hands of a man who has the support of no section of the Irish people. The people whose opinions I refer to are for the most part Protestants and business men having no interest in land—some of them Quakers. Opinions as to a remedy vary much, and I shall not take up your space with their discussion. What is felt to be wanting is some system or understanding whereby Irish public opinion would be more felt than at present in shaping legislative and administrative measures. I do not find that my friends are much frightened by the suggestion that any concession of partial self-government would almost inevitably lead to such a demand for complete autonomy as would be difficult to resist. Evidently the cry of "Home Rule! Home Rule!" which seemed to settle the question in the minds of most Irish Protestants a few years ago, has lost its terrors. It is seen that in no Catholic country at the present day does Rome rule, and the inference is inevitable that in a self-governed Ireland the influence of the priests would be less than at present. Indeed, in the present land movement the priests have been compelled to follow rather than to lead.

Moreover, the establishment of practical independence in most of the British colonies, and the continued success of constitutional government in France and other countries where the bulk of the people are Catholics, has had a marked effect upon the minds of many Irish Protestants. Even in Ulster there are not wanting indications that the idea of a united and self-governed Ireland is gaining ground, especially among the Protestant youth. The theory so freely put forward by Mr. Gladstone at the time of the disestablishment of the Irish Church and since—that Ireland should be ruled according to Irish ideas—has accustomed people to regard Ireland as a political unit. At the same time, the failure of the Imperial Parliament as an exponent of Irish opinion is more and more manifest.

These are some of the ideas I have found floating on the surface of men's minds here in Ireland. Will they bear fruit? I have purposely avoided reference to the Land-League agitation, because the subject is so vast. It remains to be seen what effect the recent pronouncements of the Land-League Convention, looking to the wholesale spoliation of landlords, will have upon moderate Liberals who have anything to lose, or who believe in fair dealing.

Yours respectfully,

Richard Webb.

Dublin, Sept. 24, 1881.

HOW TO DETECT THE *NATION'S* JOKES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I presume that you are heartily sick of the "Flipper Case," but as an old subscriber I feel puzzled by the fact that among your intelligent readers so few can appreciate a joke unless it is labelled. I am afraid that anything like wit will be banished from your pages, and am not willing to accept even successful prediction in its place without a protest. I thought your "Flipper articles" very enjoyable, and at no time supposed that you were assailing the reputation of Col. Shafter.

I am inclined to think that a steady perusal of the political editorials of our extreme party papers, which I suppose are jokes to their authors, but cannot, unfortunately, be detected as such by their readers, together with the implicit belief in them which so many seem to have, totally unfits the mind for any appreciation of satire unless it strikes in accordance with their political creed. That I, a reader of the New York *Tribune*, could understand your joke, is probably due to the fact that I read similar papers of the Democratic faith, and enjoy the jokes in both.—Yours truly, P. B. Spring.

Melson P.O., Talbot Co., Md., Oct. 10, 1881.

Notes.

J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in press the 'Charles Dickens Birthday Book,' being a selection of extracts and original designs by his daughter, Mrs. Perugini; 'The Honey-Ants of the Garden of the Gods, and the Occident Ants of the American Plains,' by Henry C. McCook,

D.D., who has already described the agricultural ant of Texas; and 'Capturing a Locomotive,' an incident of the late war, by the Rev. Wm. Pittenger.——'A History of Rome for Young People,' by W. L. Alden, of the N. Y. *Times;* 'The American Citizen's Manual,' by A. Johnston, author of the 'History of American Politics'; and several novels—'Joseph's Coat,' by David Christie Murray, 'The Vicar's People,' by Geo. M. Fenn, and 'Esau Runswick,' by Katherine S. Macquoid—are announced as forthcoming by G. P. Putnam's Sons.——Mr. Hubert H. Bancroft, whose library of 35,000 volumes relating to the Pacific Coast has been lately transferred to a new fire-proof building, isolated from all others, on Valencia street, San Francisco, will begin publishing next year his 'History of the Pacific States,' including Central America, Mexico, New Mexico and Arizona, California, Utah and Nevada, Oregon, Washington Territory, Idaho and Montana, British Columbia, and Alaska.——Harper & Bros. will shortly have ready the 'Complete Works of Oliver Goldsmith,' in four volumes, edited by Peter Cunningham, and heretofore an exclusively British publication; and a 'History of Educational Theories,' by Oscar Browning.——We have the prospectus of the *Polaris*, "an undenominational, independent weekly journal of sixteen pages," to be published in Portland, Oregon. The singular name appears to have been determined by the fact that Lieut. F. G. Schwatka is among the contributors, and that he is an "Oregon Arctic explorer." This is honoring a prophet in his own country.——'Schwatka's Search: Sledging in the Arctic in Quest of the Franklin Records,' is the title of a work by W. H. Gilder, second in command, to be published by Charles Scribner's Sons.——The *Art Interchange* Publishing Co. has founded a monthly magazine, *Art-Work Manuals*, edited by Mr. Charles G. Leland. This title also is curious, but is explained by the fact that each number is devoted to a single topic, as, Ceramic Painting, Tapestry Painting, Wood Carving, Art Needlework, etc.——No. 12 of the *Bibliographical Contributions* of the Library of Harvard University is occupied with a list of the publications of the University and of its officers during the decade 1870–80. The arrangement of the second part is personal and alphabetical.——Three bulletins have just issued from the U. S. Entomological Commission at Washington, Nos. 4 and 5 being monographs on the Hessian Fly and on the Chinch-bug, by Prof. A. S. Packard, jr., and Dr. Cyrus Thomas, respectively, and having, among other illustrations, maps showing the range of these pests. No. 6 is a welcome and much-needed General Index and Supplement to the nine reports on the Insects of Missouri, by Dr. C. V. Riley. It embraces, besides the index proper, tables of contents to the several reports, errata, the description of new species and varieties, and sundry notes and additions.——The October number of the *Magazine of American History* is wholly devoted to Yorktown, with the usual supply of maps, portraits, and other engravings; and in the current issue of M. Jules Lévy's *Le Français* will be found a genealogical notice of 'Les Lafayette.'——In the same number of *Le Français* M. Alfred Mercier, of New Orleans, announces his intention to publish next month a romance entitled 'Les Saint-Ybars, ou Maîtres et Esclaves en Louisiane,' which ought to furnish an interesting comparison with Mr. Cable's Creole tales.——A genealogical account of the Newhall Family, of Lynn, Mass., a prolific stock, is begun in Vol. xviii., Nos. 1, 2, 3, of the Historical Collections of the Essex Institute.——The Salmagundi Sketch Club will open its fourth annual exhibition of works of art in black and white at the National Academy of Design on Dec. 2, for three weeks. Exhibitors must send their pieces to the rooms of the Club in University Building from Nov. 21 to Nov. 24.——Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, in addition to an earlier good-sized map of the Regency of Tunis, has just issued one on a smaller scale, but more comprehensive, as it embraces also Algeria. It is compiled by Dr. H. Kiepert, which is a guarantee of its being based on the latest and best authorities. B. Westermann & Co. are the American agents for it.

—Feuerbach's 'Essence of Christianity,' written in 1843, and translated in 1854 by George Eliot, then Miss Evans, which has been long out of print, is handsomely republished, without change, by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., in the "English and Foreign Philosophical Library." It is a work which has attracted great attention, and is devoted to the Left-Wing Hegelian or extreme Tübingen argument that Theology is really Anthropology, or that knowledge of God is at bottom self-knowledge. With great patristic learning and more ingenuity, the author seeks to show that the Church fathers shared his insight.——From the same publishing-house, and in the same series, the third and last volume of Lange's 'History of Materialism' has just appeared, six years after the author's death and the publication of the second, greatly revised, edition in German. Lange represents the critical, as Laas does the positivistic, side of the only current of German thought that has sought and found its way through and beyond current materialisms. The former does justice to his theme throughout the wide and diverse fields of physical, natural, ethical, and social science, with surprising knowledge and insight, only to show in the end the untenability of the materialistic hypothesis as commonly conceived. His work is by far the most important contribution yet made to the history of philosophic thought in our own time.——'Anim l Physiology,' for schools, is the title of a unique little book of 112 pages, by J. Milner Fothergill, M.D., just published by G. P. Putnam's Sons. Technical language is discarded, and the "story of the body" is admirably told for children of upper grammar-school grades and higher, with the aid of about sixty well-chosen woodcuts. In gathering his material from the wide fields of anatomy, histology, and hygiene, as well as physiology proper, the writer has shown both tact and knowledge. It is the best primer we have yet seen in this department, and should be the occasion of introducing this study far more widely into our public schools.——The same house has reprinted, in a shape that almost of itself compels reading, the remarkable 'Autobiography of Mark Rutherford, Dissenting Minister,' which was reviewed at some length in No. 831 of the *Nation*.——Björnson's delightful story of 'Arne' has been before the American public in a readable version for a dozen years, and is now retranslated by Prof. Anderson, in the complete edition of the author's works which he has undertaken (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). A peculiarity in the present rendering is the reproduction of the interspersed songs in the metre and rhyme of the original; and Prof. Anderson hopes that those who admire them will be tempted to procure his 'Norway Music Album,' in which the music composed for them by Rikard Nordaak is given. It seems a pity that the melodies could not have accompanied the songs in this volume.——Charles Scribner's Sons have materially reduced the price of Mr. F. R. Stockton's 'Roundabout Rambles' and 'Tales Out of School,' two well-known illustrated children's books, among the very best of the class made up *after* the plates instead of before them, and full of humor, fancy, and instruction. They have in press 'The Floating Prince, and Other Fairy Tales,' from the same pen.——The Ticknor & Fields illustrated edition of Thackeray's 'Ballads,' of 1855, has been enlarged beyond the author's original collection, and brought out anew by J. R. Osgood & Co. Time's marks on the stereotyped letter-press are compensated by an elaborate and tasteful binding. The first of these ballads, by the way, the stirring "Chronicle of the Drum," is being honored with a holiday edition by Chas. Scribner's Sons, with the aid of eminent designers and engravers.——Mr. Paul Barron Watson's 'Bibliography of the Pre-Columbian Discoveries of America,' already mentioned in these columns, has been reprinted in a thin quarto by the author, and may be procured of him at 30 Winslow St., Roxbury, Mass.——Harper & Bros. test the popular regard for the poetry of Byron by issuing in their Franklin Square Library the selection recently made by Mr. Matthew Arnold.——Mr. Leypoldt's 'Publishers' Trade-List Annual for 1881' has made its appearance, with the usual catalogues, classified summary, and annual reference-list—a store of bibliographic information.

—The "Committee on Appeal" have issued a circular address to the friends of Swarthmore College, lately destroyed by fire. They state neither the estimated loss nor the insurance on the building, which is to be immediately restored, while temporary arrangements have been made for continuing instruction at Media, two miles distant. They say, however, "a loss of twenty-five thousand dollars will probably be incurred in this year's business; that is, the unavoidable current expenses will, under the circumstances, probably exceed by that amount the current revenue of the year." The committee think that not only this should be met, but the unissued one hundred and sixty thousand dollars of the five hundred thousand dollars of authorized capital stock should be taken, and the endowment fund largely increased. Contributors will have the option of directing their money to the stock, the fund, or the current deficit; and subscriptions may either be paid in cash or in three monthly instalments. The treasurer is Robert Biddle, and checks to his order should be sent to Isaac H. Clothier, No. 801 Market street, Philadelphia, for George L. Maris, clerk of Committee on Appeal.

—Collectors have already begun to bind together the public prints relating to the assassination of President Garfield, and in company with them Mr. Moses King, of Cambridge, has gathered and issued in a thin pamphlet 'The Poets' Tributes to Garfield.' The basis of this collection is a "symposium" got up by the Boston *Globe*, to its own great satisfaction.

"Who could analyze all this? who could formulate a proper interpretation of the symbolic features of this terrible national affliction? Who but the poets? And so we went to the poets, and asked them individually and separately to pass this great mass of undefined sentiment through the crucible of song, and explain to the people the secret of their sorrow. They have done so. . . . The *Globe* has inaugurated a new departure in journalism. We think it will prove beneficial to the public and to the poets."

We have grave doubts as to the benefits of this sort of interviewing, and whatever may befall the public, the poets, we are sure, will suffer by the "new departure." So many great reputations have been damaged by falling—or, as in the case of poets-laureate, by being driven—into the pitfall of "occasional verse," that our native bards may well pray to be delivered from the added temptation of a sensational editor offering to put money in their purses. Both the dozen contributors to the *Globe* and the thirty-odd more spontaneous poets (English and American) whose productions have been subjoined by Mr.

King do nothing to enhance their reputations—where they had any. If we get what we might have expected from Donn Piatt, neither Dr. Holmes, nor Joaquin Miller, nor John Boyle O'Reilly, nor Julia Ward Howe, nor Charlotte Fiske Bates, nor Dr. J. G. Holland, nor Walt Whitman, nor the Harvard class poet, nor the London prize poet, gains by having spoken instead of keeping silent. Almost all the pieces err by being too long; the great majority are so vague as to fit almost any dead hero as well as Garfield, and the range of ideas is extremely limited. That never was there such universal mourning before; that the dead President was a self-made man; that he was a student and bookish; that his taking off unites North and South—these are the chief results of passing a "great mass of undefined sentiment through the crucible of song," and it cannot be said that plain people who have to converse in prose needed this enlightenment as to "the secret of their sorrow." A single poet, we observe, makes allusion to the connection between the President's death and an unreformed civil service. On the whole, we do not know that there is any better verse in this collection than that taken from *Puck*, unfavorable as the conditions may seem to have been; and we shall quote only from the stanzas of Mr. W. D. Kelly in the Boston *Pilot*, who should not be confounded with the great apostle of protection, though more about him we cannot premise:

"The South shall vie in praises with the North,
The East yield not in worship to the West,
But all alike pay homage to his worth
Who, if he failed in some things, stood the test
Of his last, greatest trial, and went forth
Out of his own land, mourned by all the rest."

—Mr. James Jackson, "archiviste bibliothécaire" of the Paris Geographical Society, has issued a new edition of his 'Liste provisoire de bibliographies géographiques spéciales,' increased by diligent researches in American libraries to 1,557 articles, the titles being given with absolute fulness, including even the number of pages, and the author indicates whether he has himself seen the books. (This has been the case with five-sixths of them.) The titles are arranged geographically, and provided with an index of authors, in which great pains have evidently been taken to obtain full Christian names; a list of periodicals; and a list of those works which another person might have classified differently from Mr. Jackson. And all these 340 pages are filled, not with a list of geographical works, but with a list of lists of geographical works! What is the (literary) world coming to? The multiplication of books, which such facts as these indicate, would not be of so much importance if we had as much storage-room as our fathers. But the Great American Desert is filling up, and Africa, which used to have inexhaustible empty space, is now found not to be hollow, and is, moreover, declared by the latest traveller to be "the coming continent." The Arctic and Antarctic regions will soon be the only places left capable of relieving the overflowing book-shelves of the twentieth century, if literature widens and the world narrows in their present increasing ratio.

—Dr. George Grove, who shares with Schumann the honor of having discovered and given to the world many important but forgotten manuscripts of Schubert, has published in the London *Daily News* a letter which seems to establish, on satisfactory evidence, that there must exist somewhere a tenth symphony by this composer; namely, the work which he dedicated in 1826 to the Musik-Verein of Vienna, and which has always been supposed to be the Symphony in C. The question can only be definitively decided by reference to the Society's ledger, where the 100 florins voted to Schubert on this occasion would naturally be entered. The year 1826 is that in which he composed the D minor and G major quartets and the Fantasia Sonata in G, and the new symphony may be expected therefore to be of the same style and excellence as these works. "The B minor Symphony," Dr. Grove continues, "was hidden at Gratz unsuspected till long after his death. The oratorio of 'Lazarus' suddenly made its appearance in 1859, and the complete 'Rosamunde' music, a noble work, was dragged by Mr. Sullivan and myself out of a cupboard in Vienna in 1867 in a huge parcel, an inch thick in dust, which had apparently not been unpacked since the original performance in 1823. I make these facts public in the hope that they may attract the notice of the collectors and musicians of Vienna, who are more interested than any one else in recovering a possible masterpiece of one of their greatest composers."

—The fifty-fourth assembly of German Naturalists and Physicians at Salzburg opened on September 16 with an address by Professor Pettenkofer on the "Soil and its Relations to Health." The professor, who is perhaps the greatest living authority on what might be called meteorological hygiene, prefaced his remarks by saying that the first consideration of air, water, and soil in their sanitary relations dates as far back as Hippocrates—two thousand years ago; but hitherto our hygienic practices have been guided almost entirely by instinct and what is called common sense, and it is only recently that a scientific basis has been secured for them, chiefly through the germ theory of diseases. It has heretofore been assumed that the hygienic condition of the air deserved the first consideration, then that of the water, and finally that of the soil; but it now seems as if this order would have to be reversed. It has been found that there are some cities which enjoy a complete, or almost complete, immunity from certain epidemic diseases, such as cholera. Salzburg is one of these cities and Lyons another. Whenever the cholera makes its appearance in Paris or Marseilles the rich inhabitants go to Lyons, which, although it is situated just between these two centres of infection, remains intact. And it has been proved that this is not due to superior cleanliness, better water, or more favorable atmospheric conditions, as it is only some twenty years since the city was first supplied with filtered Rhone water, while the plateau of Languedoc is not protected, even by the frequent storms that visit it, from the disease. The average rate at which air moves is about three metres a second, and if this air contains in one locality noxious germs which it does not contain in another, they can only be derived from the soil. As the air moves along they disappear through diffusion or dilution just as, in the Seine, which is polluted by the sewage of Paris, no impurities whatever are found at Meulan, a few miles below Paris. As for the water, many cases of infection are known where its agency was strictly excluded, so that, although it would not do to pronounce dogmatically against the water-theory, it must be said that as yet it lacks cogent evidence.

—The influence of the soil in predisposing to disease is also strikingly shown on shipboard, where only those persons who come from certain localities are attacked; so that it is regarded as the best measure for the ship to cut off all communication with the shore at once by going to sea, where the disease as a rule soon disappears, because the ship in itself must be classed among those localities which do not spontaneously breed the disease. Experience has shown that alluvial soil is the favorite resort of certain infectious diseases. This is due to the fact that such soil is very porous and therefore contains a large amount of air, water, and organic material, which conduces to the rapid growth and multiplication of the microscopic bacteria whose introduction in the human system gives rise to disease. The fact that large, heavy buildings are often erected on soil a third of whose volume consists of air, shows that the porosity of the soil is greater than is usually imagined. It shows also the importance of protecting houses from the poisonous germs which are bred in these pores of the soil. In winter and on many summer nights, when the air in our houses is warmer than the ground, the houses act like flues in sucking up the gases contained in it. Pettenkofer regards the system of canalization now adopted in most cities as an important safeguard against danger. The opponents of this system urge that the network of canals can never be made complete and absolutely free from leaks, so that the soil will always be polluted to some extent after all; but the answer to this objection is that so small an amount of pollution is neutralized by the activity of certain kinds of bacteria which act as a sort of scavenger in destroying the noxious bacteria. "These lowest representatives of organic life can therefore be made useful to us, too, and we must not be surprised if in future times the useful bacteria will be actually cultivated and only those that are noxious thwarted in their struggle for existence." This last sentence is the most striking one in the lecture, and one cannot help associating it with the prophecy uttered by Pasteur at the late Medical Congress at London, that the recent discovery that vaccination is useful in several infectious diseases besides smallpox points perhaps to a general law, by which the influence of one kind of microbe may be counteracted by that of another kind.

YORKTOWN.

The Yorktown Campaign and the Surrender of Cornwallis. By Henry P. Johnston. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1881. Large 8vo, pp. 206.

THE appearance of Mr. Johnston's monograph upon the Yorktown campaign and the surrender of Cornwallis is certainly opportune. Published in time for the Yorktown centennial, the work will materially aid in supplying the demand for information concerning the last act of our revolutionary drama. As in novel-reading, so in history, interest usually deepens towards the end of the tale. The *dénouement* at Yorktown will work more powerfully upon the imagination of students than does the formal opening of the plot in Independence Hall. Since the Philadelphia centennial, the history of the American Revolution has been in great part reconstructed. The articles of Mr. Stevens, and of his corps of contributors to the *Magazine of American History*, have placed many old battle-grounds of the Confederation in a much clearer light. Mr. Johnston's illustrated account of Yorktown, while representing his own extensive and original researches, is also the scientific combination of a host of detached studies.

The prelude to the concerted movement of Washington, De Grasse, and Rochambeau in October, 1781, was Lafayette's summer campaign in Virginia. This modern example of Fabian policy, exhibited by an enthusiastic, impulsive Frenchman, scarcely twenty-four years of age, who was matched by his Commander-in-Chief against England's ablest general, the Earl Cornwallis, then a man of forty-three, is graphically described by General Henry B. Carrington in the May number of Mr. Stevens's magazine, and also by Mr. Johnston in the third chapter of his 'Yorktown Campaign.' Lafayette had been sent to Virginia by Washington, with twelve hundred of his choicest Continentals, taken chiefly from New England regiments. With this detachment the glory-seeking La-

fayette was to oppose the inroads of Phillips and Arnold, who had been sent South by Sir Henry Clinton in order to divert Washington from New York to the defence of his own State, and also to support the operations of Cornwallis in North Carolina, where he was supposed to be out-generalling Greene, as he had done Gates at Camden. But the Earl was really doing nothing of the sort. In fact, he had rather the worst of it. Another such victory as that at Guilford Court House, said Fox in the House of Commons, would ruin the British army; and Cornwallis afterwards declared the contest in the Carolinas to be "impracticable against the rebellious inhabitants." He wrote to Phillips that he "was tired of marching about in search of adventures." He wanted to undertake more "solid operations" in Virginia, believing that, if that province could be secured through the aid of uprising Tories, the whole Southern section could be isolated from the final centre of operations about Philadelphia.

The germ of the method of conducting the Yorktown campaign may perhaps be found in Washington's scheme for Lafayette to beleaguer the forces of Arnold upon the shores of the Chesapeake, and, by co-operating with a French fleet, which was to be sent down from Newport under Destouches, to capture the traitor and his army. Arnold took up his position at Portsmouth; Lafayette was ordered to wait at the head of the Chesapeake until the fleet should sail into the bay. But before reaching its destination the French fleet encountered the English, and was so crippled that it was obliged to return to Newport. Thus the scheme of Washington at first miscarried, but in idea the proposed blockade of Portsmouth was a foreshadowing of the siege of Yorktown. Lafayette, with his detachment, was now recalled, but the order was soon countermanded, and he was instructed by Washington to push forward into Virginia and coöperate with Greene in the Southern campaign.

Lafayette, with his eight Massachusetts companies, marched from Baltimore on the 19th of April, 1781—a date already significant, and which has since become still more so in connection with that city. He had been fêted by society there and had obtained abundant supplies. Rich men like William Patterson, Charles Carroll, James McHenry, and others, advanced two thousand pounds to purchase summer clothing for his men. "The ladies of the city," says Johnston, "offered to make up the shirts and blouses for his soldiers." It would have been strictly accurate if he had said that they actually made the garments in question and sent them to the New England troops in Virginia. The practice of forwarding such supplies across the Potomac appears to have been revived during the late war by Baltimore ladies. Advancing towards Richmond by forced marches, Lafayette occupied the heights of that town upon the 29th of April, a few hours before the forces of Phillips came up. The latter thought it prudent to withdraw, and upon his death, which happened soon after, Arnold took command. By an arrangement preconcerted with Phillips, Cornwallis formed a union of the British troops at Petersburg, when Arnold was sent back to New York. Johnston sharply defines the resultant situation: "Lafayette facing Cornwallis—a meagre, incomplete American force opposed to the British veterans of Camden and Guilford Court House, united with the strong detachments brought down by Arnold and Phillips. All eyes were now fixed upon this field, watching the development of the enemy's designs."

Cornwallis advanced upon Richmond. "Lafayette cannot escape him," wrote Clinton to the British ministry. From this expression, according to Bancroft, has developed the saying accredited by all historians to Cornwallis, "The boy cannot escape me." It is to be observed that Mr. Johnston comes to the rescue of the old story by showing from a manuscript letter of a soldier of the period that, in camp, the noble Earl was reputed to have called the young Frenchman "an aspiring boy." But whatever Cornwallis said or thought, Lafayette eluded his adversary. The wary youth wrote to Washington, "Were I to fight a battle, I should be cut to pieces, the militia dispersed, and the arms lost. . . . I am therefore determined to skirmish." Cornwallis had under his command not far from seven thousand troops. At first, Lafayette had only his twelve hundred New Englanders; but these were soon joined by Steuben with a thousand militia from Virginia; a thousand more flocked over from Maryland; and Wayne, with eight hundred trained Continentals, came down from Pennsylvania, so that, in the end, Lafayette had under his orders about four thousand men. Having the sympathy of both Virginia and Maryland, this force was easily maintained, and it grew stronger every day under French and German discipline. Cornwallis, on the contrary, although he harried the Old Dominion, destroying three million dollars' worth of property, was constantly growing weaker, and was, moreover, losing his hold upon the Tories. Stealing race-horses and cutting the throats of fine colts was no way to retain the affections of Virginians. The only brilliant British exploit in the entire campaign was Tarleton's raid upon Charlottesville, then the seat of the Virginia Assembly. With two hundred and fifty troopers mounted upon Virginia horses, he rode seventy miles in twenty-four hours, and would have surprised and captured the leading politicians of the State, together with Governor Jefferson at Monticello, if it had not been for a faster rider, Captain John Jouett, the Paul Revere of the South, who reached Charlottesville before Tarleton and gave warning to the town.

As midsummer approached, Cornwallis began to move down the York peninsula towards the sea. Probably, as in North Carolina, he had again become tired of marching about in search of adventures, and possibly, like Lord Beaconsfield, he was also tired of atrocities. Lafayette and his light infantry hung now upon the flanks of the retiring enemy. "I had an eye upon European negotiations," wrote the wily Frenchman, "and made it a point to give his Lordship the disgrace of a retreat." In the early part of August, the British forces appeared at Yorktown and began to fortify that place, together with Gloucester, upon the opposite side of the York River, in order to secure a good naval station for English vessels, which Cornwallis had every reason to expect would support him as they had supported Arnold at Portsmouth. With adequate naval coöperation, Cornwallis would have been entirely safe at Yorktown. The responsibility for his capture lay in the inefficient management of the English fleet, which was divided in the pursuit of small ends, when it ought to have been united in repelling De Grasse. Clinton afterwards charged Cornwallis with violating instructions in not occupying Old Point Comfort as well as Yorktown, and Johnston intimates that the Earl might perhaps have escaped the toils that were gathering around him by crossing over to Portsmouth as soon as he heard of the arrival of the French fleet. But without the support of English ships, even this step would not have saved Cornwallis, for he might have been shut up in Portsmouth according to the original plan for entrapping Arnold. The whole issue turned upon the presence and superiority of the French fleet at the right moment.

Washington's sudden change of base from New York to Yorktown was a master-stroke of military genius. The movement was a total surprise to both Cornwallis and Clinton, and it brought disaster and ruin to the British cause. The swift combination of the American forces about Yorktown and their co-operation with the fleet of De Grasse, which came up the Chesapeake from the West Indies, decided the success of the American Revolution. The origin of this brilliant strategy has been disputed. Mr. Stevens, in the *Magazine of American History* for January, 1880, says: "It is to Rochambeau himself as the author of the campaign that the chief honors are due. It was his advice that directed De Grasse to the Chesapeake, his request that brought reinforcements from the West Indies to assist in the siege of Yorktown." There is no better chapter in Mr. Johnston's monograph than that in which he essays to prove that the Yorktown campaign was not the inspiration of any one man, but "a development" conditioned by circumstances. It had been agreed in May at the Wethersfield conference between Washington and Rochambeau, as the former told Greene, "to make an attempt upon New York, with its present garrison, in preference to a Southern operation, as we had not the decided command of the water." If, at the time Cornwallis first invaded Virginia, Washington had been confident of naval superiority over the English, there can be little doubt that his plan of operations would have turned southward. During the early summer he was in constant receipt of letters from Jefferson and Lee, urging him to come home and defend Virginia. But Washington understood well that by threatening New York with his Continentals in conjunction with the French forces from Newport under Rochambeau, he should either capture the city or divert a portion of the British troops from the South, and thus ensure American victory there. Johnston quotes a letter from Washington to Lafayette, dated July 30, showing that the Commander-in-Chief was even then preparing to coöperate, if necessary, in the Southern campaign:

"From a change of circumstances with which the removal of part of the enemy's force from Virginia to New York will be attended, it is more than probable that we shall also entirely change our plan of operations. I think we have already effected one part of the plan of campaign settled at Wethersfield; that is, giving a substantial relief to the Southern States by obliging the enemy to recall a considerable part of their force from thence. Our views must now be turned towards endeavoring to expel them totally from those States, if we find ourselves incompetent to the siege of New York."

Early in August, we find Washington making enquiries of Robert Morris as to means of transportation from Philadelphia southward. And here it may be remarked that without the energetic financial policy of this new treasurer, who not only secured transportation, but supplies and hard cash for the dispirited troops, probably Yorktown would never have been won. There are too many factors in the successful conduct of any campaign to justify a monopoly of merit for any one leader. The beauty of the Yorktown campaign lies in the coöperation of allied forces and the concurrence of many events. To regard Washington or Rochambeau as the sole author of it, is a one-sided view. To be sure, the latter was the man who recommended De Grasse "to enter the Chesapeake on his way, as there might be an opportunity of striking an important stroke there," but this suggestion was entirely in harmony with the plan of operations agreed upon by Washington and Rochambeau. To assume in any way the direction of an American campaign was contrary to the French method of procedure, as was evinced at Yorktown. The probable truth is that Washington, Rochambeau, and De

Grasse acted with as perfect an understanding as was possible under the circumstances. Washington afterwards wrote:

"A combined operation of the land and naval forces of France and America for the year 1781 was preconcerted the year before. The point of attack was not absolutely agreed upon, because it would be easy for the Count de Grasse, in good time before his departure from the West Indies, to give notice by express at what place he could most conveniently touch to receive advice; and because it could not be foreknown where the enemy would be most susceptible of impression, and because we, having command of the water, with sufficient means of conveyance, could transport ourselves to any spot with the greatest celerity."

There can be little doubt that Washington himself preferred on the whole a combined attack upon New York, but he distinctly asserts that he would never have attempted it unless success had appeared "infallible." He had long been watching for "some splendid advantage," either in the North or at the South, and when he learned that the Count de Grasse was on his way to the Chesapeake and could only remain upon the coast a short time, he renounced all idea of attacking New York, and determined to remove his forces to Virginia with all possible secrecy and despatch. Not even his own soldiers knew of their destination at the outset, and all pains were taken to deceive Sir Henry Clinton. In view of securing "some splendid advantage" in the South, it is possible that Washington concealed the knowledge of this alternative scheme even from his best friends and highest officers. Perhaps it was known at first only to Rochambeau. Johnston might have strengthened his position in regard to this alternative plan by quoting the following passage from one of Washington's letters: "It was determined by me nearly twelve months beforehand, at all hazards, to give out and cause it to be believed by the highest military as well as civil officers, that New York was the destined place of attack, for the important purpose of inducing the Eastern and Middle States to make greater exertions in furnishing specie supplies than otherwise would have been done, as well as for the interesting purpose of rendering the enemy less prepared elsewhere." Undoubtedly Washington was determined by the force of circumstances to revert to his long-cherished plan of entrapping the enemy upon the Chesapeake by a combination of forces on land and sea, as in the scheme against Arnold, upon which sufficient stress has never been laid by the historians. The point to observe in Mr. Johnston's account of the genesis of the Yorktown campaign is that Washington was perfectly prepared for a movement southward, and realized that with a superior fleet victory was a foregone conclusion.

The story of the march of the allies southward has been minutely described by Mr. Stevens and Mr. Johnston, and need not be repeated here. Into the military details of the Yorktown siege, into an enumeration of forces, commanders, and ships, into an account of Cornwallis's surrender the reader can enter with the assurance of fullest detail by perusing Mr. Johnston's interesting monograph. Never before has the story been so well told. The work contains excellent maps, plans of the siege, portraits of the leaders, extracts from Washington's journal, and other contemporary sources of information. With such an historical field-glass the student can review, from a safe and comfortable distance, the operations which went on in that Yorktown peninsula, where a great host of sight-seers is now gathering, and where the descendants of Rochambeau, Lafayette, and Steuben, representatives of France and Germany, will soon visit together the field where American independence was won. This concourse of peaceful citizens and foreign envoys, conveying expressions of international good-will, signalizes a greater victory than that gained in 1781 by the combined armies of France and America, and by the military science of Germany displayed by Steuben in the conduct of the siege. A recent utterance in the London *Times* indicates how fully the descendants of the defeated are united with us in sentiment: "We have quite as much reason as the Americans to share in their centenary thanksgiving." It is noteworthy that three of the most prominent nationalities in modern Europe were engaged, with the united colonies of America, in that *Voelkerschlacht* at Yorktown. France was there arrayed against England; and the Germans were there, although divided against themselves. These three nations, together with America, have decided four of the most important battles that have been fought during the last hundred years. Yorktown, Waterloo, Sadowa, and Sedan constitute an historical quadrilateral, forming with their diplomatic results the ramparts of the nineteenth century.

PARTON'S LIFE OF VOLTAIRE.—II.

Life of Voltaire. By James Parton. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

MOZART wrote to his father on the 3d of July, 1778: "I must give you a piece of intelligence which you perhaps already know, namely, that the ungodly arch-villain Voltaire has died miserably, like a dog—just like a brute. That is his reward." Howard, the philanthropist, thus expressed himself a few years earlier: "I returned to Geneva. There are some exemplary persons; yet the principles of one of the vilest of men, Voltaire, with the corruptions of the French who are within a mile of the city, have greatly debased its ancient purity and splendor." When Boswell told Johnson that he had visited and was pleased with Rousseau, the English moralist roared out: "Rousseau, sir, is a very bad man. I would sign a sentence for his transportation sooner than that of any fellow who has gone from the Old Bailey these many years." When Boswell asked: "Sir, do you think him as bad a man as Voltaire?" Johnson replied: "Why, sir, it is difficult to settle the proportion of iniquity between them."

Here we have four samples of the sentiments with which a large proportion of the European world regarded Voltaire during his life and after his death. Nor can it be denied that in England and America at least the feeling of abhorrence for the great French freethinker survives among large classes even unto the present day. Yet any one who candidly and with an open mind considers the details of Voltaire's life, as they are laid before the public with unsparing minuteness by Mr. Parton, will, in our judgment, of necessity come to the conclusion that whatever be the estimate which mankind may ultimately form of Voltaire, the idea that he was "a brute," the "vilest of men," a thoroughly "bad man," a person whose life was steeped in "iniquity," prevalent though it has been, and still in many quarters may be, is one of the strangest, though not the most unaccountable, historical misconceptions begotten by theological hatred. For though no one can for a moment maintain that Voltaire's life and career has not its bad, and even its very bad, sides, it is perfectly futile, in the face of patent facts, to deny that it has also a very brilliant and good side, or to overlook the fact that his existence was in the main a continuous struggle in favor of what he held to be truth, justice, and humanity, and that his foes were, at least as often as not, the opponents of what every man of sense now holds to have been the cause of right and of equity. It were indeed, as has been before this pointed out, equally easy and equally useless to make Voltaire the subject of vehement invective or of unmeasured eulogy. There are aspects of his career which lend themselves easily to either purpose. It is a better expenditure of time to take the information presented to us by Mr. Parton, and attempt to ascertain from Voltaire's own life what are the causes which make it difficult for Englishmen to form a fair estimate, either for good or bad, of a thinker whose character was more distinctly un-English than that of any literary man who has attained world-wide influence and renown.

"In Voltaire," writes Goethe, "nature produced a man most eminently endowed with all the qualities which characterize and honor his nation, and charged him to represent France to the universe." This dictum admirably sums up the nature of Voltaire's talents, but it also suggests the reflection that his genius was in a very singular way national rather than universal. You cannot read a line of Voltaire's without remembering that he was a Frenchman, and a Frenchman of the eighteenth century. And a great deal which is incomprehensible to Englishmen arises from the whole of Voltaire's taste and sentiment being essentially French. It is sometimes almost impossible for a modern English or American reader to believe that a light, scoffing, irreverent writer could have written with a real, serious purpose. Pope perhaps is, at his best, as light and witty as Voltaire; but Pope, though he struck sharp enough blows against literary incompetence, cannot be credited with a very serious purpose. Swift offends against our modern ideas of decency and reverence, but Swift's savage and morose humor, just because it is savage and morose, seems to Englishmen akin to earnestness. The feature in Voltaire's character which it is hard for us to understand is the combination of a light, scoffing, flippant mode of expression, thought, and feeling, with the most vehement earnestness in waging war on what he held to be oppression or prejudice.

To call Voltaire a "bad man" in the sense in which Rousseau might assuredly be called "bad," were it not for the doubt whether he was not to a certain extent mad, is an abuse of terms. But there is no denying that Voltaire's language and conduct often justified the severest reprobation. The committee of admirers who, on the centenary of his death, published a cheap collection of the most typical of his works, have given but very sparing extracts from the 'Pucelle,' and one may presume that there are few of Voltaire's admirers prepared to defend the tone and language of this poem or of many others of his writings which, like the 'Pucelle,' gave keen delight in Voltaire's day, not only to his disciples, but to the whole of good society in France. The whole of his relation, again, to Madame du Châtelet, though not morally more blameworthy than many connections between celebrated men and women which have escaped severe censure, is almost incomprehensible to modern students. How the Marquis, Madame, Voltaire, and finally Saint-Lambert, could live together on good terms, and how the Marquis, without being hopelessly disgraced, could accept before and after his wife's death pecuniary benefits from the poet, are problems which, if they can be answered at all, can be solved only by studying and realizing in one's imagination the moral or immoral condition of French society in Church and State during the reign of Louis XV. Nor are Voltaire's private irregularities the only blemishes in his character which rightly offend modern critics. His training under the Jesuits was, as has been constantly noted, not without its effect. He of set purpose turned their own arms against

the priesthood. To equivocate, to pretend, to lie, cost him nothing. He had imbibed from his generation and from his teachers the notion that to lie for what he considered a good end was, to say the least, a harmless act, and that a wise man, while warring with prejudice to the death, should never be such a fool as to let himself be made a martyr rather than apparently conform to the foolish and superstitious practices enjoined by men in power. Voltaire must, indeed, in fairness be acquitted of all hypocrisy. When he dedicated 'Mahomet' to the Pope; when he "communed," as Mr. Parton has it, at Ferney; when he "confessed his sins" on his death-bed, he assuredly neither deceived, nor meant to deceive, any one: in the first instance, he meant to obtain a patron; in the second, he apparently wished to throw derision on the ceremonies of the Church; and in the last, only aimed at securing a peaceable and decent burial, though why he should have cared so much to be buried in sacred ground is one of those matters which an Englishman and a Protestant finds it very hard to understand. The real and valid charge against Voltaire is not that he was a hypocrite, but that he fatally discouraged that system of open protest against all religious acts in which a man does not believe, which in the long run is the only effective mode of attacking falsehood or of establishing truth. Voltaire was not a Christian, but his Catholic education had completely guarded against his becoming in any sense a Protestant. The avenger of Calas never understood the principle which had kept Calas and his family from conforming to Catholicism.

Voltaire's own faults or vices have obscured the better side of his character and of his influence; his reputation has also suffered in the nineteenth century from two misconceptions for which he is not responsible. The follies, the errors, and the crimes of the Revolution have been charged by English writers to the *Philosophes*, and especially to their leader. Now in this matter, as regards Voltaire, at any rate, a double injustice is committed. The moral corruption of the *ancien régime* was no doubt, in a great measure, the source of the Revolutionary horrors, but the social maladies under which France labored existed when Voltaire was born, and were at least as much mitigated as aggravated by his teaching. The cruelties of the Reign of Terror were the direct fruit of the savage system of criminal law which had long disgraced France. It is ridiculous to attribute them to the man who had labored through life for the reform of criminal procedure and the abolition of torture. The speculative mistakes which contributed to grave practical errors were for the most part the mistakes, not of Voltaire, but of Rousseau. The absurd worship of nature is certainly not a doctrine to be learnt from the author of 'Candide,' or from the teacher who, from the very first, exposed and derided Rousseau's fallacies; the worship of "the people" was assuredly not a lesson taught by a man who lived on intimacy with monarchs, and looked for reform rather to the influence of an enlightened despot than to the efforts of democratic leaders. The contempt for political experience was not due to the teaching of the writer who first forced Frenchmen to turn their minds to the lessons to be learnt from the laws and the philosophy of England. Voltaire, further, was the consistent foe of war and violence. One of the misfortunes of France was that, politically, the theories of Voltaire did not obtain predominant influence. Neither Robespierre nor Napoleon was a disciple of the patriarch of Ferney.

The error which ascribes to Voltaire moral responsibility for the calamities of the Revolution is far less serious than the misunderstanding of the real nature of the contest which made up the serious business of his life. Whoever wishes to understand the scope of Voltaire's efforts should read with care Mr. Parton's excellent chapters on "*Écrasez l'Infâme*," "The Provocation," "The Calas Tragedy," and "Ferney a Refuge for the Oppressed."

"The *Infâme* which Voltaire had in his mind was religion claiming supernatural authority, and employing it to enforce the claim, the power, and resources of Government. It was religion with the Bastille and the rack at its command. It was religion owning two acres of every five in France—usually the best two—and able to expel from the other three the noblest Frenchmen who called in question its tenets. . . . It was religion killing religion, and making virtue itself contemptible by resting its claim on grounds untenable and ridiculous. It was religion wielding the whole mass of indolence, ignorance, and cowardice, and placing it, solid and entire, in the only path by which the human race could advance. It was the worst thing that ever was in the world. It was *l'Infâme*."

This passage, extracted with curtailment from Mr. Parton's book, expresses as nearly as can be expressed the spirit to which Voltaire was opposed. It cannot, of course, for a moment be concealed that he clearly believed that all religious dogmatism was likely to beget persecution; that he disbelieved and derided beliefs which all Christians respect, together with a host of beliefs which were in his time thought essential parts of Christianity, but which to-day are practically given up by men who would indignantly deny the charge of not being Christians. But the feeling which roused Voltaire to battle—a sentiment which clearly increased in intensity as his life advanced and as his character manifestly gained in weight and depth—was intense indignation at every form of theological persecution. To understand the vehemence of this ruling passion, one must remember that Voltaire was born within forty years of the close of the Thirty Years' War; that the revocation of the Edict of Nantes was at his time no distant event; that the insurrection in the Cevennes took place in his lifetime; that look where he would he saw traces of the misery brought on mankind by religious fervor or intolerance; and that, when an old man, he was roused to indignation as virtuous as it was just by some of the most outrageous acts of iniquity, inspired for the most part by theological prejudice, which the world has witnessed. The names of Calas, of Espinasse, of De la Barre, are each enough to recall the transactions which kindled his righteous indignation. It must, further, be remembered that he was a man to whom injustice of all kinds, even when absolutely unconnected with any theological question, as in the case of Lally-Tollendal, was absolutely hateful, and that he was one to whom no victim of oppression ever appealed in vain, and who never spared money, time, or labor in the effort to obtain justice for the oppressed. When all this is borne in mind, even the "Écrasez l'Infâme" has a very different effect from that which it generally produces on the feelings of Englishmen.

But he erred at any rate, it will be said, in supposing that religious intolerance was the peril of the day. In some degree this, no doubt, is true. Men's principles and sentiments are formed in youth, while no one can give effect to his principles till he has reached mature, it may be advanced, age. Hence it is the constant mistake of teachers, no less than of statesmen, to combat the dangers which are past while overlooking the perils of the present or the future. Few are the warriors of politics or literature who have not wasted their strength in slaying the slain. Some of Voltaire's friends thought that he too wasted the last efforts of his life in a war with ghosts. In one house where he called during his last visit to Paris, "the mistress reproached him for the obstinacy with which he continued to assail the Church and its beliefs. 'Be moderate and generous,' said she, 'after the *victory!* What can you fear at present from such adversaries? The fanatics are prostrate [*à terre*]; they can no longer injure; their reign is past.'" To these words, softly spoken by the lady, herself not long to live, he replied:

"'You are in error, madame; it is a fire that is covered, not extinguished. Those fanatics, those Tartuffes, are mad dogs. They are muzzled, but they have not lost their teeth. It is true, they bite no more; but on the first opportunity, if their teeth are not drawn, you will see if they will not bite!'"

Was Voltaire's judgment right? Most persons will answer in the negative; but there are one or two facts deserving consideration before one makes a decided reply. Louis XVI. was on the throne, and not yet under any fear of the Revolution. Yet at the moment when Voltaire spoke he was liable to be banished without trial from Paris, and his banishment was half threatened by the King. Voltaire died in the midst of such an ovation as has never been received before or since by any man of letters, yet his death remained for weeks a secret, because the Government forbade the publication of the fact. France was not yet under the rule of law; persecutors might at any moment have become supreme. In 1791 Voltaire's bones were publicly buried in the Pantheon. In May, 1814, the priesthood had such influence that the bones of Voltaire and of Rousseau were taken by night out of their coffins to a piece of waste ground and dropped into a pit filled with quicklime. This outrage on the feeling of the French nation—for it can be called nothing less—was carried out under the orders of the Government, and kept secret till 1864. No one after this will undertake to assert either that the spite or that the power of the priesthood in France is even yet at an end. Voltaire was at least right in believing that his foes would still bite if they could. Meanwhile every critic, of whatever school, who wishes to understand Voltaire, should make it his first study to understand the nature and power of that spirit of theological intolerance of which Voltaire was the untiring and, frequently enough, unscrupulous foe.

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

Edwin Forrest. By Lawrence Barrett. With Illustrations. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1881. Pp. 171. [American Actor Series.]

The World Behind the Scenes. By Percy Fitzgerald. London: Chatto & Windus; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1881. Pp. 320. [Wanderer's Library.]

Original Plays. By W. S. Gilbert. Second Series. London: Chatto & Windus; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1881. Pp. 338. [Mayfair Library.]

Recollections of an Equestrian Manager. By Charles W. Montague. Edinburgh and London: W. & R. Chambers. 1881. Pp. 108.

Cornebois. Par Edgar Monteil. Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern. 1881. Pp. 344.

In these days of brief biographies, it was high time that there should be a series of lives of eminent actors and actresses. In the English "Men of Letters," and in "Ancient" and "Foreign Classics for English Readers," the dramatists have had their full share of attention, and there are rival series of biographies of philosophers, of musicians, and of painters. It is not a little odd that we should have had to wait thus long for a series of histrionic biographies, especially when

we remember that from the 'Apology' of Colley Cibber to the 'Reminiscences' of Macready the autobiographies of actors have been among the most entertaining specimens of that always interesting department of literature. The "American Actor Series," of which the first volume has now made its appearance, is edited by Mr. Laurence Hutton, author of a pleasantly-written book on the 'Plays and Players' of New York. The series is to contain volumes on the Jeffersons and on the Wallacks, by Mr. William Winter; on the Booths, by Mrs. Asia Booth Clarke (who has already written a book about her father); on Charlotte Cushman, by Mrs. Clement; and on Mrs. Duff and her contemporaries, by Mr. Ireland. Other volumes are in preparation, including one on Charles Fechter, by Miss Kate Field. Fechter has no more right to be ranked as an American actor than George Frederick Cooke, who likewise came here to act for a while, and then to die here before his time; and he has surely less title to a place in this series than Thomas Abthorpe Cooper, the pupil of William Godwin, who, though an Englishman by birth, was the first of American actors, being criticised as an American when he returned to play a short engagement in London. It was on Cooper that Edwin Forrest at first founded his style, and one may doubt whether the pupil ever surpassed his early master. No book about Cooper is as yet announced in the present series, which begins with one about Forrest, written by Mr. Lawrence Barrett.

While nothing is more common than an actor's writing a book about himself, scarcely anything is less common than an actor's writing a book about another actor. Tom Davies, to be sure, wrote a life of David Garrick; but Davies was rather an author and publisher than an actor. Indeed, the only other precedent we can recall now is to be found in the collection of "Mémoires sur l'Art Dramatique," published in Paris fifty years ago. It was for this collection that Adolphe Thiers wrote an essay on the life of George Anne Bellamy, a notorious stage beauty of the last century, to precede a translation of the autobiography she had written or had had written for her. Now, in this same collection are the memoirs of Lekain, preceded by "Quelques Reflexions sur Lekain et sur l'Art Théâtral," by Talma, who was Lekain's successor as the chief tragic actor of the Comédie-Française; and even this essay of Talma's is more in the nature of a preface than a biographical sketch like Mr. Barrett's. The life of Forrest was already a twice-told tale; but Mr. Barrett's book is in many respects better than either of its predecessors. It is in every way superior to the rhapsodic eulogy of Mr. James Rees, and it is simpler and, on the whole, more satisfactory than the two ponderous tomes of the Rev. W. R. Alger. Perhaps the first impression one gets from it is that it is an honest performance. The author has a high opinion of Forrest's abilities, and not a low opinion of his character; but he supplies frankly and freely abundant material for the correction of his own judgment. In pages 130-139 Mr. Barrett quotes at length the diverging opinions of Forrest expressed at various times by Macready, Douglas Jerrold, H. F. Chorley, James E. Murdoch, Charles T. Congdon, Wm. B. Maclay, F. C. Wemyss (in his 'Theatrical Biography'), and H. P. Phelps (in his 'Players of a Century'). In narrating the incidents of Forrest's theatrical career, and in considering the awkward facts of the riot and the divorce, Mr. Barrett sets down nothing in malice, nor does he extenuate more than is any biographer's right. He treats the divorce with praiseworthy reserve, and in the account of the Astor Place riot there is no attempt to disguise Forrest's mistakes in taste, if in nothing else. It is to be regretted that the files of the *Examiner* were not searched to see exactly what basis there was for Forrest's accusation that John Forster, as a friend of Macready's, had attacked the American actor "even before" he "had appeared on the London boards, and continued to abuse" him "at every opportunity afterwards" (p. 69).

Altogether, this recital is interesting and very instructive, particularly in regard to the progress in civilization made in these States since Forrest first came on the stage. Indeed, we doubt whether a career like his is now possible, and we are sure that a character like his would now have a wholly different discipline and development. Mr. Barrett's inexperience as a writer is to be detected occasionally, but the main story is, with here and there a little misplaced rhetoric, told in a straightforward and manly fashion. There is an ample and admirable index of nearly thirteen pages, and there are seven illustrations, consisting of portraits of Forrest at twenty-one, at forty-five, and at sixty-five respectively, and of Mrs. Forrest, a view of Fonthill, and fac-similes of a letter and of a London play-bill. The book worthily begins the series.

Mr. Percy Fitzgerald is an industrious compiler, to whom we owe eight or nine volumes about the drama, including a discreditable 'Romance of the English Stage' and an inadequate 'Life of David Garrick.' The latest, cited above, is a queer hodge-podge. Although the author does not inform us, most of the matter has already appeared in various periodicals. We recognize, for instance, parts of a series of papers published in the *Art Journal* on the arrangement of theatres, and others published elsewhere on stage-mechanism and illusions, and on the Charles Mathews pictures now owned by the Garrick Club. The nominal classification into five parts is of little or no assistance, as any one can see by considering the table of contents: I. Stage Illusions—Mechanism; II. Spectacles, Féeries, etc.; III. The Actors: their Lives, Tastes, and Accomplishments; IV. Theatres: the Grand Opera at Paris and other Houses; V. Authors. This last division, comically enough, consists of twenty-two pages on the plays written by Charles Dickens or adapted from his novels, two and a half pages on dramatic criticism in London, and a list of English adaptations from the French, so full of errors of omission and commission as to be almost valueless. It is introduced by a remark that at this moment the English stage is virtually subsisting on the French, the fact being that there is more original work done now on the English stage than at any time during the past thirty years. "What a contrast this," exclaims Mr. Fitzgerald, "to the old days of exuberant native production, when Dibdin, dying so lately as 1841, was stated to be the author of two hundred pieces, and Mr. Planché of over one hundred." From this we may fairly infer that Mr. Fitzgerald does not know that nearly all Dibdin's pieces were adaptations either from English novels or from French and German plays. As for Planché's hundred plays, we question if a score of them were original in any exact sense of the word.

As though to bear witness against Mr. Fitzgerald, the most popular of English dramatists has put forth a second volume of original plays. It contains "Broken Hearts," a somewhat slight fairy comedy in blank verse not unlike the "Wicked World" in the preceding series; "Engaged," "Sweethearts," and "Dan'l Druce," all familiar to our playgoers; "Gretchen," a reworking of the Faust legend, with omission of the poetry; "Tom Cobb," a burlesque comedy of the "Engaged" type; and three operettas, "The Sorcerer," "H. M. S. Pinafore," and "The Pirates of Penzance." All these nine plays, including comedy, farce, drama, and comic opera, have been acted, more than half of them with great success; and all are original save the obligation of "Gretchen" to Goethe, and the equally acknowledged borrowing of an incident in "Dan'l Druce" from "Silas Marner." To our mind, "Sweethearts" easily holds the first place among these various attempts, and we should not be at all surprised if it should prove to be the one English play written in the last decade destined to survive the century.

Books about the circus are rare. When one notes Frost's 'Circus Life and Circus Celebrities,' just reprinted in the "Wanderer's Library," and the life of old Astley, and Dickens's 'Hard Times,' and Goncourt's 'Frères Zemganno,' and one of Albert Smith's novels, one has well nigh exhausted the list. Mr. Montague's 'Recollections' have already appeared, if we mistake not, in *Chambers's Journal*. They contain not a few amusing anecdotes of circus life in England—a very different thing from circus life here in America, where the national fondness for a "big thing" has delighted in expanding the legitimate show. The book is written in an easy and unpretending manner.

To those who know anything of French theatrical life, and desire to know more, M. Monteil's 'Cornebois' can be recommended. It is an amusing book in itself—a little boisterous at times, not to say coarse; and it gives a truthful picture of the French actor, as he fights his way through the Conservatory to the Théâtre Français. It may be as well to say that it is not intended for young ladies, although it is not tainted with the "naturalism" now prevalent in French fiction.

The Wandering Jew. By M. D. Conway. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1881. Pp. 292.

It seems to have been quite as hard for mankind before clear notions of a future life had arisen, or science had assumed the persistence of force, to conceive of an absolute beginning or end of life as it is now for us. The gradual unfolding of living organisms, and now Evolution, help us out in the attempt to comprehend origins; but the abrupt, absolute fact of death, especially of friends or heroes, is essentially inconceivable. The instinctive belief was first, according to Mr. Conway, in an earthly immortality, and found expression in the myths of sleep prolonged perhaps for generations, of transmigration, of trance, of secret removal to distant lands (like the stars above), of prolonged pilgrimage, or of the great age ascribed to Antediluvian patriarchs. From these grew the earlier forms of belief in the life after death, while the numbers for whom immortality was claimed grew, and paradise necessarily ascended to an aerial realm. Survivals of this primitive stage, perhaps of widely different ethnic origin, abound and illustrate what is more fully expressed in the legend of the Wandering Jew. Myths as diverse as The Wild Huntsman, King Arthur, Rip van Winkle, Teiresias, Yima, as well as the stories of Cain, Seth, Enoch, the transfigured Elias, John who was to "tarry" till Christ came again, and probably even Shylock and Punch and Judy, and countless others, "exchanged connotations" with the tale of Ahasuerus, until the latter gradually became a popular type of the fate of the Jewish race, and after its dispersion the Eternal Jew became the Wandering Jew. Nearly a score of writers in Germany alone have given the theme a more or less detailed literary treatment, and it seems to have been one of the most popular "mythic forms" in the folk-lore of all times and countries. Ahasuerus is repre-

sented now as vainly seeking every conceivable form of death, now as a philosophizing pessimist, now as a penitent whose pardon had been long delayed, but came at last. Now he symbolizes humanity unconsciously opposing itself to God, but doomed to endure till submission to Christ is complete; again, he is immortal man, in whose unbroken consciousness all history is embodied, a conception expressed in such phrases as "Ancient of Days," "Son of Man," etc. Mosen's poem represents the wanderer as a hero of humanity, warring against Christ at the head of Mohammed's troops; Köhler's Jew is a prophet of freedom; Klingemann finds purification by suffering to be the lesson taught; Anderson preaches the restlessness of doubt and unbelief; Heller puts the hero through many phases of Hegel's phenomenology: the intellectual world ever decays, consumed by doubt, and the heart ever brings it forth anew. Quinet, we are told, wrote his Ahasuerus on foot, on horseback, in the gondola, at sea, etc., as he was travelling in despairing search after a lost faith, typifying his hero, as he thought, and using motives from Faust. Eugene Sue's Jew is the workingman sentenced to drudgery, and finding at last relief. But it is Shelley's Ahasuerus, the author tells us, who is dignified beyond all others, because he defies the divine tyrant with true Promethean vigor. Although the Jew had "arisen as a spiritual type before nearly every fine mind living at the beginning of the last generation," only Shelley made a real hero of the Wanderer for his scorn and defiance of the Christian deity.

Mr. Conway prefers to regard the hero of all these tales as a type of the Jewish race, and in the last chapters enlarges on the German persecutions, although, it must be said, in a rather incoherent way. He divides the blame with great impartiality between Christian and Jew. These persecutions are denounced as unreasonable bigotry, but it is urged that the Christian has learned his intolerance from the Jew. The Hebrews of the Old Testament slew the Canaanites and Baalites, imagining themselves the "chosen" people, and their laws and institutions divinely revealed. In persecuting the Jews, Christians are only practising what is taught them by Jewish precept and example. The great error, however, is that the Jews insist upon keeping their "small provinces of moulded faith," "seek strength and happiness in isolation, and are withheld by their traditional system and dogmas from co-operation with mankind in its nobler aims and tendencies. So long as they are marked off in the human world in this way they will not find rest." Their religion is more narrowing than Christianity only because it is intensified by racial instincts and prejudices.

Here, but for what is implied in this latter clause, we must dissent from the author. Indeed, it seems doubtful if the religious question is now in any way involved in the German issue. The question there, however, does seem to be becoming central whether the Jews are as public-spirited, as ready to coöperate in mankind's nobler and more unselfish aims and tendencies, as others; or whether, on the other hand, they are materializing, or, in Du Bois-Reymond's intolerable phrase, "Americanizing" German society and life. This is a fair question respecting any class of citizens, provided it could be raised without degenerating into vulgar passions of race or creed. It is significant that Dr. Felix Adler, whose radicalism is as obnoxious to the orthodox Jew as is Mr. Conway's to the orthodox Christian, has condemned the *auri sacra fames* as very few clergymen in any Christian denomination would have the courage to do. Whether this argues more fearlessness on his part or more occasion, we will not even conjecture.

Sir John Franklin. By A. H. Beesly. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1881. Sm. 8vo, pp. 238, with three maps. [New Plutarch Series.]

THE "New Plutarch" includes among its heroes one which to the old Plutarch was unknown. That species of heroism which impels its possessor to visit sterile and inhospitable climes, to endure hardship and privation without murmuring, and, once escaped thence, to volunteer again—all in order that the sum of human knowledge may be slightly increased without benefit to the explorer—such heroism is the product of the higher civilization. No one more worthy to typify it could have been chosen than the subject of this memoir. The literary work has been neatly done. The language is clear and sufficiently sympathetic without gushing; the compiler seems to know the art of letting a story tell itself. A trained hand is shown in small details: thus, it is pleasant to see the name of Bering spelled as Bering was wont to spell it. We have noticed no errors in names; there are not too many references to authorities, and the writer does not linger long in theorizing over uncertain matters, such as the secrets of that last fatal march of Crozier's party. There is a good index, the maps are fair, and the only serious omission we note is the absence of a portrait.

Few, indeed, have not some idea of Franklin's Arctic services, of his terrible journey on the Coppermine River, and of his last voyage, his death, and the melancholy fate of his associates. But even among those who have a good knowledge of his Arctic work we think there are many who will be surprised to be reminded that his first explorations were on the coast of Australia, that he fought with Nelson at Trafalgar, and was wounded at the attack on New Orleans, where he earned his promotion to a first lieutenancy. Perhaps few will remember that in the interval between his second and his last expeditions he was the choice of Arnold of Rugby for the Governorship of Van Diemen's Land, then a penal colony. This post was accepted by Franklin in 1836, and its difficult duties were performed with sagacity and zeal. So far in advance of his time were his reforms that the gradually enlarging number of his opponents came, at last, to include his official superiors, and the opposition culminated in his recall in 1844. During these years his services, together with those of his devoted wife, had been inestimable to the people and institutions of the colony. Besides social and legal reforms, many of which ripened only after his departure, he instituted an unsectarian college, a scientific society, a museum of natural history, and a magnetic observatory. On his departure he walked to the pier attended by an immense assembly, at whose head were the Bishop of Tasmania and the new Colonial Secretary, and which included representatives from every part of the island. These joined in blessings and acclamations. Nine years afterwards the Tasmanians showed that time had not weakened their sense of his worth by sending as their contribution to the search fund of Lady Franklin the sum of £1,700.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Flower, Prof. W. H. Fashion in Deformity. New York: Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Fragoletta: a Tale. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 25.
Franklin, Rev. B. The Creed and Modern Thought. New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co.
Gibson, W. H. Camp Life in the Woods. New York: Harper & Bros.
Johnston, H. P. The Yorktown Campaign. New York: Harper & Bros.
Keeler, B. C. Short History of the Bible. Chicago: Century Publishing Co.
Lasar, S. English Anthems. New York: Biglow & Main.
Martin, Prof. H. N., and Moale, Dr. W. A. Handbook of Vertebrate Dissection. Part I. New York: Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Mémoires Inédits de Lamartine. New York: F. W. Christern.

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HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

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HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

Putzger's One Dollar Atlas

Of Ancient, Mediæval, and Modern History. 76 maps, etc., in colors. Leipzig, 1881.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 20, 1881.

The Week.

No progress, or next to none, has been made in finding out what President Arthur's "policy" is to be. It appears to be tolerably certain that he will provide himself with a brand-new Cabinet between now and the meeting of Congress, partly because the members of the old Cabinet will not remain, and partly because he naturally wishes to have a Cabinet of his own choosing. But whether the new Cabinet will be Stalwart or Anti-Stalwart is something on which the newspapers have made no approach to agreement. The prevailing opinion seems to be that it will be Stalwart, or in other words will be composed of persons who admire General Grant in politics as well as in war, and think Mr. Conkling a very great man, in spite of all that his enemies say about him. If Stalwart, too, of course there will be no "civil-service reform nonsense" about it. On the other hand, many believe that President Arthur will perform the great feat of both satisfying General Grant and Mr. Conkling and reforming the civil service. At all events, he appears to be expected "to do something for the reformers"—that is, set off one department in which they can try their experiments without damage to the saner portion of the body politic—a sort of padded room like that kept at asylums for violent cases. This is all speculation, however. What is certain is that thus far the President has walked with much care in his predecessor's footsteps. He has sent in all President Garfield's nominations; and though expressing his willingness to consult Senators about appointments, as indeed General Garfield did, is taking pains to "put none but good men in office." The only really bad sign of the times—although the Administration may not be responsible for it—is the reappearance of assessments on the clerks in the Custom-House and Post-Office by the Republican Committee, on account, the circular says, of that exceedingly usual thing, the "unusual importance of the approaching election."

The President has done a strikingly good and encouraging thing in asking for Mr. Tyner's resignation as Assistant Postmaster-General. If it be true that Mr. Tyner found out the Star-route abuses two years ago himself in a trip he made, and that he made a report on the subject, of which his superior took no notice, and of which he himself subsequently took no notice either when he became Acting Postmaster-General for a considerable period, his responsibility is plain. In fact, the way in which the whole matter was kept quiet was very singular, and especially the silence on the subject of the Democrats in the last campaign, although their members of Congress had had Brady many times before them pleading for "expedition" in the mails, and ought to have known as much about it as anybody else. President Arthur's action towards Tyner is the more creditable because Tyner is a "Stalwart of the Stalwarts," and, according to the commonly accepted view of Stalwart morality, ought to be pardoned a multitude of sins, in consideration of his soundness on the main question—though what the Stalwart main question is, few, if any, outside the inmost circle know.

It was supposed at first that the publication of Mr. Blaine's letter accepting President Garfield's offer of the Secretaryship of State, in somewhat effusive language, indicated that Mr. Blaine was preparing the way to stay in the Cabinet without disrespect to President Garfield's memory, or was preparing in a general way for his candidacy in 1884, by showing how close and cordial his relations with the deceased President were. These theories, however, seem to be set at rest by a positive announcement that the letter was printed without Mr. Blaine's knowledge or consent. One of the rumored arrangements was that he was to be sent to England in Mr. Lowell's place, and the difficulty of disposing of Mr. Lowell was met by making him Secretary of State. The same authority has assigned to General Grant complete control of all consulships, missions, and agencies west of the meridian of Washington, while Mr. Conkling is to have the privilege of running around "behind the throne," and preparing what the Irish call "all sorts of divilmint."

The preparations for Guiteau's trial, which have got as far as making him plead to the indictment, have revealed the fact that his counsel, who is also his brother-in-law, meant to fortify the plea of insanity by the plea that the late President's wound was not in itself mortal, but was made so by malpractice, and in support of this, if he could get money from the Government for the expense, to summon the various doctors who did not approve of the treatment from a distance. He has since announced, however, that he will not raise this point. There appears to be a little more willingness in the public mind than there has been to admit Guiteau's insanity, but we are constantly forgetting that insanity does not always prevent knowledge of consequences and fear of consequences. In other words, if an insane man fears punishment, it is a tolerably good sign that it ought to be inflicted, as it may be a warning to other insane men in the same stage of lunacy. Apropos of the character of the wound, one of the Methodist ministers has accounted for the inefficacy of the prayers offered up for President Garfield's recovery, by the assertion that the wound was "in its nature mortal," or in other words, apparently, that the consequences of certain wounds are settled by a Fate which no power can overrule.

Mr. Scoville has asked for the professional assistance of General Butler, who refuses, on the ground of other professional engagements, in a very edifying letter, in which he sets forth the undoubtedly sound view that no lawyer is at liberty to refuse to defend a criminal through horror of his crime, or because of the odium which surrounds him in the public eye. A member of the bar is not only a man who follows the trade of an advocate for hire, but also an officer of the court, and it is part and a very important part of his business to see that cases are properly tried—that is, that the prisoner's rights under the law are asserted. Rules of evidence and procedure are intended, though some people seem to forget it, for the benefit of the bad as well as for that of the good, and we are all as much interested in having Guiteau fairly tried as in having him tried at all. If it should be established that he is insane to a degree which destroys moral responsibility, he is as much entitled to the benefit of the rule of our criminal jurisprudence which makes such persons exempt from punishment as any other person. His having killed the President does not modify this rule, though it may show that we should diminish the temptations which our civil service now holds out to lunatics.

Some of our contemporaries are inclined to discredit the statement made by Mr. Dudley, Commissioner of Pensions, that while there are corrupt combinations formed for the purpose of robbing the Government by means of fraudulent pension claims, he has entire confidence in the fidelity and trustworthiness of the clerks in the Pension Office. It is argued that a pension claim has to go through many hands before it passes, and that therefore the co-operation of many persons in the Government offices, or a "ring" among the clerks, is required to secure the passage of a fraudulent one. This is by no means true. As we observed recently, pension claims, under existing law, are adjudicated on ex-parte testimony. When a pension claim comes into the office and all the legal requirements in the way of affidavits as evidence are strictly complied with, it will be examined and granted in good faith on the ground of the evidence furnished, and yet every one of the affidavits which on their faces have such an honest look may be false. The fraudulent claim may pass while every man in the Pension Office does his duty in the most conscientious manner, the corrupt combination to rob the Government consisting entirely of outsiders who get up the false affidavits. Sometimes frauds of the most barefaced character are discovered by mere accident. We remember hearing of the case of a man who, upon the affidavits furnished, had been awarded a pension for total blindness, and who was accidentally discovered by some one connected with the Government hunting in the fields, and upon further inquiry was found to work as a proof-reader in a newspaper office. Yet his claim as it appeared on the records was perfect. Accidental discovery was made of a man in New England who had for years been personating ten or a dozen soldiers' widows in whose names he had made applications for pensions, furnishing the necessary affidavits in perfect order, although every one of them was forged, and then regularly

drawing pensions for them. It was the regular business he lived on. He was sent to the penitentiary. Several cases of this kind have come to light. There are undoubtedly a great many more that have not been discovered and, unless some lucky accident intervenes, never will be discovered until the ex-parte system of evidence is supplanted by other and better methods. Such methods have for years been urgently recommended to the attention of Congress, but in vain.

It is amusing to observe the sudden change of tone in the organs of both parties with regard to Senator David Davis. It was a standing joke in Republican papers to represent the somewhat bulky Senator from Illinois perched on a fence, not knowing which way to dismount, but dismounting in most cases, when he could make up his mind to it, on the Democratic side. The wit discharged at him seemed frequently designed to produce contempt. But now, since Mr. Davis has permitted himself to be elected President of the Senate by Republican votes, good points are discovered in him in wonderful number, and we may soon hear that, although not always understood, he was a statesman of remarkable sagacity all the time. On the other hand, our Democratic contemporary the *World*, after having spoken of Mr. Davis with great respect as long as he voted on the Democratic side, has now found him out to be "a man who, chosen to the Senate by Democratic votes, has become an open trader upon the capital of the position thus acquired." Nobody knows what depth of depravity he may still be destined to reach, but the *World* grows quite indignant over it beforehand.

General Mahone has published a letter excusing himself for not fighting General Jubal Early, because the latter is unworthy of his recognition in any other character than that of a distinguished Confederate general; and even this is not sufficient to warrant a hostile meeting. He says nothing about duelling being a silly business, or about its inefficiency as a means of refutation. He evidently does not consider Virginian opinion as prepared for this view of the practice. It would be a good thing if some of these fighting Southern politicians would in some manner demonstrate the utility of duelling. It clearly does not stop calling names and bringing charges; nor does it disprove the charges; nor does it establish a man's character for courage, for a man's having fought one duel does not exempt him from the necessity of having to fight others. In fact, it is probably the most absurd of all the survivals of barbarism, almost as absurd as the Zulu belief that when you kill an enemy you must rip him open to prevent yourself from being bewitched.

There are not many Englishmen who had a larger circle of loving and admiring American friends than the late Dean Stanley. An effort is being made in England to convert a training school and home for hospital nurses founded by his wife into a memorial both of her and of him by putting it on a permanent footing, and erecting for it a suitable building which shall serve as a monument of the founders—for the Dean shared Lady Augusta's interest in it. Those among us who would like to join in this most appropriate tribute to their memory can do so by addressing the Rev. Phillips Brooks in Boston.

A large meeting was held Sunday night at Steinway Hall by the Land League of this city to receive Mr. T. P. O'Connor and Dr. Egan. Mr. O'Connor made a speech in which he stated that Ireland was in a state of siege, that the authority of the English Government was merely sustained by the troops, that the real Government was the Land League; and predicted that the struggle would not end until the landlords were driven from the country and Ireland were free "from the centre to the sea" from landlordism and a foreign garrison. Mr. Ecclesine moved a resolution which, considering its source, may be set down as very moderate in tone, calling for a petition to the Government of this country asking its "prompt international mediation" in behalf of "our suffering countrymen now deprived of all the guarantees of constitutional government and exposed to the brutal and irresponsible despotism of military rulers." Unfortunately he did not explain what sort of mediation he meant, and it is difficult to imagine a case where mediation is less likely to be undertaken, or would prove a more useless and thankless task.

During the week $1,808,900 foreign gold arrived here, making $19,501,722 received since August 1, against $34,901,015 in the corresponding time last year. The Treasury, during the week covered by the bank statement, paid out more money than it took in. The New York banks contracted their credits $7,775,000 during the week, and their deposit liabilities were so reduced that the reserve was increased $810,000, or to within $2,522,000 of 25 per cent. of their liabilities. The Treasury continued its weekly purchases of $2,000,000 of 3½ per cents, and in addition redeemed at Washington $5,600,000 of these bonds, so that during the current week covered by the next weekly bank statement the sum of $7,600,000 in money will be received by the banks from the Treasury. The prospect of so much money lowered the rates for call loans to 4 to 6 per cent. but did not reduce those for time loans. At the close of the week the rates for foreign exchange advanced above the point at which gold can be imported, owing to the scarcity of commercial bills, and to the settlement of 60-day credits about maturing. General trade continues active, and the tonnage of the principal railroads is larger than last year. There is, however, yet no sign of a settlement of the railroad war. At the Stock Exchange United States bonds advanced ¼@¼, railroad bonds 1@9¾ per cent., and speculative stocks 1@10 per cent., or, including the stock of the Manhattan Elevated, 16⅝ per cent. The latter advanced because of a readjustment of the relations between the three companies interested in the elevated railways of this city. The price of silver was about steady in London at 51⅞@51 13-16d. per ounce. The bullion value here at the close of the 412½-grain silver dollar was $0.8681.

Judge Jameson's charge to the Grand Jury at Chicago on the subject of "corners" in the grain market may be good in law—reference being had to a specific statute of the State of Illinois, which makes "cornering" a misdemeanor and imposes a trifling penalty for it—but is open to criticism in the forum of morals as well as of trade. "The thing which we know as a corner in the market," says the Judge, "may be briefly described as a process of driving unsuspecting dealers in grain, stock, and the like into a corral and relieving them of their purses. The essence of the offence consists in the party securing a contract for the future delivery of some commodity at his option, and then, by engrossing the stock of such commodity in the market, making it impossible for the other party to complete his contract except by purchasing of his adversary at his own price, or paying in cash the difference fixed by such adversary. As was said of another great wrong, if this is not wrong then nothing is wrong." This sweeping characterization assumes that the party contracting to deliver the commodity at a future time is under age, or *non compos mentis*, or in some way entitled to peculiar protection at the hands of lawmakers and judges. Complaining to the courts when one has sold property which he does not possess is denominated, in street parlance, "pleading the baby act." The infants over whom Judge Jameson proposes to throw his ample shield are, in ninety-nine cases out of one hundred, gamblers in the same sense that the cornerers are. They are the "bears" of the market, and if their operations tend to make bread cheap for the consumers, they tend to prevent farmers from getting the highest price which a free market would afford. To compare a transitory corner in the grain market to the institution of slavery, is one of those gross exaggerations which do not greatly surprise us in the newspaper press or on the stump, but which are very much out of place in the deliverances of the judicial bench.

Governor Pillsbury of Minnesota has urged the Legislature to re-enact, with such modification as the judgment of the Supreme Court may have made necessary, the bill in relation to the payment of the State railroad bonds. This bill is in substance an acceptance of the offer of Mr. Chamberlain, who owns the greater part of the bonds, to take half of the amount due. Governor Pillsbury is impatient for the Legislature to close with this proposal, because unless they do so "they will be confronted with the cold choice between total payment and naked repudiation." This is a shabby attitude for the Governor of a great State towards a question of common honesty. Between "total payment" of a debt and "naked repudiation" of the whole amount, or disguised repudiation in the form of the acceptance of a forced offer to take half or go without anything, honorable men and honorable States will find no room for a "cold" or any other kind of choice. Minnesota is abundantly able to pay the whole debt, and if she fails to pay it or compromises on a swindle of fifty per cent., she will be disgraced before the world.

The British Ministry, after a Cabinet con-

sultation, has taken the extreme and doubtless wholly unexpected step of arresting Mr. Parnell for instigating to intimidation and violence and the breach of lawful contracts. This determination has probably been brought about by numerous proofs that Parnell's popularity was increasing; and no one who knows Ireland doubts that the increase is largely due to the belief, which he has taken pains to spread, that the Government is afraid of him. Mr. Dillon, who is generally recognized as one of the sincerest and most disinterested of the Land Leaguers, announced after the passage of the Land Act his intention to retire from public life for a time at least, owing to his fear that the Act would destroy popular interest in political agitation. Parnell's success as an opponent of the Act has, however, caused him to change his mind, and he has formally and publicly recanted, and says he is about to go back into his old business. Intimidation and outrages, too, are on the increase, and Parnell has been making semi-royal progresses through the country. In other words, he has evidently succeeded in persuading a large part of the population that if they keep up a little longer the game which won the Land Act, they will get far more than the Land Act, perhaps even that total abolition of "landlordism," or in other words that confiscation of the fee of the land, which he has long announced as the goal of his striving.

The approval of Parnell's arrest by the best portion of the French press as the only course open to the English Government, surely ought to set the Land Leaguers both in this country and elsewhere to thinking a little more seriously about their work than they have yet done. On the land question in Ireland, the most reflective and liberal-minded and best-informed men of all civilized countries sympathize with the tenants, and sympathize with the efforts which have been made in the direction of giving them greater freedom and independence. But it is equally true that the organization which conducts the agitation on the tenants' behalf has now no friends of character or weight in any civilized country. In fact, what is called the public opinion of every civilized country may be said to be dead against them. It is not possible for the Parnells, Healys, Sextons, Fords, and Rossas to find friends in any part of the civilized world outside of the circle of their own countrymen. They are frowned upon and repudiated as much in republican America and France as in monarchical Germany and Italy.

This is an almost unprecedented state of things. The Leaguers are, we believe, the first unmistakably oppressed and long-suffering people who have managed by their conduct to alienate mankind, or all that portion of mankind which knows anything about them. Now, in the presence of these facts, one would expect the confidence of the most enthusiastic Land Leaguers in the policy of the leaders to be somewhat shaken. It cannot be that what all civilized countries consider odious and ridiculous is, when practised by Irishmen, respectable and appropriate. The French Republicans used in old times to be the warmest friends of Irish Nationalists. The cause of Ireland, too, from the Revolution down to 1848, excited more or less enthusiasm in this country, and procured a warm welcome during fully half a century for its apostles and martyrs. This is now all changed. An Irish patriot of the Parnell stamp has really not much more "show" in the United States than he would have in Prussia. Nobody takes to him except the half-crazy speculators who would like to abolish property and cut off one hundred thousand heads. None of the class which in every country carries on the work of civilization—the class which labors, saves, foresees, and makes and executes the laws—cares to have much to do with him, any more than with an escaped lunatic. They even refuse to believe the undoubtedly true stories of the wrongs of his country, and are now gradually beginning to doubt whether Ireland ever had any just ground of complaint at all.

The crisis in Ireland seems to be taking the usual course. There is considerable concentration of troops in Dublin, and Mr. Forster is provided with a military escort, and the guards around Kilmainham jail, where Parnell is confined, are doubled. The Land League is also doubling the fury of its proclamations and threats and the solemnity of its exhortations, but there is no likelihood that anything more serious than this will occur, and things as serious as this have occurred in Ireland a score of times before. Much more significant and important is Mr. Gladstone's speech at Guildhall, where he went to receive a non-partisan address, and where his reception was most enthusiastic. His mention of Parnell's arrest called forth uproarious cheering. He said that he "would rejoice at the adoption of any form of local government for Ireland which did not impair the supremacy of the Imperial Government." It is to be hoped that if he would rejoice at anything of this kind, enough of years and strength are left him to enable him to create this form of local government, and that whatever he does he will do speedily. The only way out of the Irish difficulty is to put on Irishmen the responsibility of governing the island. Its government by an English dictator of Quaker origin, surrounded in Dublin by a military guard, and arresting people on his own warrants, is a spectacle of which Englishmen ought to be ashamed, and of which Mr Gladstone must see the absurdity. The Cabinet are said to have been unanimous in ordering Parnell's arrest, which shows that even Mr. Chamberlain recognizes the impossibility for any Government which means to govern, of allowing itself to be insulted and defied by a man like Parnell. But as things now are, the Irish express their detestation of Forster by obeying Parnell. In fact, without Mr. Forster, Parnell would probably collapse.

The Land League has launched its last bolt in the shape of a proclamation calling on the farmers "to pay no rents until the Government relinquishes the existing system and restores the constitutional rights of the people." This is a vague phrase, but it probably means that they are to pay no rents until the Coercion Act is repealed, or until the persons imprisoned under it have been released. There is no doubt that if the farmers chose to organize and carry out a general strike against rent, it would be impossible for the Government to meet it or put it down by any force at its command. The only adequate remedy would be eviction on a scale too large for any Government to attempt. Of the legitimacy of such a strike we do not need to say much. It would simply be an immense private swindle under the guise of political revolt. It would be robbery of thousands who are no more responsible for the Coercion Act than for Mr. Gladstone's last budget, and as such would give an immense stimulus to the immorality which always crops out in times of political disorder. The nearest recent approach to it is the refusal of the Southern retailers to pay their debts to Northern creditors when the war broke out, though this had the sanction, we believe, of belligerent usage. The move is, however, a dangerous one for the League, because if it fails—that is, if the strike is not resorted to or only reaches manageable proportions—the game will clearly be up, and the leaders will come out of jail to meet a much disenchanted people.

Nothing could give a better idea of the nature of Turkish rule than the fact that, in the provinces lately ceded to Greece, the bands of brigands which had been desolating them had to enter into negotiations with the Greek Government like lawful belligerents. On finding they could not make terms, a portion of them retired with the Turks, and others laid down their arms, and are shut up at Pharsala, like prisoners of war, waiting for the meeting of the Chambers to decide on their fate. Niko, a famous brigand, who recently carried off an Englishman engaged in farming near Salonica, and extorted a large ransom from him and the British Government, went on what is called an "extended European tour" with the proceeds. After visiting the different capitals, he came to Athens, and was there about to engage in some kind of mercantile business when he was recognized and arrested. He is said to feel that his case is a very hard one. He had retired from brigandage, and was going to invest capital in some honest industry when the police came down on him.

The Pope took the opportunity afforded by the presence of the Italian pilgrims in Rome on Monday to make another pathetic statement with regard to his "captivity." He says that he has the alternative before him of continued imprisonment, daily growing harder and harder, or of exile. He insists that he is no longer secure in his palace, and that he is subjected to outrageous indignities in a thousand ways. The earnestness of the Pope is said to have made a profound impression on his audience, and as he closed his address he raised his arms to Heaven, as though imploring help. The Roman mob, however, was very differently affected by the speech, and pelted the pilgrims vigorously as they were going away, shouting, "Down with the Vatican."

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

On Thursday the Senate elected Senator David Davis of Illinois President *pro tem.* Senator Logan offered the resolution, and it was adopted by 36 yeas to 34 nays. Senators Bayard and Davis did not vote. In executive session the Senate confirmed the nomination of Hannibal Hamlin of Maine for Minister to Spain.

The Democratic Senators met in caucus on Monday to discuss the question of the Secretaryship of the Senate. There was barely a quorum, and the caucus adjourned without taking any action.

The Ohio and Iowa State elections took place on Wednesday. The Republicans carried both States by large majorities. Governor Foster's plurality in Ohio is estimated to be in the neighborhood of 20,000. The "scratching" of both the State and local tickets is reported to have been almost unparalleled. In Iowa, Sherman was elected Governor by about 40,000 majority.

The Virginia political campaign is an exceedingly lively one. "Scurrilous attacks" upon prominent politicians abound in the newspapers, and duels are becoming very frequent. On Saturday a "hostile meeting" took place between Captain H. H. Riddleberger and G. D. Wise. It was bloodless, however, and after four rounds had been fired "mutual explanations and an amicable adjustment followed." On the same day Senator Mahone was arrested in Washington on the charge that he was going to fight a duel with General Jubal A. Early. Mr. Mahone denied, however, that he had any such intention, and was released on his personal bond.

There has been much trouble over the "Blair letters" in Virginia — two letters, namely, which were said to have been written by Frank S. Blair, the Readjuster candidate for Attorney-General. These letters contained sentiments which would damage Blair in the campaign, and were used to show his contempt for negroes. Blair has from the first denied the authorship of the letters. Wilson, the man who originally produced them, is said to have come out in the Richmond *Whig* with a card in which he confesses the letters to be a forgery. The Richmond *Whig*, however, is a Readjuster organ, and the air of Virginia is so thick with accusations of lying and forging, that it is extremely difficult for an outsider to make out who is "lying" and "forging," and who is telling the truth.

The New York State Democratic Convention met at Albany on Tuesday, October 11, and completed the session on Wednesday. Three different organizations sent contesting delegations from New York county, namely, Tammany Hall, Irving Hall, and the County Democracy. The Committee on Contested Seats adjudged the representatives of the County Democracy entitled to seats. This defeat of Tammany and Irving Halls was the only incident of any importance in the organization of the Convention. The Hon. Erastus Brooks was made permanent chairman of the Convention. The platform "again declares" the fidelity of the Democratic party of New York to the "principles set forth by the State Democratic Conventions of 1875 and 1876"; denounces in strong language the Republican party in general and the Republican majority in the State Legislature in particular; renews the "demand for the refunding of the national debt at the lowest possible rate of interest," and declares that "the New York Democracy, as always, stand by gold and silver as the legal-tender of the Constitution." It further demands a "thorough and immediate investigation into the Star-route and other frauds upon the Federal Treasury," a reformed civil service, and the supervision of "chartered monopolies" by commissioners established by public authority. The platform concludes by denouncing centralization, and challenging a comparison of the record of the Democracy of New York with that "furnished by the factions which were once the Republican party of this State." The following officers were nominated: Secretary of State, William Purcell; Comptroller, George H. Lapham; Attorney-General, Roswell A. Parmenter; State Treasurer, Robert A. Maxwell; State Engineer, Thomas Evershed; Judge of the Court of Appeals, Augustus Schoonmaker.

The Nebraska Democrats met in Convention on Thursday and nominated a Supreme Court Judge and two Regents for the State University. The platform declares for Free Trade, honest money, and an economical administration, and against a high-license liquor law.

Governor Pillsbury of Minnesota has sent a message to the State Legislature entreating it to provide for the payment of the State bonds. He says in his message that unless something be done at once the State will be "confronted with the cold choice between total payment and naked repudiation," and recommends the reënactment of the bill of last winter.

Secretary Windom has offered himself to the Minnesota Legislature for reëlection to the United States Senate, but a strong opposition to his election is being developed. Several Republican members of the Legislature have made an arrangement with the Democratic members, by which the Democrats agree, in case there is an open fight on the Senatorship, to vote for whatever candidate may be put forward in opposition to Mr. Windom. Ex-Lieutenant-Governor J. B. Wakefield is said to be the candidate of the alliance against Mr. Windom.

The New Jersey Constitutional Commission met on Friday. A committee was appointed to prepare amendments to the articles in the State Constitution relating to the Judiciary, the Executive, and the Legislature.

The celebration at Yorktown was opened on Sunday by religious services. The services were conducted by Bishop Keane of Virginia. He was to have been assisted by Archbishop Gibbons of Maryland and the Rev. Dr. John Hall of New York, neither of whom, however, was present. An interesting feature in the exercises was that the prayer used by Bishop Keane was composed by Archbishop Carroll, the patriot priest and friend of Washington. Bishop Keane delivered a sermon which he closed with an eloquent tribute to France. People are crowding into Yorktown, and the accommodations are said to be insufficient. The military part of the celebration begins on Thursday. President Arthur, accompanied by Secretary Hunt and Postmaster-General James, left Washington for Yorktown on Monday.

Mr. T. P. O'Connor, member of Parliament for Galway, and Dr. Dillon Egan have arrived in this country. They are on a special mission as representatives of the Land League.

The German officers, relatives of Baron von Steuben, who have come to this country to be present at the Yorktown celebration arrived in New York on Thursday. They witnessed a torchlight parade in their honor in the evening, and started for Washington the same night.

Five million six hundred and six thousand dollars of the 3½ per cent. bonds called for redemption on December 24 were received at the Treasury Department on Monday. In the circular issued last week the Secretary limited the amount of these bonds to be accepted to $5,000,000, but as the amount offered was comparatively little in excess of the limit, it was decided to accept all that were offered.

The Controller of the Currency says that while the report of the National Banks of the city of New York for October 1 is in some respects a strong statement, showing as it does a large increase in deposits and a decrease in loans and discounts, as compared with the report of June 30 last, and also of October 1, 1880, yet as regards the reserve it is the weakest statement received from the National Banks since the establishment of the system.

The members of the bar of the Supreme Court of the United States met in the court-room at Washington on Monday to pay respect to the memory of the late Mr. Justice Clifford. Senator David Davis was appointed chairman. Brief eulogies were pronounced by several gentlemen, and appropriate resolutions were passed.

The Star-route cases came up before the Court in Washington on Friday, but owing to the absence of Mr. Bliss and Mr. Brewster, counsel for the Government, proceedings were postponed for two weeks.

The assassin Guiteau was arraigned before the Criminal Court on Friday, displaying abject cowardice while being taken from the jail to the court-room. He pleaded not guilty, and tried to read a statement which he had brought with him, but the Court told him that this was not the proper time for it. Mr. Scoville, Guiteau's brother-in-law and counsel, read his affidavit. It states that the defence will, in addition to the points of law which may be made, undertake to prove that the defendant was insane, and that the wound inflicted was not necessarily mortal and was not the cause of President Garfield's death. Mr. Scoville will bring forward witnesses to testify to these two points. He asked that he might be furnished with money to pay the expenses of carrying on the defence and with counsel to assist him in it. The Court fixed November 7 for the opening of the trial, and said that the preliminary argument on the question of jurisdiction should be held some time before the 30th of October.

Colonel George E. Waring, jr., has made a report in regard to the defective drainage of the White House, which was published in the *Sanitary Engineer* on Saturday. The report shows the condition of things, so far as the arrangement of pipes, location of fixtures, and means of ventilation are concerned, to be wretched. The *Sanitary Engineer*, in commenting upon the report, says that until the antiquated and defective system of drainage is "pulled out and entirely reconstructed, the White House will be behind our better class of New York tenement houses in this important particular."

General John C. Fremont has resigned the Governorship of Arizona. It is thought that General N. P. Banks may be his successor.

The Committee of Twenty-eight, appointed to consider the advisability of holding the World's Fair in Boston, met on Thursday. A report was read which stated that Beacon Park had been offered as a site for the fair. The report concluded with a resolution, which was adopted, to the effect that it was expedient to hold the fair, provided the sum of $5,000,000 could be secured.

The evidence for the defence in the notorious Malley case has been closed. Witnesses testifying in rebuttal of the evidence for the defence are now being examined.

A trotting match which excited much interest and drew a great crowd took place at Jerome Park, New York, on Saturday. The well-known gelding St. Julien, who has a record of 2:11½, trotted against Trinket, a mare, also well known on the turf, and who has a record of 2:14. St. Julien won in three straight heats.

The Scotch cutter *Madge* has received her first defeat since she arrived here. She was beaten at Newport on Friday by the Boston yacht *Shadow*. On Saturday, however, the tables were turned and the *Madge* defeated the *Shadow*.

There have been heavy rains and floods in the West during the week, and many washouts have occurred. The Mississippi River has been rising rapidly.

The total number of immigrants to the

United States from the principal foreign countries during the three months ending September 30, 1881, was 171,803, and during the corresponding period in 1880 it was 155,233.

Dr. J G. Holland, one of the most widely-known of recent American writers, died in New York on Wednesday. Ex-Governor Wiltz of Louisiana, Captain E. P. McCrea of the United States Navy, commander of the *Tennessee*, the flagship of the North Atlantic squadron, and Mr. E. B. Morgan, a prominent New York merchant, also died during the week.

FOREIGN.

The English Government has begun to take active measures for the suppression of the Land League. On Thursday Mr. Parnell was arrested at his hotel in Dublin on a warrant signed by Mr. Forster, Chief Secretary for Ireland. He was taken to Kilmainham jail. It is believed that Mr. Parnell's speech at Wexford on Sunday before last furnished the Government with technical justification for the arrest. On Saturday Messrs. Dillon, Sexton, Quinn, O'Kelly, and O'Brien were arrested. They are all prominent members of the Land League, and Dillon, Sexton, and O'Kelly are Members of Parliament. It is inferred from Quinn's arrest that the total suppression of the Land League is aimed at, for Quinn has made no speeches, but has confined himself to purely clerical work: he is, therefore, no more culpable than any other member of the organization. There has been great excitement in some parts of Ireland, and on Sunday and Monday there were serious riots in Dublin and Limerick. In England, however, the Government's course is generally approved, by Conservatives as well as Liberals. There was a general feeling that the time had come for decisive action on the part of the Government in the Irish matter.

Mr. Sexton has declined the offer of the Government to release him from imprisonment on account of his health, provided he leaves the country. It is not considered probable that the members of Parliament in Kilmainham jail will be detained beyond three months at the most.

The latest reports from Ireland state that the riots which took place in Dublin and Limerick upon the arrest of Parnell were largely due to the exasperation caused by the brutal conduct of the police, most of whom were intoxicated. A deputation from the Corporation of Dublin, headed by the Lord Mayor, visited Mr. Forster, Chief Secretary for Ireland, to protest against the ostentatious display of police force.

Sir Stafford Northcote and Lord Salisbury, speaking at Newcastle-on-Tyne last week, both denied that they had ever advocated protection, but Sir Stafford Northcote maintained that by the adjustment of local rates the distress of the agriculturists ought to be mitigated. Lord Salisbury said that if he found that by raising the duties on luxuries, or threatening to raise it, a pressure could be brought upon foreign governments to reduce their rates, he should throw orthodox formulas to the wind.

Mr. Sackville West, the New English Minister to the United States, will sail from Liverpool to Philadelphia on the 22d of this month.

There is some likelihood that the British Government will co-operate in an international expedition in search of the Arctic exploring steamer *Jeannette* next year.

One of the most disastrous storms in many years visited England and Ireland on Friday. Telegraphic communication was interrupted all over the country and great damage was done to property. It is estimated that between sixty and seventy lives were lost. On Friday all cable communication with America was stopped for some hours.

It is reported that the French Ministerial crisis will be brought to an end for the present by the resignation of General Farre, Barthélemy-Saint-Hilaire, and Sadi Carnot, who are to be replaced by three more energetic ministers. It is said that Gambetta will not be in the Cabinet, but will assure it of his support. A mass meeting of Socialists to demand the impeachment of the Ministry, and which alarmed many timid people in Paris, passed off on Sunday in a quiet manner.

The French Government has fixed November 20 for the election by the Municipal Councils of delegates to elect Senators to replace the seventy-five who retire this year. The final election will take place on January 8.

M. Roustan, the French Minister, has addressed a circular to the representatives of the Powers, informing them of the occupation of Tunis by virtue of an understanding with the Bey. The occupation is to be purely military, and the administration is to continue as heretofore. The Italian consul protested against the occupation, and the protest was supported with great enthusiasm by the Italian colony in Tunis; but it is believed that the Italian Government will disavow the action of the consul. The insurgents have burned two more railway stations, and have attacked a strong French fort near Susa, inflicting some loss.

It was officially announced that the French march to the holy city of Kairouan, in Tunis, would begin on Tuesday.

The jury of the International Electric Exhibition in Paris has awarded gold medals of the highest class to Edison and Brush for dynamo-magnetic machines, and a gold medal to Maxim; also gold medals to Edison, Brush, and Maxim for arc incandescent lights. Edison takes five gold medals in all, which is more than any other exhibitor.

Alphonse Daudet has just published a new novel called "Numa Roumestan." Over 20,000 copies are said to have been already sold or ordered.

During the coming session of the Prussian Diet no ecclesiastical bill beyond that providing for the renewal of the law of July last will be presented, as the Government believes that fresh legislation at present would tend to restrict the scope of direct negotiations with the Vatican. The scheme of Herr Bitter, the Minister of Finance, for increasing the direct taxes will not be introduced into the Diet for some time, as the Ministry has decided to await the fate of the Tobacco Monopoly Bill. Herr von Puttkamer has been appointed Vice-President of the Ministry in the place of Count von Stolberg-Wernigerode resigned. He will also retain the position of Minister of the Interior.

Herr von Hobrecht, the ex-Minister of Finance, has formally taken stand against the Government and is especially fighting against the tobacco monopoly.

Germany and Austria have agreed to fresh proposals made by Russia in regard to the extradition of political criminals, and negotiations are being made with France in regard to the same matters.

The trial of the four Russian Nihilists who were indicted for secretly printing a revolutionary paper has terminated. A woman and two of the men were exiled to Tobolsk, while a fourth one was sentenced to four months' imprisonment.

An imperial ukase has been promulgated by the Czar granting Count Valuyeff's request to be relieved from the presidency of the Committee of Ministers on the ground of ill-health. He will remain a member of the Council of the Empire and will retain the rank of Secretary of State. M. de Reutern, a Privy Councillor and Secretary of State, has been appointed President of the Committee of Ministers in Count Valuyeff's place.

The Pope delivered an address to some Italian pilgrims at St. Peter's on Sunday, in the course of which he said that the "present deplorable state of affairs" placed before him the alternative of enduring continual captivity, made harder daily, or of going into exile. He therefore asked Catholics to watch and pray for his liberty and independence. He concluded by saying that he was no longer secure in his palace; that he was outraged in his person and dignity in a thousand ways. The gravity and earnestness of the Pope are reported to have made a profound impression upon the pilgrims.

It is reported that Señor Comacho, the Spanish Minister of Finance, will present to the Cortes a bill for the reform of the customs duties in the direction of Free Trade. He will also propose a reduction of the tariff on stamped papers, letters, and telegrams.

General Prendergast, the new Governor-General of Cuba, will start for Havana by November 10. He is reported as saying that he will undertake a "liberal conciliatory policy, humoring colonial ideas and free speech."

The Turkish delegates to Egypt have been recalled. They will terminate their labors as soon as possible, and are expected to embark for Turkey on Thursday.

The Boer convention with England has not yet been ratified. Public feeling in the Transvaal is reported to be unsettled, and the Boers have seized the wagons of such as remained loyal to England during the late war.

The last advices report the situation in Peru to be unchanged. Troops are said to be mustering in the interior with the purpose of making an attempt to expel the Chilian invaders. The latter are daily increasing the strength of the army of occupation by the arrival of fresh troops. A correspondence has taken place between the secretary of the Dictator Pierola and General Hurlbut, the United States Minister to Peru. Pierola's secretary wrote to General Hurlbut asking him to recognize Pierola's government as the legitimate one, but the General replied at some length to the effect that Pierola had obtained his dictatorship by revolutionary and lawless acts, and that his recent "barbarous and inhuman" decrees in regard to the persons and property of those who did not recognize his Government "place the Government which adopts such measures beyond the pale of the law." General Hurlbut goes on to say that while the Government presided over by Señor Calderon does not pretend to be regularly and perfectly established, still it is an "effort towards the reëstablishment in the country of a regular and constitutional Government," and advises all true Peruvians "to unite in support of Señor Calderon for the purpose of saving the country from imminent ruin, restoring peace, and the orderly and pacific reign of the Constitution and laws."

Don Domingo Santa Maria was proclaimed President of the Republic of Chili, in the presence of both chambers of Congress, on the 30th of August.

Advices from China report the construction of the telegraph line between Shanghai and Tientsin to be progressing satisfactorily. The presence of Government officers checked whatever feelings of hostility the natives may have had for such an innovation. It is expected that the line will be open for business by the end of the year.

A silk guild has been formed by the Japanese. The guild insists that all silk sold shall be inspected and paid for on its premises. Foreign buyers are strongly opposed to the rules and conditions imposed by the guild, and thirty-three European firms have bound themselves not to buy until the terms of sale are modified.

The news of President Garfield's death caused a feeling of sincere regret among men of all nationalities in Japan. Flags were displayed at half mast throughout the foreign settlement at Yokohama.

Typhoons have caused considerable loss of life and property in the interior of China and on the coast of Japan.

The Servo-American treaty of commerce was signed on Friday, Mr. Schuyler acting for the United States.

TUESDAY, October 18, 1881.

A HUNDRED YEARS AGO.

THE anniversary of the surrender of Yorktown presents to the imagination, if not more important, certainly more numerous, points of interest than the anniversary which was celebrated at Philadelphia five years ago. The difference between the Declaration of Independence and the surrender of Cornwallis was the difference between the beginning and the end of a great drama, which grew steadily to a climax of absorbing interest. Much as modern historians have endeavored to divert our attention from the merely picturesque events in the world's progress, and to fix it rather upon the underlying social developments and changes of which these are the effects rather than the causes, the imagination, rightly or wrongly, still clings to the old dramatic landmarks of history, the rise and fall of dynasties, the appearance and career of great men, the victory and defeat of armies; to the brilliant and decisive scenes which close forever some long and hard-fought struggle in overwhelming disaster or brilliant success. Solemn and significant as the Declaration of Independence was, it was neither picturesque nor decisive. Though every man who signed it took his life in his hands, and though to this country it was destined to hold in the affections of coming generations a place something like that held by Magna Charta and the Bill of Rights among their ancestors, it was after all a paper declaration, passed by a deliberative body safe from immediate danger, after the usual amount of debate and opposition, as any law or resolution might be passed to-day. It contained a list of grievances the memory of which time has long since effaced, and some general propositions on the subject of human rights which, in the progress of modern enquiry, have either come to be regarded with indifference as truisms or to be rejected altogether as founded in error. We feel no glow of indignation as we listen on each recurring Fourth of July to the long catalogue of crimes which it lays to the charge of the stupid king who occupied the English throne at the time, and the "self-evident truths" which it embodied are not of a character to stir the heart or warm the blood, apart from some immediate oppression produced by their denial.

The event, on the other hand, which the Yorktown anniversary commemorates, appeals not merely superficially but profoundly to the imagination. It was the decisive conflict of a struggle which had lasted five years, and left victory on the side which had seemed from the outset doomed to defeat. It was the sudden, unexpected, and overwhelming defeat, by superior strategy, of the general who had been picked out as best fitted to give the rebellion its quietus. The King's Government had good reason to think that the time for this had come. The war, obstinately as it had been carried on, had thus far mainly resulted in an exhaustion of the American resources. Disaster after disaster had been suffered in the field; the sufferings of the half-clad and almost unpaid troops had been so severe as to produce among them a discontent very nearly mutinous; the paper money which had for a time served as a source of credit had long since become worthless, and finally disappeared altogether from circulation; the only source of supply, in fact, left was France, and the French Government loudly protested against the drafts made upon their treasury by their unfortunate allies. The principal ports of the country were in the enemy's hands; its commerce was destroyed, intervention to prevent the further unnecessary waste of life and ruin of property was pressingly suggested by Germany and Russia, and the air was full of talk of the futile character of the struggle. Had not something occurred at this critical moment to turn the tide, the Revolution must have collapsed, the names of the great men whom we revere as the founders of a new nation would be known to the present generation as those of unsuccessful rebels, the United States would have had no existence, and the history of the last hundred years would have been diverted into a course the nature and direction of which we can now only dimly conjecture.

It was at this moment that the sudden appearance of the French fleet under De Grasse, the junction of the armies under Washington and Rochambeau, and the investment of Yorktown, decided the long struggle. Had the surrender of Cornwallis occurred at an earlier stage in the war it would hardly have had any other effect in England than to confirm the obstinacy of the King and his packed House of Commons. Indeed, this had been the actual effect of the destruction of Burgoyne's still larger army four years before. But now the effect produced in England was far more important than the immediate military results of the surrender. Popular feeling began to make itself felt even in Parliament. Although the King's speech showed no signs of a change of temper, on the first vote taken on the question of prolonging the war the Ministry could only get together a majority of forty-one; a few months later a motion for an address to the King to put a stop to the war was only lost by one vote. Immediately afterward a similar motion was carried. The Ministry fell; Lord Rockingham came into power, and the independence of the United States was assured.

The historic picturesqueness of the event is greatly increased by the presence on the scene of the foreign troops, with their little band of foreign officers, the French "boy" who had left the happiest of homes in the most polished and luxurious court in Europe to draw his sword for the sake of an oppressed people, and the stiff Prussian martinet who had, for seven long years, fought for King and country against the allied armies of Europe, and to whom discipline had perhaps become an ideal almost as fondly loved as Liberty in France or Independence in America.

It is the historian's common moral that it is fortunate for man that he cannot see far into the future. Yorktown fell, and the existence of the United States was secured by the aid of France; but how little aid France would have rendered us if she could have guessed what were to be the consequences upon her own soil of our success—if it could have been foreseen that the same love of liberty which fired the heart of the people with sympathy for us was destined to lead in a few short years to the tumult and chaos of the Revolution, the bloody anarchy of the Directory and the Terror, and to place Europe under the heel of a military despot. Could the curtain have been lifted but a moment, it would have disclosed a future so filled with disaster and terror and ruin that our allies might well have shrunk from helping it forward. But they saw nothing more than that our success was the discomfiture and diminution of England. It was their conviction of this that secured at Yorktown the future of free government.

THE PROBATIVE FORCE OF THE DUEL.

WHEN one reads the somewhat ludicrous stories of campaign duels which are taking place, or are going to take place, in Virginia between opposing politicians, one cannot help asking once more, In what condition, in the Southern mind, does the duel leave the proposition out of which the duel arises? General Jubal Early, for instance, says General Mahone is a "liar and a thief," and it was for a while thought that this would compel Mahone to fight him; in fact, it appears that but for Early's great age he would have fought him. Now if he had fought him, would it have proved anything beyond the fact that Mahone did not like being called "a liar and a thief"? Would it have proved that he was not a liar and a thief? Riddleberger, the late Republican candidate for the Sergeantship-at-Arms of the Senate, in the great and memorable struggle for "principle" which Mr. Dawes carried on last spring, has just been fighting two duels in one day, both arising out of the fact that two gentlemen made allegations of a similar character about him. Now, where have the duels left these allegations? They have been made by men of good standing, and made with deliberation and with the utmost publicity. We see that they make Riddleberger angry, but this we knew already. But we do not see, in consequence of anything that has occurred, that they are not true. The various essays and pamphlets which have at times appeared at the South on "the Code" contain nothing whatever as to the probative force of a duel as a piece of evidence, and yet it is only as a piece of evidence that a duel fought by a politician has any interest whatever for the public at large. As a sign of his courage it has no interest for any one but his personal friends. In old times single combat had probative force. It was held that the result of the fight decided the truth or falsehood of the statement out of which the fight arose. If A said B was a rascal, B not only sought to punish A by fighting him, but to satisfy all spectators that A had lied. On the other hand, if A vanquished B, it showed that A's charge was true. The ordeal of battle, therefore, like the process of walking blindfold and barefoot over nine red-hot ploughshares, was a useful process. It supplied the public with materials for forming a correct judgment about the character of two men of note. It was, moreover, a process of great dignity, because it solved by physical experimentation moral problems which, in a

large number of cases, could not be attacked by judicial enquiry.

If the modern campaign duel as practised at the South served any such purpose, we feel sure it would meet with a great deal of approval even at the North. We doubt much whether even religious people would seriously object to it. If every man who made a campaign charge could prove or had to prove the truth of it by a fight with the man against whom he made it, it would certainly result in a wonderful clearing of the political atmosphere. It would, too, put it in the power of many men to get rid of a load of obloquy under which they have labored for years, through inability to disprove by the ordinary methods accusations brought against their character by political opponents. But, so far as we know, no Southerner claims this power for the duel. No mention is made of it in any eulogy of the duel we have ever seen. According to the light we have on the subject, it tells us nothing we care to know about a man. Nobody cares a rush in these times whether Mahone or Riddleberger is a brave man or not. Physical courage is not of any great importance in ordinary times under modern government. The country is full of eminent and useful citizens who have no more stomach for fighting than Bob Acres.

But we should greatly like to know beyond peradventure whether what Wise says about Riddleberger, and what Jubal Early says about Mahone, is true or false. If the duel would reveal this, it would very usefully take the place of libel suits, because it costs nothing to anybody but the parties concerned, and takes up nobody's time but that of their intimate personal friends. If any of our Southern contemporaries can say that the duel does this, and can recall any cases of it, we should be glad to hear of it. It would, for one thing, be an interesting addition to our knowledge of that very obscure subject, the connection between the material and moral nature of man. If by hitting a man with a bullet at ten paces on the 16th of October you can prove that for some years previously his disposition had been vicious, or that on the 16th of April last he had told a deliberate lie, it is easy to see that there must be more laws of the human mind than are described or assumed in the ordinary manuals of logic.

THE ILLINOIS GRAIN-GAMBLING ACT.

There are weighty moral and commercial objections to the Illinois grain-gambling act, recently brought to the attention of the Chicago Grand Jury by Judge Jameson. But the statute as a mere specimen of criminal legislation is also open to serious criticism, and as it is likely, in time of excitement over the doings of unscrupulous operators, to be copied in other States, it may be worth while to examine its provisions somewhat in detail. It provides that "whoever contracts to have or give to himself the option to sell or buy at a future time any grain or other commodity, stock of any railroad or other corporation, or gold, or forestalls the market by spreading false rumors to influence the price of commodities therein, or corners the market, or tries to do so in relation to any of such commodities, shall be fined not less than $10 nor more than $1,000, or confined in the county jail not exceeding one year, or both."

This, it will be seen, is intended to cover three distinct things: the purchase and sale of options, forestalling by means of false news, and cornering or trying to corner the market. With regard to the second of these, the statute is drawn in such a way that it will probably be impossible to enforce it at all. The old offence of forestalling consisted in buying or contracting for merchandise or grain coming to market, or raising prices by keeping goods out of the market, or spreading false rumors with the intent to enhance the value of any article. The essence of the offence is an artificial inflation of prices. The Illinois Legislature, however, does not make this inflation itself a crime, except it can be proved to have been effected by means of false news. It would seem to be necessary, therefore, in order to secure a conviction under such an act, to prove not only that the market had been forestalled, but that it had been done by means of false rumors, spread for that purpose. In most cases this would be impracticable. It would be necessary for the District Attorney to show not only that the person indicted had spread false rumors about the commodity, but that the rumors had had an effect on the market. Of this the jury would necessarily be the judges, and the causes which affect prices are so numerous that in nine cases out of ten it would be impossible to prove any immediate connection between the rumors and the rise in price. It may be urged in reply to this that the courts would construe the statute to mean that the offence should consist in merely spreading false rumors, without regard to their effect upon the market. But even if they did so, there would still be the fatal obstacle in the way of a successful prosecution that the prosecuting officer would have to prove criminal intent. It is absurd to suppose that any jury would convict a man for merely repeating as a rumor what he hears as a rumor, without some evidence that he knows it to be false. No such conviction would stand for a moment. But how can such knowledge be proved? The "market" is always a mass of rumors, some false, some true, and all repeated from mouth to mouth, and published in the press from hour to hour. The origin of these rumors is seldom traceable, and to punish people for circulating them would simply be to put a stop to business.

Again, the Illinois statute, while it provides a punishment for spreading false rumors to forestall the markets for commodities, is totally silent on the subject of spreading false rumors with regard to the stock market. There is certainly just as much reason for punishing the one as the other, though no doubt grain-gambling attracts most attention in Chicago, just as stock-gambling does in New York. Everybody knows in both cities, however, what "giving points" means, and it may be worth while, by the way, to remember that the astute operator may often gain his end by giving true points rather than false ones. He may even effect his purpose by cautioning people not to spread the rumors which he desires to have set afloat. Everybody has heard of the story of the late Daniel Drew, who, when in control of the Erie Railway, once gave a valuable "point" to a deacon in his church, with a strict injunction to let it go no further. The deacon, of course, as his informant anticipated he would, repeated it to all the other deacons of his acquaintance, who all took advantage of it to their great ultimate pecuniary loss and Drew's gain. The first deacon came to Drew with a very long face and complained of the disastrous result. Upon which Drew, acknowledging that he might have been mistaken as to the information he had given, paid him his losses in full. "But," said the deacon, "there are Deacon Jones, and Deacon Brown, and Deacon Smith, who have lost heavily too." "Yes," the benevolent operator replied, "but I told you not to tell them." This anecdote, whether true or not, as a stock-market fable is invaluable, and should be brought to the attention of every legislator who feels called upon to deal with the offence of spreading false rumors.

The remainder of the Illinois statute is so carelessly drawn that it would probably require a very liberal construction to make it capable of effective enforcement. A contract made by an operator to "give to himself the option to sell or buy," would be a legal as well as a commercial curiosity, and the offence of "trying to corner" the market may mean anything at all or nothing. The market is "cornered" by means of buying and lending stock, so that any buyer or lender of stock might be suspected of an attempt to corner the market; but buying and lending stock are in themselves perfectly legitimate and harmless things. By "trying to corner," the Illinois Legislature probably meant a combination and conspiracy for the purpose of cornering. In a statute of this kind it is certainly essential that technical and precise terms should be used. "Squeezing the boys" has a definite meaning on Wall street, but it would be a mistake to incorporate it in a criminal statute.

Another objection to the Illinois statute is the extraordinary discretion given to the judges, who may either impose a fine of ten dollars or throw a man into jail for a year for committing any of the offences specified in the act. It is curious to see a statute of this kind making its appearance in an American community at the present day. It is a hundred years since all laws of the sort disappeared from the English statute-book. The objections to them are not new or difficult to understand. They cannot be enforced, and making their language vague and loose is not likely to make prosecutions under them any easier.

GAMBETTA IN THE MINISTRY.

The long-pending change in the French Ministry has, it is now announced, taken place. M. Gambetta has been requested by the President to form a Cabinet and has consented. In fact, the request seems to have been made some time ago, but M. Gambetta thought it hardly etiquette for the present Cabinet to resign, or for the President

to accept their resignations, until the Chambers had met and there had been a debate on a vote of confidence. This was, however, probably not the only reason of the delay. Time has been required to bring about harmony between the Left and the Republican Union, two "groups" whose union is necessary to give Gambetta a working majority, and might also bring Jules Ferry into the new Cabinet.

Gambetta's accession to office has long been expected, and of late strenuously demanded by a certain portion both of his friends and enemies, the former because they thought the premiership his proper position, and the latter because they believed he was exercising power without responsibility. But he would doubtless have managed in some way to postpone the crisis which brings or rather forces him into office until he had time to test the temper of the new Chambers, if the present Ministry were in a condition to face them. The fact is they are not. The meeting of the Chambers has been postponed at their urgent request by the President to the last moment allowed by law, the 28th instant, in order to give time for something to turn up that would put a good face on their position. Among the things, for instance, which M. Ferry was looking for as probable and likely to help him was some important success in Tunis, such as the capture of Kairouan. But the news from Tunis has of late been so bad as to dry up this source of hope completely. Military successes cannot be achieved to order. Preparation was made for the last elections by the conclusion of a sort of snap treaty with the Bey, but nothing of this sort is now available. The Arab insurgents do not wait for the French generals to capture or destroy them. They fight and run away, and fight again.

What makes all this the more unfortunate is that it is the Tunisian business which has fatally dislocated the Ministry. It was not very homogeneous to begin with, but it might have held together with a certain show of decency if the Tunisian expedition had not been undertaken. From the moment it was discovered that the marauding Kroumirs did not exist, a great cloud of scandal settled on the affair, first abroad and then at home. Frenchmen themselves were naturally surprised and humiliated at finding that there was not a more presentable excuse for the invasion. The friends of the Government, however, held their tongues, or descanted on the advantages or the cheapness of the annexation, or whatever it was called. Its enemies began a series of explanations intended to show that the war was really undertaken in the interests of a band of speculators with whom the Ministers were in collusion; that the scheme had been over ten years on foot; that the long residence at Tunis of a "pretty American" (formerly well known in New York society) was one of the first moves in their game, and that it is only now that they have been able to bring their plans to maturity.

The Ministers, unhappily, have not been able to make a united defence to all this, or indeed to agree on any defence. They have not been able to agree on any explanation of the non-appearance of the Kroumirs, or on any theory of the relations of France with the Bey. The Minister of Foreign Affairs, M. Barthélemy-Saint-Hilaire, has always maintained that the treaty with the Bey and the promotion of M. Roustan, the French Consul-General, to a sort of supervisorship of him, was a triumph of French diplomacy. The Minister of War, General Farre, on the other hand, has maintained that whether it was worth much or worth little, it was a triumph of the French arms, having been imposed on the Bey by a general of cavalry. M. Saint-Hilaire was, for similar reasons, eager to have the treaty prove a final settlement, and General Farre to show that such it could not be, and that the complete conquest of the country was necessary to a lasting peace.

Anyhow, events have favored the military view up to a certain point. The treaty did prove worthless, but the operations undertaken in consequence of its failure have not succeeded. No striking advantage has been obtained over the Arabs. The French troops hold the ground they camp on, and not a hectare more —not even what their rifles can sweep—for the Arabs burn and pillage and murder under the noses of their sentries. The capture of Kairouan will be a great *coup*, which General Farre believes will end the war. But then the General is not a religious fanatic, and cannot enter into the feelings of Mussulmans who have seen their holy places profaned. He is, therefore, probably grossly mistaken about the effect which will be produced on the insurgents by the storming of the place. At all events, M. Ferry does not care to go before the Chambers and defend either view of the situation. The charges of collusion with the speculators are, in the meantime, likely to be investigated in the courts, as M. Billing of the Foreign Office has begun a suit for defamation against the *Événement*. The trial will certainly result in some entertaining revelations.

M. Gambetta will go into office without these burdens on his shoulders, and will probably excite enough curiosity in his new position to turn public attention away from them. He will be free, too, from the curious difficulties into which M. Tirard has brought the present Ministry over the Treaty of Commerce with England, and which are apparently the consequence of the failure of "a game of bluff" on the part of a man who did not know how to play it.

THE WINE INTEREST IN FRANCE.

On the tenth of this month there met at Bordeaux what the French call "Le Congrès Phylloxérique," to take into consideration the present condition of vine-culture in France, and the measures that should be adopted to save what is left of that important industry. There is a special fitness in holding such a congress at Bordeaux, for the interests of that city are closely connected with the industry, and, as the emporium of the wine trade, it owes to it in great part its wealth and prosperity. How severely the wine-growers have suffered from the ravages of the phylloxera can hardly be imagined from any array of figures that can be produced; for in attacking the vines the scourge has attacked the chief source of the agricultural wealth of France, and the effects are not confined to the wine-producers and merchants, but involve also a large number of trades and occupations subsidiary to and dependent upon the wine industry.

The vineyards of France are estimated to cover 4.27 per cent. of the total surface of the country, and comprise in area 2,300,000 hectares. More than 500,000 hectares of vines have been totally destroyed by the phylloxera, and as many more have been attacked with little hope of being saved. A great change in the value of land has resulted. The *Statistique Officielle* recently stated that for the whole of France the average value of land fit for vine culture ranged from 1,783 francs per hectare for poor soils to 3,564 francs per hectare for the best, and if a limited extent of territory be considered, as in the department of the Gironde, in which there are 172,000 hectares devoted to vines, the value reached as high as 7,000 francs per hectare. In this department 20,000 hectares have been entirely destroyed so far as they can be used for wine culture; and if the value of the land be estimated at 2,000 francs per hectare—and that is the average price of land when not devoted to special uses—there has resulted a loss of 5,500 francs per hectare, or 110,000,000 francs for this district, without taking into consideration the extent of territory attacked by the pest, which amounts to 136,000 hectares. But nothing can more clearly give an idea of the losses entailed than the following table, which is extracted from a recent issue of *L'Économiste Français*:

Departments.	Hectares once cultivated.	Hectares attacked.	Hectares destroyed.
Hérault	180,000	29,500	131,600
Gard	98,500	...	97,800
Var	90,300	14,000	50,000
Charente	116,200	39,000	42,000
Vaucluse	59,000	13,600	37,300
Bouches-du-Rhône	46,000	6,500	40,500
Charente-Inférieure	169,000	50,100	40,000
Drôme	28,000	6,000	26,000
Ardèche	34,600	6,500	23,200
Gironde	172,000	136,000	20,500
Lot-et-Garonne	140,000	60,000	12,000
Dordogne	98,000	27,000	12,000
Lot	65,800	20,000	8,200
Rhône	46,000	10,000	5,900

Thus the wine culture in the departments of Gard, Ardèche, Bouches-du-Rhône, Vaucluse, and Drôme may be said to be destroyed, and in six other departments the injuries have been such as to entail enormous losses. It is believed that to-day there are half a million vine-dressers thrown out of employment or living on starvation wages, and the wages of these people were much above the wages paid to other classes of agricultural laborers.

Of the various experiments made to destroy or at least check the phylloxera, not one has produced a safe and definite result. Chemistry has been applied in the form of numerous insecticides, composts, and soil dressings, but with no satisfactory results. The Government allotted a credit of nearly a million francs to carry on these experiments; and though this amount has been nearly expended, little progress has been made in finding a sure remedy against the pest. Private capital, too, has been employed in vain attempts to check the progress of the phylloxera. But the vineyards are generally held in small properties, and the proprietors cannot afford to expend much of their capital on uncertain experiments. Out of the half million hectares under the influence of the scourge, but 15,000 hectares have been treated.

It has been said that a sure remedy is found in the hardier American varieties of the vine, which will withstand the attacks of the phylloxera, and in some cases the introduction of these new vines has been attended with excellent results. A great objection is the large expense involved in making this change, estimated to be 1,500 francs per hectare, which will put this remedy beyond the means of the majority of the small proprietors. But 6,441 hectares have been planted with American vines, and to the attacks of a new pest, the mildew, which promises to be more destructive to the vine than the phylloxera, these vines are particularly open.

But if France has lost by this scourge, Italy and Spain have gained. The wine-producing area of Italy is now larger than that of France (1,870,000 hectares), and the annual production amounts to 20,000,000 hectolitres. The value of the exports of wine from Spain in 1879 was only 170,000,000 francs; in 1880 it had risen to 225,000,000 francs, an amount equal to the value of the exports of wine from France. It is a curious fact that the exports of wine from France have not been affected by the great decrease in the quantity produced. This will appear from the following table:

Years.	Production (francs)	Exports (francs)
1874	70,000,000	237,400,000
1875	84,000,000	252,300,000
1876	44,000,000	246,200,000
1877	55,000,000	225,500,000
1878	49,000,000	207,100,000
1879	26,000,000	264,900,000
1880	29,000,000	285,700,000

On the other hand, the imports of wine into France have increased nearly ten-fold since 1874, and in one year (between 1879 and 1880) more than doubled.

The production for 1881, it is believed, will show a slight increase over that of 1880, and will serve to inspire a little hope among the wine producers that the worst is over, though it will take many years to make good the losses that have been incurred since 1879. We fear that the congress will seek aid from the Government, in accordance with their idea of the objects of a government, and wish to make good the losses of the last three years by a tax imposed upon the whole country in the interest of the wine producers. A more healthy sign of independence is shown by the recent founding, at Beaune, of a school of viticulture, where the matter is to be made a special study.

THE NEXT STEP IN IRELAND.

THE *Pall Mall Gazette* very justly remarks that if the Land Act will not restore peace to Ireland, the question of a new kind of government for Ireland must come up, "because it is intolerable, even impossible, to govern by a series of spasmodic *coups d'état*." There is no doubt that the situation there is serious and puzzling, although the accounts of the disturbances are grossly exaggerated. But whatever peace there is is due mainly to the employment of an enormous military and police force. A régime of this kind cannot be maintained indefinitely. The new kind of government for Ireland which suggests itself to those who think a new kind of government may become necessary, is what is known in England as the government of a Crown colony—that is, arbitrary government by a Governor aided by an appointed council. This is the way such of the colonies as have never received a legislative charter are governed; and in the small colonies, like Jamaica or the Bermudas, it works well enough. As a matter of fact, Ireland is really for the moment under this government now, but only as a temporary makeshift, and nobody can say that it works well. Its establishment as a permanency, or even as a prolonged experiment, is something from which all reasonable Englishmen doubtless shrink, because every Englishman knows that it could not last always, and that it is one of those expedients which, like holding the bull by the tail, in no way prepares for its own termination. It could not prove a measure of reconciliation. It would be full of daily irritation in all sorts of ways for all classes of Irishmen, and full of shame for all classes of Englishmen. Coercion, every one admits, is not a remedy; it may put off the evil day, but it does not diminish the dread of it. It would take, too, fifty thousand men to enforce it, and would either hasten the flight of capital from the island or prevent its coming. It would, in fact, leave the Irish problem just where it stands to-day.

Nevertheless, the performances of the League since the Land Act was passed have probably reconciled a good many Englishmen to seeing something like Crown-colony government tried in Ireland, not as a good thing, but as the least of all the evil things they now have to face. Mr. Gladstone is being criticised sharply for calling what he is now trying in Ireland "the resources of civilization." There is no doubt that what he is trying is force, and people who are scandalized at hearing force called "a resource of civilization" forget that civilization rests on the fact that the preponderance of force is on the side of security for person and property. If it cannot be exercised through the courts, it has to be exercised somehow. It has been clearly demonstrated in Ireland that it cannot be exercised through the courts. If this failure worked complete impunity for robberies, murders, and intimidation, civilization in Ireland would disappear. But soldiers and policemen acting outside the ordinary law are a resource of civilization when the ordinary law has proved insufficient; and this is what Mr. Gladstone is trying. He cannot allow himself as Prime Minister to be supplanted by Mr. Parnell. One or other of them has clearly, in the present crisis, to go to jail; and in troublous times, of two political opponents the proper man to go to jail is the man who has least force on his side. Mr. Parnell's whimpering over his being beaten in a game of his own contrivance is childish, as childish as the lamentation of the Southerners over the destructiveness of war, after their own soil had become the theatre of hostilities. The mistake he has made lies in his having, by his new demands, alarmed people about the security of all property. There is doubtless many an Englishman, who was ready to concede a fair measure of legislative independence to Ireland, who recedes from it, or is prepared to resist it at any cost, if he finds that it would probably mean the confiscation of the landlords' property by the forcible reduction of their rents to a mere trifle, having no relation to the productiveness of the soil. The whole performances of the League during the past month have helped to increase the class of Englishmen who are prepared for anything, however desperate, sooner than surrender a large body of their fellow-citizens to spoliation at the hands of demagogues.

Mr. Gladstone is, however, pledged not to rest satisfied with trying force in Ireland. There is another resource of civilization still at his command, and for which he declared himself ready in his recent speech at Guildhall, and that is the relegation of Irish affairs to Irish members of the House of Commons, and the appointment of Irishmen to be chief executive officers, from the Secretaryship down. This ought to have been the accompaniment of the Land Act. It is the one sure remedy, as all constitutional history shows, for the deep-seated discontent. Great Britain has found it successful in Scotland, and in most of the great colonies. She lost America because she was not willing to try it here. She would have lost Ireland for a similar reason if Ireland had been bigger and further off. Owing to deep-seated prejudices, born of a long course of unchecked oppression, many Englishmen feel as if its trial in Ireland was an impossibility, but it is an impossibility they will yet have to swallow if they are ever to get rid of the Irish difficulty. If the bulk of the Irish people have no confidence in the Ministry as at present constituted, the time-honored and well-tested remedy is to put into the Ministry men in whom they have confidence, and let them manage Irish affairs. It would, for instance, wild as the suggestion may seem, be a masterstroke of statesmanship if Mr. Gladstone were at this moment to ask for Mr. Forster's resignation, and let him give up his bodyguard of dragoons and come home, and in his place put Mr. Parnell, and leave him, and men like Mr. Shaw, or Mr. Russell, or Sir Charles Duffy, to settle among themselves what legislation Ireland needed. This would probably at first shock what is called "English opinion" about Ireland, but English opinion would very soon become thankful for it, because it would bring peace. If any Irishman wanted to justify Irish discontent in the eyes of foreigners, he could not do better than exhibit to them the last three Irish Secretaries—Sir Michael Beach, Mr. James Lowther, and Mr. Forster. The first two were actually filled with unmitigated scorn for the country whose affairs they administered; the last has a kindly but hopeless incapacity to understand his turbulent subjects, and occupies towards them that in our time most exasperating of attitudes towards a dependent community, the attitude of a superior being who knows what is good for them better than they do themselves.

THE PRIVATE LIFE OF IMMANUEL KANT.*

THERE exist well-known biographies of the eminent philosopher; but besides the remarkable

* From a paper read before the Boston Thursday Club by Dr. H. A. Hagen, of Harvard University.

facts given in these there are many little anecdotes and stories preserved by tradition in the families of Kant's friends, or published in small local papers, never or rarely to be found abroad. Part of what I shall relate are family traditions; for my grandfather was for many years a colleague and friend of Kant, and an uncle of mine was for years a frequent dinner-guest of the philosopher. His memory still lives in his native city. His house is unchanged save by an inscription on a marble tablet stating the fact that he lived there. It has been for a long time the property of a dentist—as somebody wittily said, to complete Kant's philosophy, which is a remedy for all aches except the toothache. The owner has had the good sense to leave untouched the interior arrangement of the house, and near by is placed a beautiful statue of Kant in bronze by Rauch.

After Kant's death, thirty of his friends resolved to celebrate his birthday every year by a dinner just like those given by the philosopher himself on that day. The dinner was at first given in the same rooms and in similar fashion. The president was charged with the duty of making a speech bearing upon Kant's philosophy or upon his works. Before the end of the dinner the president of the next year was chosen in the following manner: A cake was brought in, in which a bean had been baked, and of which each member had to eat a slice. Whoever found the bean was called King of the Bean, and had to preside the coming year. But the original members became every year less in number, and new ones were admitted. In 1848 died the last of Kant's dinner-guests. The custom is still in vogue, and some years ago the subject of the oration was Kant's little work on Eternal Peace, showing that in the settling of the *Alabama* claims Kant's principles were followed for the first time eighty years after the publication of the work.

Immanuel Kant was born in Königsberg, in Prussia, April 22, 1724. His father was a saddler in very humble circumstances, the more so as eleven children were to be provided for. The house of his birth was burned in a very large and disastrous fire in 1811. There is very little known about his childhood or boyhood, and that little is without interest. It is remarkable that none of his teachers either in school or in the University were of any prominence. After having been obliged for want of means to serve for several years as instructor in private families in the country, he decided in 1755 to join the University as *Privat-docent;* that is, he had no salary except a small fee paid by his students —about four thalers the term when he was already famous, and perhaps only about half that sum in the beginning. Eleven years later he got his first appointment from the University as second librarian, with the marvellous salary of sixty-two thalers a year. At forty-six years of age, after having lectured for fifteen years with a success entirely unprecedented, he was promoted to a professorship, with a salary of four hundred thalers, which was raised in his sixty-fifth year to six hundred and sixty—never higher. Nevertheless, as the number of students in the University attracted by his fame became twice as great as before, he was able to amass a fortune of twenty-one thousand thalers. Of course the income from his books may have made up the larger part of this sum, but they only became profitable after he was sixty years old. At the same time he had always supported his relatives in a noble manner, and lived comfortably. Times have changed: the above-mentioned sum Gladstone received a short time since for a pamphlet written in a few days.

Kant's lectures generally filled from twelve to sixteen hours a week, winter and summer, from seven to ten in the morning. He spoke extemporaneously, with only a small paper with notes and dates before him, and he liked to make his lectures more interesting and attractive by numerous quotations and facts, and, when in place, even by jokes. His success was enormous. The large lecture-room became too small in the second year, and students wishing to have a good seat were accustomed to be an hour beforehand in the room; *i.e.*, at six o'clock in the morning. He was accustomed, when particularly absorbed in thought, to keep his eyes fixed on some object, his favorite being a church steeple to be seen from his study-window; and in the same way, when, in his philosophical lectures, his mind became deeply engaged, his eyes grew more serious, and his forehead more thoughtful, he used involuntarily to fix his gaze upon one individual student. Once the student was not one of the most interested, and happened to yawn. This lack of good manners disconcerted the philosopher to such a degree that he remarked angrily: "It would at least have been polite to cover your mouth with your hands." The unhappy fellow changed his place with another student at the next lecture.

The apparatus used by Kant for his studies was comparatively small. His library consisted at the time of his death of only a few hundred volumes, which he bequeathed to a friend. Among them is still preserved his copy of the Bible. As the edition is dated 1751, it can only have come into his hands about the time he began his University lectures. It is evident that he must have studied the whole book very much, as many passages are underlined. Very often he made notes and remarks, mostly in Genesis and in the four evangelists.

Once, when the philosopher Fichte was at a party in Königsberg, a well-educated officer of high rank engaged in a conversation about the immortality of the soul, expressed his doubts on the subject, and added as a proof that Kant had only been able to give a probable evidence of it. Then Fichte, who had not joined in the conversation, interrupted the speaker, and in his blunt way said: "You have not read Kant; he has given incontestable evidence," and he tried in a detailed way to prove his statement by quotations from Kant's works.

Kant was small—less than five feet high; his chest very hollow, the right shoulder somewhat bent backward. His head was not remarkably large, but his blue eyes were splendid; his hair was blond, his complexion very fresh; his cheeks ruddy, even when he was old. His hearing was very acute, his voice not loud but soft, and able to stand much fatigue till his seventieth year. His memory was remarkable, his manners particularly refined. Even in the earlier days of his fame the public waited for the moment of his going to the meeting of the council. He was always very neatly dressed, and his serious face, his head bent somewhat to one side, his regular but not too slow step, gained the respect of the waiting crowd. He preferred a sand-colored coat, later a brown one, a powdered wig, carrying invariably his small three-cornered hat in his hand or on the top of his gold-headed cane, and always wore silk stockings, and shoes after the fashion of the time. A pair of these, marked in his handwriting, is still preserved in the collection of shoes of prominent men at Dresden.

His health was good, probably on account of the regularity of his mode of living. He rose summer and winter at five o'clock in the morning, and never once failed in this custom in thirty years. For breakfast he took nothing but two cups of very weak tea, smoked a pipe, and worked for his lectures, which began, as I have said, at seven and finished at ten. After the lectures he worked again till he dressed for dinner at one o'clock. This was his only meal for the whole day, and was therefore large and substantial, to which he added a pint bottle of claret. After dinner he invariably took an hour's walk, and on his return looked over the mail and newly-arrived books, then worked again and retired at ten o'clock, or somewhat earlier in winter. He believed that seven hours of sleep, including the earlier hours of the night, were necessary for health. His mind dominated over his feeble body in a surprising manner, and allowed him to forget even in intense exertion his weak constitution. It was not only a theory with him to master sickly feelings, but he put it in practice by his own strong will; and what he had once decided upon as a maxim he followed persistently without deviating from it. He was kind, benevolent, and of a pure and childlike disposition. He respected the character and capacity of other men, and, considering his own prominence, criticised others with a rare modesty. When Fichte sent him the manuscript of a philosophical work he had dedicated "to the Philosopher Kant," asking him to cancel what he did not agree to, the only word that Kant struck out was the word "Philosopher" before his name. It was his nature always to see the good in everything, and his custom to impress upon his pupils to do the same. He was so conscientious that he felt disturbed for a long time for having declined an invitation, saying he was engaged, when such was not the case.

Concerning his lectures he used to say: "I lecture not for the man of genius—he will work his own way through, nor for the stupid fellow, because it would not be worth while; but for those students who stand midway between the two, and who desire to be educated for their future profession." Kant respected freedom in thought everywhere, and hated adulation. He tried to learn more every day; the thought of a standstill in culture he abhorred. Eloquence he declared dangerous, and called it the sophistry of persuasion. Of literature he preferred the satirical part: Butler's 'Hudibras,' 'Don Quixote,' Swift, Juvenal, Horace, and of course a number of German authors, he liked above all; in philosophy, Locke, Pope, Hume, Hutcheson, Montaigne, and Rousseau; but in later years works on natural history and voyages formed his principal reading. Favorite passages of poetry he retained long in his memory. The one he most enjoyed was an epithalamium, a funny apotheosis of bachelorship. Kant was a bachelor, but, it is said, was twice on the point of proposing, but both times could not come to a decision till it was too late.

His remarkable self-control once saved his life. In one of his solitary walks, an insane butcher, a large knife in his hand, rushed at him furiously. Kant looked straight at him, and asked: "Is to-day butchering-day? I believe it is to-morrow." Happily the insane man was thrown off his guard by the reference to his calling, and allowed the philosopher to pass undisturbed.

The unrestrained development of freedom as a right of man, combined with strict obedience to authority, made up Kant's political code. At the time of the American Revolution he was entirely on the side of the Americans. Once, defending in society the American cause, he was strongly opposed by an Englishman, who was a stranger to him, and who warmly vindicated his country. The respect that Kant showed for the stranger's feelings in this dispute was the beginning of a lifelong friendship, which was not lessened by some peculiarities of Mr. Green. They had once planned to drive into the country together. Kant was late, and, meeting Mr. Green

in his carriage in the street, beckoned him to take him in. But Mr. Green bowed formally, and passed the philosopher, who was left behind without resenting the rudeness.

Kant was always much displeased when he received badly-written letters, because, as he said, it was always doubtful if the contents were worth the trouble of deciphering. He lived alone with his servant Lampe, a queer fellow, who in later years became a drunkard, and so obnoxious that Kant was obliged to dismiss him after thirty years' service; but he paid him the same wages, on condition that he should never more appear in his house. There exist many funny little stories about this curious fellow. Once, going home from a dinner-party with Lampe, who had probably made better use of his time with the bottle in the servants' room than his absent-minded master, they were stopped at the corner of a street by a trench, until Kant became aware that it was only the shadow of a newly-erected lamp-post.

Kant liked to take his dinner in company, and had every day a few invited guests—commonly two, never more than six, except on his birthday, when the number was increased to nine. In his work on Anthropology he asserts that the number at dinner should never be less than the number of the Graces, never more than the number of the Muses. At the table the guests were obliged to help themselves—a custom then unknown in Germany. His dinners were plain, of three courses and dessert, and before every one of his guests was a pint bottle of claret. But he used carefully to remember whether his guests preferred red or white wine, and when his memory began to fail he noted such things on little slips of paper. There were some peculiarities in his taste: the meat must have been one day old in the house, as he said he did not like to eat live meat. French fruit he liked to such an extent that he was once strongly displeased when some fruit ordered for him by a friend was eaten by the crew of the ship, which was detained by rough weather and shortness of provisions. But he was ready to acknowledge the next day the impropriety of his displeasure. He believed the right preparation of mustard for the table of importance, and was accustomed to do it himself. Almost the best small likeness of him is an aquarelle, now in private hands, showing him standing with the mustard-pot in his hands. Some friends, wishing to have this portrait, ordered it to be engraved, but thought it more appropriate to put a book in his hands, upon which, by a curious mistake, the title was put: 'Critique of Sound [instead of Pure] Reason.' In consequence of this mistake the engraving was ordered to be destroyed, and copies of it are very rare. A large Swiss cheese presented to him gave him great trouble, as he could not think how to manage the enormous wheel-shaped mass. Finally he ordered it to be divided with a saw. He was very moderate, and drank nothing but water, except at dinner. He liked to remain long at dinner and eat slowly, in the manner of the Romans—*ducere cœnam*. He enjoyed talking at dinner, and was accustomed to lead the conversation in a pleasant and interesting manner. When he remarked that the conversation was becoming too transcendental, he changed it in a humorous way. It is stated that Kant's conversation at this time often contained the most brilliant and remarkable thoughts.

In his earlier days, Kant used to take his after-dinner exercise in a very solitary place near the city, called up to this time "The Philosopher's Walk." But as the beggars, to whom he gave too generously, became at last so numerous as to disturb his meditation, he changed to another place. He was accustomed to pause and take a little rest always at the same spot, and the owner of a house near by, noticing this, placed a seat, which he daily used. In later times he walked in a garden-square near his own house. An old lady of my acquaintance told me the following interesting anecdote: As a young girl, her greatest desire was to see and to speak to the great philosopher. She decided to offer him a rosebud with a few words. As she stood behind the bushes near his accustomed seat she was much disappointed by his infirm and broken appearance; but when she handed him the flower he looked up at her, and his large eyes had such a wonderful expression that she forgot all her prepared speech, and, though usually unembarrassed, remained dumb before him. Kant acknowledged her kind intention, and his few benevolent words of thanks were treasures for her even in her old age. It is a remarkable fact that Kant never took a journey and never saw a city besides his native one. All the rich knowledge of the world in his possession he had acquired by the study of books.

The influence of Immanuel Kant on the development of Germany—I may say on knowledge and progress in a much larger part of the world—has been immense. The fact is notorious and has never been denied. Perhaps it will not be uninteresting to show the way in which his philosophical lectures immediately influenced the destiny of Prussia and Germany. Prussia, by the peace of Tilsit, gave up to France about one-half of her population, and was at once subjected to a system of plunder and outrage such as no nation, I presume, was ever before subjected to, and which soon brought her to the verge of despair.

"In the dark and melancholy winter of 1808, when the measure of French power and European suffering were alike full, at a moment when all hope of relief seemed to have fled from the Continent, and Prussia herself to have been marked out as the peculiar object of French vengeance—at this moment, when the rest of Germany lay in abject subjection, the Ministry of Prussia conceived and announced the determination of making up in moral what they had lost in physical strength. From that moment the character of Prussia began to change. The means were no sooner wanting than they were found. A new university was founded at Berlin, from which a free spirit has gone forth that has wrought like a fever through all Germany."

Surely, as Mr. George Ticknor, whose words I have just quoted, says, the means for moral improvement were no sooner wanted than they were found; but these means were almost without exception young and intelligent men, disciples of Kant; and I must remark here that the rising against Napoleon was first started at Königsberg, in Eastern Prussia, while this province was still in the iron clutch of the conqueror. The principal influence of Kant's philosophical lectures falls between 1780 and 1790. It happened, fortunately, that, when the King was obliged to appeal to the people, a large number of Kant's pupils were just of age to be employed in the most important positions. But a fact not known, I believe, is that up to 1840 most of the leading and prominent positions and offices in Prussia were in the hands of pupils of Immanuel Kant, certainly to the greatest advantage of the culture of the country. Perhaps more astonishing than the founding of a university in such sad circumstances was the founding of the first observatory in Prussia—a result of the exertions of Kant's students. It was the observatory at Königsberg, celebrated by its first director, Bessel; and I remember very well when, later, he showed me a voluminous and very important correspondence with his distant friend, Professor Bond, of Cambridge, Mass.

The influence of Immanuel Kant in a larger range does not date back of 1782. It is a curious fact that his masterpiece, the 'Critique of Pure Reason,' was about to be sent to the paper-mill as waste-paper, because it did not sell, when a detailed criticism in the *Literatur-Zeitung* drew the attention of the world to this treasure. From this time Kant's philosophy ruled unquestioned for the next twenty years, and much of the barrenness of the literature of that time must be undoubtedly charged to its account. Respect for Kant's genius, however, was not limited to the learned part of the population. For several years everybody knew of his declining health, but the more unavoidable the separation became, the more anxiously the whole community looked forward to it. The bad news that he had departed in the forenoon of February 12, 1804, spread rapidly. The community had lost its most reputed son and citizen, the world had lost its philosopher. The sky was clear and bright; only one small cloud was to be seen in the blue zenith. And it is related that a common soldier directed the attention of the people to it, saying: "There is Kant's soul going to heaven."

HERMANN AUGUST HAGEN.

ENGLISH AND FRENCH RELATIONS IN THE EAST.

THE ENGLISH VIEW.

LONDON, October 6, 1881.

DURING the last month foreign affairs have again come somewhat unexpectedly to the front. It is perhaps a characteristic of the democratic times in which we live, when Lord Beaconsfield's celebrated phrase that "the world is governed by sovereigns and states men" has ceased to be true, that it is almost impossible for the public to keep up a continuous interest in matters which are not constantly brought before its notice. In home affairs it is different. The grievance which has brought about a cry for reform continues to be felt till the reform comes, and there is no abatement of interest in the question till it has been dealt with. But the interest in foreign affairs is necessarily spasmodic; it is out of all reason to suppose that the grievances of (say) Armenians or other misgoverned subjects of the Porte, or even British interests in some remote corner of the globe, can succeed in keeping their hold on the public mind for long periods together. These things are left to the executive, which acts on its own responsibility, subject to the chance of popular displeasure if it makes mistakes; and hence public opinion is alternately keenly excited by some incident abroad, or profoundly lethargic about this whole class of questions.

After the settlement of the Greek and Montenegrin difficulties, there was no pressing question to keep up interest in the affairs of Eastern Europe; for such questions as the Armenian question could scarcely be called pressing in the sense of imperatively demanding immediate action, and the public were lapsing into a lethargic state of mind on foreign affairs. The revolt of the Egyptian colonels on the 10th of last month has, however, made a complete change in public feeling; once more a foreign question of first-class importance looms on the horizon, and the organs of the press are full of articles and discussions upon it. The events which took place, and the temporary arrangement which has been made, will be in the recollection of your readers, and I need not recapitulate them; but I will call attention to one or two matters which still require clearing up. Who inspired the colonels to take the step they took? Was it due to intrigues of the Porte, or some other occult influence? This is one point on which a great deal will be said, but on which positive information will be as hard to get as it

is in most intrigues of which Constantinople and the Palace are the centre. Another point which requires clearing up is how far the revolt is the outcome of a *bona-fide* national movement of Arabs against Turkish rule, or how far it was a revolt against the European Control. That there is a very strong feeling among the Arab population against the Turks and all their works is, I believe, incontestable; but the important question for us is how far this feeling extends to the European Control. It may be that the Control, connected as it was at the outset with the direct action of the Porte, has an extra share of unpopularity attaching to it from its origin, and that if the influence of Europe were put forward in the direction of securing the independence of Egypt, this element of unpopularity would disappear. Sufficient light has not yet been thrown on this point, though enough has come out to make it clear that something in the nature of the uprising of a spirit of nationality is one of the elements which will have to be reckoned with. However this may be, the state of things is sufficiently serious to have set the whole country a-thinking what had best be done.

It is satisfactory to note that public opinion is unanimous on one point—viz., in holding that it is impossible for us to practise absolute non-intervention in the affairs of Egypt. It is acknowledged on all hands, even by those who are thoroughly opposed to anything like Jingoism, that our interest in the freedom of the Suez Canal, and in retaining the fullest facilities for our communications with India, is so paramount that we cannot afford to allow any power to obtain so great an influence in Egypt as we have ourselves. Our interests in this international highway are greater than those of any other nation, and we cannot suffer it to be brought under the control of any power whose possible hostility might incommode us. The feeling is, however, more that of a wish to say "hands off" to other nations than of a strong desire to occupy the country ourselves, though it is felt that if intervention of such a kind there must be, the intervening power should be England. On another point there seems to be practical agreement, and that is, that we ought never to have entered into our present partnership with France. It is a partnership primarily of a purely financial kind. To ensure the good government of Egypt and the payment of interest to the bondholders (your readers will put the one or the other object first, according as they are of a cynical or philanthropic turn of mind), England and France have undertaken, with the consent of the Porte and of the present Khedive, the management of its finances, but there is no security that the arrangement entered into will be permanent beyond the fear of what the two Powers may do if it is forcibly broken through. Recent events have shown that that security cannot be found either in the good intentions of the Khedive or his ministers, and that the fear of what the two Powers may do is considerably lessened by the known difficulty they have in acting at all. Hence there is a general condemnation of the partnership entered into by the late Government which has made it necessary for us to take action, and yet seriously hampered our freedom to take what action we may think our interests demand.

Various modes of dealing with the present crisis have been suggested. The first which was put forward was Turkish intervention; but it was felt at once that for a Government like the present one, the leading motive of whose policy in Eastern Europe has been to restrict the rule of the Turk within the narrowest possible limits, to propose to resuscitate that rule in a country where it had become almost nominal, would be an act of grave inconsistency, and would really do little to settle the question. The recent action of the Porte in sending Commissioners to Cairo has quite confirmed this impression. It has been received with marked disapproval, and may lead to consequences which its promoters little anticipated. Another proposal has been that there should be a joint intervention by England and France; but, besides the fact that France is understood to have refused, there is the general objection to such joint action, in which divergent interests soon begin to make themselves felt, and there is the particular objection that in this case France has raised up such a spirit of indignation against her among all Arab races, on account of her action in Tunis, that her intervention in Egypt would excite the greatest hostility in the native population, and that our task would be rendered proportionately more difficult. A third course which has been suggested is that the Powers should declare the independence of Egypt and guarantee its neutrality, as has been done in the case of Belgium and Switzerland. A step of this kind would, it is urged, satisfy all that is "national" in the present movement; it would gratify the country by ridding it of the rule of the Turk, while at the same time it would commit the Powers to a definite agreement calculated to restrain their mutual encroachments. I am inclined to think that our policy is likely to take this direction. The action of the Porte in sending over its Commissioners is likely to precipitate matters, and the Assembly of Notables which the Khedive has summoned may also work in the same sense. It must be borne in mind, however, that the independence of Egypt would not solve all difficulties. Independent Egypt may turn against the Control, and in that case the Control must either be abandoned or upheld by force. To abandon it while the reasons—*i. e.*, the claims of the bondholders—which made it necessary in the first instance still remained in force, would be almost impossible, while to uphold it by force involves the question, Who is to apply the force—England or France, or both? The balance of power on the Mediterranean has been so much altered in favor of France by her protectorate over Tunis, that it might be thought not unreasonable that a preponderating influence should be given to England elsewhere. But the French can scarcely be expected to see things in this light, and England's interests are too paramount to allow her to wait upon the good pleasure of her ally. The only conclusion, therefore, which can be drawn from this position is that there are here the elements of a rupture which it will require all the good sense of both nations to avert. The probable failure—for so I must regard it—of the negotiations for a commercial treaty will not improve matters, but, on the other hand, it will make it less incumbent on this country to make concessions to France in so vital a matter as that of Egypt. The Prime Minister is to speak at Leeds this week, and the country will look with eager anxiety for his deliverances on this question. An absolutely quiescent or *laissez-faire* foreign policy, which would leave the impression that the Government had no firm purpose, but were drifting on from day to day with a hand-to-mouth policy, would produce a most unfavorable impression; whereas, on the other hand, tokens of a firm and resolute attitude would be welcomed, and much strengthen the position of the Government in the country.

H.

THE FRENCH VIEW.

PARIS, September 30, 1881.

THE European sky is overcast, and there are on every side what M. Rouher used to call "des points noirs." It would perhaps not be respectful to class the interview at Dantzig as a "point noir," since the Russian and German official papers represent this solemn interview as a mere guarantee of peace. Still, as Austria is now completely in the orbit of Northern Germany, and as the interview at Dantzig is to be followed by another interview between the Emperors of Russia and Austria, if not of the three Emperors, it is clear that the great Continental alliance, which was interrupted by the Eastern war, is to be resumed; and it will be resumed under new circumstances, as Austria's policy is now more closely connected with that of Prussia, and Russia enters the alliance with a sort of humility which she has never shown before. Under the circumstances created by the Eastern war, by the assassination of the late Czar, and by the conspiracy of the Nihilists, the alliance of the Emperors means in reality the hegemony of Prussia in Europe; and Prince Bismarck, though he has shown that he can assume heavy responsibilities, must be now almost afraid of the political weight which is placed upon him. He has to direct the movement of Austria towards the East, and to watch in a sense over the destinies of the Russian Empire, which implicitly implores his moral help; and he must do so with an almost certain knowledge that there is no gratitude between nations, and that Russia, having once reorganized her administration, and emerged from the dark abyss of crime and revolution, may one day become a formidable enemy of the German nationality. The alliance of the three Emperors has a certain air of mystery; it is surrounded with so much glamour that the very word is apt to excite some uneasiness in the western nations, and especially in England. England does not like to be kept outside of any great European combination; she likes to have her hand in all negotiations, and suspects danger as soon as she feels ignorant. Her power is in many respects imaginary, and she instinctively hates solid, heavy, material powers, such as those which a European coalition might set up, if she cannot, as she did under Napoleon I., subsidize them or direct their blows. And, though there is nothing aggressive in the modern alliances of sovereigns, England does not regard them with much favor. She feels at once drawn towards France when she hears of them, and she remembers the days of the Crimea, when France and England together dictated terms to Russia, and, it may be said, to Europe.

It is curious to see how similar circumstances may arise under a French Republic and under a French Empire. English statesmen now look upon the leaders of the French Republic with the same sentiments with which they looked upon the followers of Napoleon III.; the same incense is burned before them, the same temptations are offered, the same Olympus of aristocracy, of wit, of beauty, of intelligence, of delicate and refined life is opened to them; the new *parvenus* are treated with the same consideration—the same objects are to be attained, and, possibly, by the same means. It would be unjust to see any hypocrisy in such conduct: England shows in her own domestic affairs that she feels a genuine regard for the successful efforts of all men; that she can distinguish talent, eloquence, courage, wherever they are found. Her aristocracy is incessantly invigorated by democratic additions. There is a real, sincere interest felt in English society for the *new* men of our Third Republic; and I should not be far from the truth if I said that Gambetta was more popular in England than in France.

Two circumstances, however, have thrown a chill, as the French say, on this situation—the Tunisian affair and the Egyptian military revolt. The Tunisian intervention threatened at one moment to change the feeling of friendship now existing between the two nations into a feeling

of absolute hostility. The anger of England was somewhat soothed by the great difficulties which France encountered in the occupation of Tunis. These difficulties have culminated in the necessity of sending a whole army to Africa, and of planning a campaign the result of which can hardly have been quite foreseen. It seems hardly possible to understand why England should object to the extension of the French provinces in the north of Africa. The conquest of Tunis will probably be not quite so long and so difficult an enterprise as the conquest of Algeria, for "vis crescit eundo"; but we may be sure that it will not be an easy matter. We may go to Kairouan and take it by force, but France will never fairly be mistress of Tunis till she has made roads, built railways and forts, and created all the instruments of civilization which are absolutely wanting in a province perhaps the most barbarous in northern Africa. The inconvenience of the occupation will always be the neighborhood of Tripoli, for Tripoli is still the Porte, and whoever is neighbor of the Porte is, so to speak, the neighbor of all Europe. It is no secret that the Sultan, who decidedly thinks himself destined to play a great part in the Mussulman world, is constantly sending troops and ammunition to Tripoli. We shall probably find behind the heavy walls of Kairouan, the holy city, guns sent from the Dardanelles. We are obliged to shut our eyes on these hostile proceedings of the Sultan, because we cannot now choose to quarrel with him; but we must be prepared to meet constantly the secret opposition of the Porte in Tunis. The conquest of this province must therefore be looked upon as a "big job," and those who desire to see France engaged in a difficult affair may be fully satisfied. Surely, England, who undertakes to rule over so many millions of men, and who thinks that her manifest destiny is to govern so many races and countries, cannot find fault with us if we attempt to give more security to our African provinces. She, if anybody, must know that one annexation calls for another: "abyssus abyssum vocat."

In fact, England is secretly afraid lest Egypt be at the end of this chain of annexations; but her fears are very idle—the distance between Tunis and Alexandria is very great. The military revolution in Egypt has, nevertheless, revived many old jealousies. France and England have established in Egypt a *condominium*, and it is said that all *condominia* end badly, as Austria learned to her cost after the joint occupation of the Danish Duchies. The financial arrangements which have restored the prosperity of Egypt have been taken too independently of the national interests. It seemed to the Controllers that the only thing to do was to diminish the expenses of the Government, to receive the taxes, and to send as much money as possible to the English and French creditors. This was a superficial view of the case. Behind or beside the Controllers, who treated Egypt merely as a joint-stock concern, there were the Consuls of the European Powers, who did not forget their old rivalries, and who suffered in their pride and in their professional honor; there were the new international tribunals, which were constantly at variance with the Controllers. This situation was full of danger; the question of the army was the first symptom of a very perilous situation. The Controllers had but one wish, to diminish the army and to provide for its final destruction. But some of the Consuls did not consider the question from a purely financial standpoint. France in old times helped Mehemet Ali; she was ready to go to war in order to defend the independence of Egypt against the Porte and against England; she had always treated Egypt as an independent power, and a power which proclaims itself independent must be ready to fight for independence. M. de Ring, our Consul, disagreed with the Controllers; he showed them that it was very imprudent to drive so many officers and men, for whom the army had become a career, to despair. The Controllers answered that the army was worthless: the regiments had fled before the Abyssinians, they had fled before the Russians. M. de Ring answered that they were unwilling to fight for the Porte, but in old times the Egyptians had showed themselves to be tolerable soldiers. At any rate, the Controllers were advised to act prudently, and not to force the army to rebel. M. de Ring notified the French Government that the Colonels would rebel, and that they would almost perforce constitute themselves the representatives of a national party against the European Powers. He was recalled, as the French Government was anxious, above all, to maintain perfect harmony between the Controllers, and the result is known. The ministry which was looked upon as a mere tool of the Controllers, has been replaced, at the dictation of the army, by a ministry which is looked upon as representing purely Egyptian interests. It is evident that the situation is grave. England and France are now both desirous to work harmoniously in Egypt, but a new administration in either country may have other desires. England might be tempted to secure for herself a better position in Egypt; France might be obliged to lean more on Egyptian interests and to return to her old policy. The ex-Khedive, who lives in Italy, can and probably will work upon the feelings of Italy, who resents very much not having been admitted to the Egyptian *condominium*.

THE POLITICAL CONDITION OF GREECE.

ATHENS, September 28, 1881.

A CURIOUS fatality seems to follow the Greeks in all their attempts to assume the position in the political world to which their intelligence and capacity for progress really entitle them. No nation has ever, in so short a career, been called on to struggle with so many adverse circumstances, and kept up hope and courage through them all. Their political existence is a curious political problem, and one of the shrewdest westerners I know in Greece said to me a few days ago: "I have lived in Greece forty years, and every day find that I do not yet know the Greeks." As I only know them for sixteen years, I will not be so bold as to profess to be able to solve the riddle—only to guess around it a little.

The Greek is a born democrat and republican—words not always synonymous—and the institutions of royalty have never had any hold on him. The monarchy, with its fictitious glitter and Bengal lights, has never deluded his shrewd sense of reality; he has no reverence for one man above another, and he never forgets that the King is a mere convention. Here is the first and most telling incongruity—monarchy growing with no soil for its roots, a huge parasite, sapping, and, what is worse, corrupting the national vitality. Again, the Greek is the most individual of men, one unlike every other—shrewd and prosperous alone, paralyzed and lost in association. The communes are individual states in which the greatest co-operation of which the race is capable is obtained, and all the progress made in Greece is in the prosperity of the commune. This is circumscribed by a general government whose centralization is a caricature of that of any elsewhere now existing constitutional government. The commune is not free to build a bridge or repair a road or pier without the consent of the Government at Athens. Incongruity the second. The Greek is, moreover, the most easily governed of all European races—moral in most respects to a remarkable degree, peaceable and even amiable in his dealings with other men; but his Government is built on the model furnished by the Bavarians fifty years ago—law tempered by military despotism—the third incongruity. The country is poor and needs all the thrift and energy with which its people as individuals are gifted. The Government, by the inherent vices of its construction and the constitution of the kingdom, is one of the most corrupt in Christian Europe, and its civil service, carried on on the American principle, wastes a large proportion of its resources in the most flagrant ways. The centralization of every branch of administration—national, provincial, and communal—at Athens, under the rule of change of employees with every change of Ministry, when Ministries may change, and sometimes do, every three months, gives the maximum of facility for peculation, as well as inducements to it.

The incongruities do not end here, but it will be seen that a country so situated can hardly be expected to show results in its economical condition such as its people can be proud of. And the misfortunes of Greece have not been limited to the chapter of incongruities; graver misfortunes awaited it in the personality of its sovereigns. Otho was a little despot, of the old-German school, who hated the idea of constitutional government, and even when compelled to accord it revolted against its restraints. To maintain himself in his autocratic temper and neutralize his enforced concessions to popular liberty he surrounded himself by the men brought up in the old Pasha school of politics—the palikars and Turk-fighters—men who had no conception of legality, and to whom government was only an advanced form of klephtism. His highest care was to demoralize the people so that the popular power might in practice not interfere with his autocracy. Still he had some pride as King, and labored hard for the aggrandizement of Greece, thought of the interests of the country as far as his prior claims permitted, and felt himself, as he really was, King of Greece, as far as king could fit the headship of a race utterly averse to royalty.

Driven out of the country by a spontaneous revolt of public feeling, the Greeks naturally turned westward to find his successor, as they saw that England was really the arbiter of their destinies; and when an English representative suggested a prince of the House of Denmark the Greeks caught with enthusiasm at the notion, and, with their usual want of practical common sense, instead of finding a man whose character had been proved and developed, chose a boy who had nothing to show to prove his fitness, and who finally only proved the folly of going to the spoiled and demoralized younger sons of half-effete royal families; sure in any case only to be accorded some member of the family whose worthlessness to his own country made his departure no loss.

That the change from Otho to George was from bad to worse is now acknowledged by everybody in Greece. The new King, in addition to the usual demoralization of princes, was a weak, vain, and pleasure-loving youth, profoundly selfish and with only one strong point—his obstinate adherence to his own whims. No despotism is so disastrous as that of a weak character; and George has already shown that he knows how to take advantage of the defects of the Greek Constitution to enable him to evade all the most onerous responsibilities of his position. The first impression his personality gives to an observer not in awe of royalty is that of being nearly a simpleton; in fact, his intellectual attainments beyond languages are scarcely above those of an average American schoolboy of twelve. He

hates study and books, submits to the superficial cramming which is necessary to his position with bad grace, but absolutely refuses to acquire a thorough knowledge of anything except horses. He is not, however, devoid of a certain cunning, which enables him to present always a good face to the diplomatic corps, whom he succeeds in persuading that he is the victim of the jealousies of his people; and to play off one set of Ministers against another when he has any particular object to gain. The fact that a ministry can always be made of men who have no views beyond the advisability of holding office, and the power the King possesses of dismissing a ministry and dissolving a Chamber if it does not meet his views, make constitutional restraints a mockery. In fact, nothing prevents the King from doing what he pleases, and as he takes no interest in the country and has a dominant passion—avarice—which he gratifies at the expense of the nation in the most undignified ways, giving rise to the common saying at Athens that he is scraping up funds for his exile, it may easily be understood that he has long ago exhausted the loyal enthusiasm of his subjects. He is, in fact, cordially detested by the better part of the population, and a very slight provocation might determine his departure from the country, which is to him simply a farm from which, knowing the insecurity of his tenure, he is getting all he can while it lasts.

His constitutional timidity, or what we should in plain people call cowardice, is the real key to the failure of the good intentions of the western powers and the really heroic efforts of the people to secure a satisfactory solution of the recent Turco-Greek crisis. The King had from the beginning determined not to fight or even to go to the frontier, and as Greece is really as to foreign matters governed by one or other of the diplomatic corps through the King, he naturally fell into the plan of that diplomatic agent who promised so to manage things as to avert war. As Greek ambitions conflict with Austrian plans, the latter, backed by Bismarck, of course prevailed; and Epirus, important to Austria in her possible contest with Italy for the dominion of the Adriatic, was sacrificed by the King and Coumoundouros really because the former was afraid to lead his army across the frontier. The blue-book discloses the curious fact that the Greek Government took the lead in urging the reduction of Greek claims to the point at which they were settled, in order to avoid a war which the large majority of the nation had desired, and which all were ready to enter into if need were. To those who knew the extraordinarily timid nature of the King there was no puzzle in the matter, but as kings rarely have the truth told about them, the world at large credited him with the sincerity of his professions of warlike purpose. His habitual surrounding always foretold that there would be no war, and some gave as the reason "that the King was a coward." The fact is, however, that he takes no interest, and has never taken any, in the advancement of the kingdom or in its prosperity. He never visits any public institution or works, and in the whole period of the preparations for war, which the nation was assured by him and the Ministry were serious, he never followed the drilling of a single battalion, took the slightest interest in the organization of the army, inspected a single ship of the navy, or even paid the cheap compliment to the opinion of the army or people of visiting a hospital. Of course, with such dispositions even a brave man would be indifferent to the results of a war; but George was more than indifferent.

It is no wonder that Greece is ill governed; it would be remarkable if it were otherwise with a Government based on a Constitution totally unfitted to the country, with a King utterly careless of its interests or its honor, and always under the control of a diplomatic corps which does not contain one sincere friend of Greece, or one Minister who would not sacrifice the internal order and prosperity to the furthering of the intrigues of which Greece is constantly the object. The opinions of the people stand for nothing in the matter, for so great is the pressure which the Government can put on the electors that a Ministry is certain of having a majority, no matter what its views, and the corruption of the civil service generally suffices to control even an assembly originally hostile, while if refractory the Ministry can dissolve it at will. And this absurd Constitution is hedged in by as great precautions as if it were the wisdom of revelation. A project for amendment can only be entertained by a constituent assembly, and this can only be called by the agreement of three successive legislative assemblies. But with the present complication in the Government no constituent is possible, as the King will consent to no changes which menace his prerogative. Without a revolution, therefore, no reform or progress in the country is possible, because both King and Constitution combine to prevent them.

Notes.

THE last in the field of the American bibliographical series was perhaps among the first conceived. Henry Holt & Co.'s "Lives of American Worthies," now announced, opens up a wider field than its predecessors, and of course overlaps them at certain points. The peculiarity, however, of this series lies in the choice of writers from among the conspicuous humorists of the country, as the list will show: Columbus, by W. L. Alden of the New York *Times*; Captain John Smith, by Charles Dudley Warner; William Penn, by Robert J. Burdette of the Burlington *Hawkeye*; Washington, by John Habberton; Jackson, by George T. Lanigan of the New York *World*, etc. Until a sample is before us we hesitate to decide upon the motive of this singular conjunction of subjects and authors, nor will we undertake to guess what worthies have been assigned to Dr. Holmes, Mr. Howells, Mark Twain, or the Danbury *News* man.——Under the title of 'Common Sense about Women,' Lee & Shepard will publish for Col. T. W. Higginson a selection from his contributions to various journals on the theme which interests him so deeply, and which he has notoriously treated with more candor and discrimination than any person who has written anything like so much about it. A portion of the matter will appear for the first time.——Dr. Geo. R. Entler, of Franklin, Delaware Co., N. Y., is now revising for the press the translation, on which he has been engaged for several years, of Scholten's (Dutch) 'History of Religion and Philosophy.'——In the simultaneous publication of Paul B. du Chaillu's 'Land of the Midnight Sun' in several countries and languages, Harper & Brothers will have the American edition, in two volumes, profusely illustrated.——Following their 'Longfellow Leaflets,' Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have brought out 'Holmes Leaflets,' in prose and verse.——The entertaining 'Life of Lord Campbell,' edited by his daughter Mrs. Hardcastle, which was reviewed at length in Nos. 822, 823 of the *Nation*, has found American publishers in Frederick D. Linn & Co., Jersey City—an unusual quarter for such an enterprise. The work, in two volumes, is manufactured in New Jersey, and is very presentable.

—There is a difference between the English and American library conferences. The English are decidedly antiquarian in tone, the American exclusively practical. The English delight in papers that relate the history of some library, enumerate the great men who have been connected with it, and describe its manuscript treasures and its incunabula. We do not recollect a single paper of this sort in the five meetings which the librarians have held in this country, one reason probably being that so few of our libraries have any history, any manuscripts, or any incunabula. This disposition is reflected in the account given in *Notes and Queries* of the conference just held in London. The historical papers are abstracted at some length, but three practical matters are dismissed with the remarks that one session was occupied with the dry details of cataloguing, that the motion for opening libraries on Sunday was advocated only by its mover and seconder, and that the proposal of the Council of the Association to establish examinations and give a certificate of qualification for librarianship was received, but not approved. Sunday opening has never been discussed in the meetings of the American Library Association; individual libraries have settled the question for themselves. One has had its reading-room open for more than seventy-five years. In the same city the public library has been open for several years. The practice is very slowly extending through the country, with no remarkable results one way or the other. Perhaps the most useful end accomplished by opening on Sunday is to serve as a safety-valve. Not many persons wish to visit libraries on Sunday; but those who do are discontented if they cannot, and a certain number of people of the progressive class are very much discontented for them. Open the libraries, and this irritation is appeased at once, and nobody is injured. The town or city where the change is made is as quiet as before on the holy day; there is a little less lounging in the streets, and the churches are as full, or as empty, as before. It is merely a question of expense, and, so far as we have observed, the use made of libraries on the Sunday is sufficient to justify the extra expense. When our English cousins learn to look at the matter in this light—which they will do after a time, when a few more libraries have tried the experiment—they will not have their conference annually agitated by persistent efforts to secure the approval of the Association for this desecration (we use the word simply in its etymological sense, not meaning any reproach). The policy of making the innovation wherever public opinion will allow it (as has been done at Manchester, with entire success), and not attempting to force reluctant and timid brethren into it, will be found the most effectual and the quickest. The next generation, or the next but one, will wonder that such a move should ever have provoked opposition.

—The other matter tabled was a greater loss. The Committee on the Examination of Library Assistants had proposed a very sensible plan for examining candidates in certain subjects the knowledge of which is indisputably necessary to librarians. Two sets of subjects were proposed, and certificates of two corresponding grades to be granted. That this should not be done is very greatly to be regretted. Even if the thing proved a failure, it would have been worth the trouble it had cost to demonstrate that it was impracticable. But it would not have failed. There are strong and not wholly unjust prejudices in England against competitive examinations. Everything human is imperfect, and some examiners have asked very absurd questions, and the general outcome of the system has been an alarming increase of cramming and cram literature. But we may remark, in parenthesis

that the opponents of the present movement have never proved that the competitors, if they had not been crammed, would have acquired any well-digested knowledge. If we may believe the accounts of the ante-examination period, the present method, unsatisfactory as it is in some respects, is an improvement, even in respect to learning, and leaving entirely out of view the abolition of patronage. The opponents of examinations urge that they cannot enquire into the most important qualifications. For certain situations a head librarian would rather have a man who can see a thing at a glance, can take an idea from a half hint, can put two and two together, and understand how circumstances alter cases, who has common sense and "gumption," than one who has passed successfully all the examinations that the Chinese and the British empires combined could devise. In other situations the main qualification is a capacity for passive obedience and a Chinese literalness in following commands. Examinations, we are told, do not reveal these things; but this objection misses the point. There is a decided difference between a competitive examination for a given place, in which the one who gets the most marks may be by no means the one best able to perform the duties, and an examination such as the Council proposed for a certificate of competency, which simply excludes unfit candidates, but leaves the choice for any particular post to be determined among the qualified by other considerations. Their plan, we take it, was strictly analogous to the physical examination of a recruit before he is received into the army, or of a fireman in some of our cities. There is certain elementary knowledge without which the most capable man in the world is not fit to do library work; and if a man lacks that, he should be made to go and get it before he can have any chance of appointment anywhere. When the assistants are appointed by the librarian, it will give him a better body to choose from; when they are appointed by another person or body it will diminish the evils of patronage. The examination proposed corresponds to that which precedes the degree of B.A., or M.D., or LL.B. It is a safeguard which the learned professions have found it absolutely necessary to require. The Council, no doubt, desire to make librarianship a learned profession. Their plan, if adopted, would have had an excellent effect. It would have raised the tone of the craft; it would have put a bar in the way of favoritism; it would have contributed to spread the idea among library committees that the work does need some special training, and to remove the prevalent impression that any broken-down minister, or pupilless teacher, or low-salaried clerk, is capable of taking charge of a library.

—The following letter, addressed to the editors of the *Evening Post*, we publish as a curious illustration of the delusions which exist on the subject of copyright:

SIR: There is one feature of the international copyright question which I am surprised to find receiving so little attention. English authors and publishers are very averse to what they call the unfair proposition to insert into an international copyright law the provision that English works to be copyrighted here must be published here, and many free-trade advocates support them in their opposition. Let us see how a law of international copyright without such a provision would operate. An English author copyrights a work in this country, thus effectually stopping all American reproductions, except as he shall authorize. He does not choose to publish in this country (and no Englishman will publish here unless compelled to do so). Under a simple international copyright law American purchasers must purchase English copies at English prices. The English author can freely bring in his English-published books and sell them at any rate the English publisher may demand. "But the rule will work the same way on the other side," you may say. Wait and let us see. An American writer takes out an English copyright for *his* work, and tries the same game as his English cousin. At the very first landing in Great Britain he meets a customs officer, who prohibits the entry of the American-published books and confiscates any copy. The English copyright has made the American author's work an English book, and foreign reproductions of English books are piracies and as such are forbidden entrance into Great Britain. To be allowed a sale in England at all a work copyrighted in England must be published in England. Our free-trade cousins are very protective in the book tariff, as the American author will find to his cost if such a provision as English authors and publishers oppose be not insisted on. As Pat would say, the reciprocity of this arrangement seems to be all on one side.

I am neither author nor publisher, and write wholly from the point of view which seems to be that of independence and FAIRNESS.

The fact is that the law on the subject of importing copyrighted books into this country is the same as the law in England. It is in substance that the author can import and sell and no one else can. 5 and 6 Vict., c. 4–5, sec. xiii., makes importation of foreign copies of English copyrighted works by "any person not being the proprietor of the copyright, or some person authorized by him," illegal. Substantially the same provision was contained in 8 Anne, c. 19, the original English copyright act, passed in 1709. Similar provisions are to be found in U. S. R. S., sec. 4,964: "Every person who, after the recording of the title of any book as provided by this chapter, shall, ... without the consent of the proprietor of the copyright first obtained in writing, signed in presence of two or more witnesses, . . . *import* . . . any copy of such book, shall forfeit every copy thereof to such proprietor, and shall also forfeit and pay such damages as may be recovered in a civil action by such proprietor in any court of competent jurisdiction." These provisions of law were enacted, not as "Fairness" supposes, to protect manufacturers of books, but owners of copyright.

—We suggested a fortnight ago that the controversy about the authorship of the "Danites" would not be complete until the "amanuensis" who was said to have been hired at $25 an act was heard from. It is impossible, it seems, for him to come forward, for he is dead, but his widow is living, and she insists that her husband wrote the entire play himself. Whenever there is a dispute as to the authorship of a play, there is also a good deal of mystery surrounding its identity, and such turns out to be the case with regard to the "Danites." An attempt was made last week to settle this as well as the other various matters at issue with regard to the drama by the somewhat indirect means of a criminal libel suit against a gentleman who may be said to have an entirely accidental connection with the case. It seems that Mr. A. C. Wheeler, who is a dramatic publisher and critic, found it necessary in the course of his professional duty to publish a letter from Mr. Joaquin Miller, making the somewhat novel charge against Mr. Rankin that he was "the most colossal liar and the most impudent thief that ever made use of the practices of both without the necessary skill of either." Mr. Rankin, after a careful examination of this charge, came to the conclusion which most laymen would probably have reached, that it was criminally libellous, and got out a warrant returnable before that learned magistrate, Mr. Justice Flammer, at the Essex Market Police Court. The case came up on Thursday, and developed some very interesting features. A preliminary objection was made that the language of Mr. Miller did not constitute a criminal libel, but Justice Flammer, no doubt feeling that the literary interest in the case was too great to let it be disposed of without hearing the evidence, decided to let the witnesses testify first and decide whether he could hear the case afterwards. The testimony of Mr. Rankin was most interesting, but leaves us in much doubt, as we have said, as to the identity of the play. The germ of the "Danites," it seems, Mr. Rankin found in a story called the "First Families of the Sierras," but there was a great deal of evidence on the subject of "49," "Old 49," "The Two Orphans," "Nanil, the Dutch Orphan," and "California Gold," the exact drift of which we do not understand, unless it was to show the colossal and at the same time unintellectual character of Mr. Rankin's literary thefts. However this may be, it is a satisfaction to know that Mr. Rankin's title to the authorship of these various plays does not rest upon any claim on his part that he is a "literary man," for on the question being put to him whether he was that sort of a man, he replied with some heat that he did not wish to be insulted. When the proceedings had reached this stage the learned justice suddenly dismissed the case. He stated that he had consulted with the District Attorney, and had reached the conclusion that to call a man a colossal literary thief was not criminally libellous. This decision is of interest to dramatic authors as well as to critics and publishers, as under it they may as well abandon all idea of criminal proceedings in future. Mr. Rankin is accordingly now going to begin a civil suit for damages.

—The late Dr. Josiah G. Holland will be more widely mourned than if he had been a greater poet or a more original prose writer. No literary man in America, perhaps, was so accurately fitted for his precise work or filled a limited sphere so well. He had the immense advantage of keeping on a plane of thought just above that of a vast multitude of readers, each one of whom he could touch with the hand and raise a little upward. Thirty years ago, when John P. Hale was at the height of his political popularity, and a public dinner was given to him in Boston, Mr. Emerson was present and saw Hale for the first time. Studying the face and form of the burly New Hampshire statesman with keen interest, the philosopher said to his next neighbor at table, "See what an average man he is! He looks just like five hundred other men. That is the secret of his power." It was thus with Dr. Holland: he thought just the thoughts of the average American citizen, of the type unjustly called Philistine by Matthew Arnold; he stated those thoughts with admirable good sense, and he fortified them with a moral standard uniformly high. Hence his popularity really travelled westward on the wave of our national civilization. To the more staid and critical East it was a constant amazement to see the extent of his fame; but once beyond the Alleghanies his books sold by scores, and perhaps hundreds, where even Longfellow and Whittier sold by twos and threes. He inevitably reaped his reward, not merely in fortune and fame, but in that which his conscientious nature prized even more—a great personal influence over an enormous constituency. It is also to be remarked that this great popularity was not won by the slightest conscious or unconscious sacrifice. There was no deliberate lowering of aim or intellectual standard. He did not make that sad discovery which Goethe and Schiller confided to each other: "We make money by our poor books." Dr. Holland made money by all his books, and not one of them was, from his point of view, a poor one. No doubt, this easy fame affected his estimate, and he was a little tempted to assume that, if any author was less popular than himself, it was the author's fault. Still, there were traces both in his writ-

ings and in his conversation of an ambition not quite satisfied. There is reason to think that, having conquered the many, he would have liked to end by conquering the few. It is probable that the classification made by the critics did not quite suit him: no man permanently enjoys being ranked with Tupper. But it is hard for any very successful author to rise far above the level of his copyright account; after all, one writes to be read, and is not that the best writing which has most readers? Add to this that Dr. Holland had no quick sense of humor; he sometimes gambolled a little in his writings, but the really funny things in them were often those most seriously written—as where, in one of his longer poems, he follows up a pretty little lyric about the baby in the cradle with some dreamy and ideal verses about the salt-pork in the barrel. Now no man without a sense of humor can properly calculate the difference of altitude between himself and Shakspere.

—The real strength of Dr. Holland—that which made even his most mediocre works respectable—was in his moral nature. Everything he did was thoroughly and earnestly done. In his literary work he had the method of a man of business, and all his business ambition was to create in the United States an honest and conscientious national literature. He never slighted anything he did, and he was always trying—though always on his own plane—to improve and enlarge his work. All his novels had a purpose, and so had all his editing. He showed real moral courage both in the liberal way in which he construed his own evangelical creed and in the frankness with which he admitted into his magazine some papers—as those of Dr. Blauvelt—which were at the time censured as heretical. Recognizing that most of his literary fellow-workers held creeds less conservative than his own, he yet tried very hard to do justice to them; although in the case of some, as of Thoreau, he found this constitutionally hard. Some of his most intimate associates were moreover those whose intellectual tastes and methods were quite unlike his own, and here also he was manly and tolerant. He was thoroughly conscientious in all his personal standards; he stood at the opposite extreme from all the traditional weaknesses and irregularities of the literary class, and yet he was never pharisaical or uncharitable. This is saying a great deal, and one of whom it can be said deserves to be remembered. It is not probable that much of his purely literary work will long survive him. His fame is likely to decline rapidly, now that he is gone, like that of the late Henry Theodore Tuckerman, with whom he is in some respects to be classed, and of whom it is now almost impossible to believe that he died only ten years ago. But the service rendered by Dr. Holland to American literature by the fidelity and high purpose of his life was out of all proportion to either his genius or his permanent laurels.

—M. Émile Zola has written a farewell letter to *Figaro*. By the terms of his contract he was obliged to furnish a weekly letter for a year without being bound in any way by the doctrines which *Figaro* advocates, and which in many respects clash with his own. He chose *Figaro* simply because it is the most widely read paper in all classes of French society. His aim was to defend the idea of naturalism, which like every other idea requires for its triumph the whole life of a man. If he attacked politics, it was not the Republic he had in mind (for he believes that to be the only just and possible form of government), but the clamorous mediocrities, the ambitious individuals who seek to advance their own ends to the detriment of public tranquillity. In our times politicians occupy a position of too great and unnatural prominence. Politics are only of relative importance, letters are the absolute. The politicians do not make the period; the savants and writers make it. In literature, he insisted on the progress of naturalism, which has transformed history, criticism, the novel, the drama. Genius itself makes no progress in course of time. The genius of Homer was equal to that of Shakspere, and there is nothing to show that we are to-day more capable of producing masterpieces than the ancient Greeks and Romans. But our materials and means of expression have made progress, and our conception of man and nature has become more exact. Music furnishes a striking illustration. Lulli, Rameau, and others of their period no doubt possessed a genius equal to that of Beethoven, Meyerbeer, and our great contemporary composers; but science had not yet placed in their hands the same powerful and varied means of expression. In painting it seems to be different; but if our artists would consent to become chemists and not rely on artisans for the preparation of their colors, who knows but that their resources might be enlarged by new and striking effects? The progress we have made in literature does not lie in our superior ink and pens, or in the new words added to the dictionary. It lies in the exact analysis of persons and things, in the application of the scientific method to our literary studies. After defending this method for a year in *Figaro* he had said what he had to say, and he preferred to avoid repetition. It is now fifteen years since he began to work for the papers. At first he had to earn his bread by hard work in every department of them, from the items to the Parliamentary report. Afterwards, when he might have lived on the profits from his books, the love of fighting for an idea still kept him in the ranks of journalists. One result of this was to give him a thorough insight into the nature of the press. It was a common but erroneous complaint that the press was the enemy of literature; that it corrupted language and was the agent of universal depravity and folly. The press is not free from those shortcomings, but it makes full amends for them by its grand achievements. To every young writer who consulted him he would say: "Throw yourself headlong into the press, just as one throws himself into the water to learn to swim." It is the only school for a man at this day. In it you get hardened by constant friction, and in it you forge your style on the terrible anvil of the article that must be ready for to-day. Journalism is accused of making its devotees superficial and keeping them from more serious work. This is only true of indifferent talents; it is not true of those who work and have a will. Let these engage in journalism without fear; they will return from it as soldiers from the battlefield covered with wounds, but masters of their profession and experts in the science of human nature. One always returns to journalism as to his first love.

—Paul Lindau, as we lately made mention, has severed his connection with the Berlin *Gegenwart*, of which he has been the editor ever since its foundation. The latest number received contains a retrospective article from his pen. Ten years ago, he says, when George Stilke and he conceived the idea of starting a paper which was to be devoted exclusively to discussions of the political, economical, ecclesiastical, and scientific questions of the day, without the aid of illustrations or fiction, the failure of the enterprise was predicted on all sides. Thanks, however, to the active coöperation of distinguished authors and others who took a sort of personal interest in the existence of such a periodical, the *Gegenwart* soon became self-supporting and flourished. Many of these authors have since died. Among them were Dingelstedt, Freiligrath, Gutzkow, Anastasius Grün, Hackländer, Doering, Holtei, Kossak, Mosenthal, Hugo Müller, Karl Rosenkranz, Arnold Ruge, David Strauss, and many others. The *Gegenwart*, however, still reckons among its contributors many of the leading German writers, and will probably maintain its popularity even without the experienced editorship of Herr Lindau, who, since the establishment of *Nord und Süd*, has not been able to devote so much time to it as previously. This, however, stands in no apparent connection with his retirement. He again contradicts the rumor that political differences of opinion between him and the proprietor caused his retirement, and says the matter is of a purely personal nature, and was amicably arranged. Since the *Gegenwart* was first issued five hundred and four numbers have been printed, containing articles by nearly six hundred contributors. Herr Lindau enumerates many of these, and adds that more than four hundred of the articles, covering two thousand columns, are from his own pen.

—One of the most remarkable features of the literary activity of our age is the great demand for cyclopædias and the success which such publications achieve. If we except the periodical press, and the issuing of school-books, there is no department in the field of literature in which such a keen competition exists as in the business of cyclopædia-making. The most striking evidence of this has just been furnished in the sudden appearance of the first fascicule of the thirteenth edition of Brockhaus's 'Conversations-Lexikon' (New York: L. W. Schmidt). Not two years have elapsed since the completion of the final volume of the last edition. It is the competition of other cyclopædia publishers, the inroad which Meyer's 'Conversations-Lexikon' has made into the domain of the great Leipzig publishers, that has led them to take this unprecedented step. Some seven or eight years since, when the publishers of Meyer's and Pierer's cyclopædias simultaneously started new editions, such was the careless haste with which Pierer's 'Universal-Lexikon' was brought into the market that the first volume had actually to be withdrawn in consequence of the pamphlet attacks of its rival. In the present edition, Brockhaus's 'Conversations-Lexikon' will be remodelled so as closely to resemble Meyer's in external appearance. The work is printed in double columns, with closer type than heretofore, and the sixteen volumes (instead of fifteen) of which it is to consist will contain about twenty-five per cent. more matter than the last edition, or than the text (exclusive of cuts) of the sixteen volumes of the 'American Cyclopædia.' It will be furnished with four hundred plates and numerous maps, and, where necessary, woodcuts will be inserted in the text. It is impossible from the single number before us, which advances to *Abraham*, to form any exact idea of the scope of the remodelled publication; but it is evident that much more space than formerly will be devoted to the treatment of scientific and technological subjects. The scientific notices in the present number, which are necessarily very brief, are somewhat fuller than in the last edition; and the insertion of a full-page article under the head of *Abflusswasser*, treating of the pollution of watercourses, points to the increased range of the publication. This change of plan is indicated not only by the greatly enlarged size of the work and the introduction of engravings, but also by the condensation of biographical and geographical notices. Thus *Abd-el-Kader*, *Abd-ul-Asis Chan*, and *Abd-ul-Medschid* (the beginning of every cyclopædia bears an Oriental as-

pect), have been reduced to one-half, or even one-third, of the space allotted to them in the last edition. *Aachen*, which could well stand abridgment, has been cut down to nearly one-half. Among the new biographical titles are *Abd-ul-Kerim Pascha*, *Abd-ur-Rahmân*, *Abeddyn Pascha*, and *Aberdare*. That feature of the work which consists in the lexicographical explanation of technical and foreign expressions will be retained. The first number has been well brought down to date, the article *Abd-ul-Asis Chan* (written *Khan* in the former editions) mentioning the trial of Midhat Pasha in June last. Three of the plates of the first volume are furnished with the first number. They present respectively two views of the Alhambra, eight illustrations of ornamental hanging-plants under the title *Ampelpflanzen*, and ten illustrations of antelopes (the last marked *Antilopen. I.*). There is a map of Northwest Africa, on the relatively large scale of 1 : 20,000,000. Five years will be devoted to the publication of the work.

—Nearly a century has now elapsed since the first edition of the 'Conversations-Lexikon' was undertaken. Its aim was to supply information on the subjects connected with the ordinary reading of the educated classes, to furnish an explanation of anything puzzling that might occur in books or conversation. The various editions up to the present time have been chiefly devoted to biography, geography, and history, while in regard to science and the technical arts nothing like an adequate treatment has been attempted. The 'Conversations-Lexikon' style of cyclopædia was well adapted to the age in which it was conceived, when the mind of the people was mainly occupied with stirring political events and great movements in literature and philosophy, while comparatively little attention was paid to science. The 'Conversations-Lexikon' was received with great favor, and for a generation or more formed a marked feature in the intellectual home-life of Germany, serving also as a model for cyclopædias in foreign languages. In our age of science, however, this kind of cyclopædia has become altogether antiquated, and we congratulate the firm of F. A. Brockhaus on having finally reached this conclusion themselves. We trust that the high standard of accuracy which has distinguished the 'Conversations-Lexikon' will be maintained in the present edition.

—Other managers would perhaps have chosen "Mignon" for the first night of their opera season, "Carmen" for the second, and "Lohengrin" for the third, thus securing time for rehearsal of the last work. Not so Mr. Mapleson. "Lohengrin" sounds well, it is sure to draw a crowded house, and so it was set down for the opening. The audience at the Academy of Music on Monday evening was not only large and fashionable, but it entered thoroughly into the spirit of Mr. Mapleson's artistic intentions. Many came in late, thus spoiling the beautiful orchestral introduction for those who had come early to hear it. Others kept up a noisy conversation, being doubtless under the delusion that they were in their own parlors and listening to the opera through a telephone. When *Lohengrin* first appeared in his swan-boat the exquisite music of the scene was three times rudely interrupted by applause in honor of the great Campanini. In Germany such demonstrations would be regarded as very vulgar; but as the Americans are the most æsthetic people in the world, and never, of course, do anything that is vulgar, their conduct on this occasion must have been guided by an appreciation of Mr. Mapleson's new policy, which called for a corresponding change of conduct on their part. In justice to some of the artists engaged, it must be admitted that the performance was not a complete failure. Miss Minnie Hauk's impersonation of the loving, inquisitive, and unhappy *Elsa* had much that was charming. It is not her best rôle, perhaps, but it is one of her best, and one in which she has made a successful appearance in many German cities. Her personal appearance admirably fits her for the part, even if the ideal *Elsa* should be a trifle less substantial. Her voice has lost none of its sweetness, purity, and sympathetic quality. Her rendering of the tender and pathetic passages was exquisite. Where she failed was in those *ensemble* parts where the soprano should float clear and loud above chorus and orchestra. Here her voice lacked power. Indeed, Miss Hauk did not succeed in arousing any great enthusiasm during the evening, in spite of the beauty of her voice. This was perhaps due in part to certain imperfections in her acting and facial expression, but to a large extent it was due to the fact that, thanks to the uncertainty and incorrect intonation of the chorus and occasionally the orchestra, she found herself surrounded by such a howling wilderness of discord that sympathetic and artistic acting was almost out of the question. Campanini's version of *Lohengrin* is too well known in this country to need much discussion. In the simple, melodious parts his fine voice is very effective, less so in the more declamatory passages. He takes fewer liberties with the score than some other Italian tenors, yet he needs to be reminded that Wagner's cadences call for no alterations. Unfortunately, he knows nothing of mimic expression, and looks more like a professional sentimental tenor than like the heroic Knight of the Swan. Signor Galassi's fine voice gained him new admirers, but, like the rest of the cast, he failed to invest his part (*Telramund*) with any life. This is true also of Mlle. Kalas's version of *Ortrud*. In appearance she succeeded in assuming a semblance of this sombre and revengeful character; but her voice, which has some good notes and gave occasional evidence that in more lyrical parts she might be successful, has not the necessary dramatic power and intensity to do anything like justice to this most difficult part. A successful *Ortrud* must not only be a powerful vocalist, but also a perfect actress, like Frau Materna or Frl. Brandt. Mlle. Kalas is neither. Signor Monti's stentorian voice well qualified him for the part of the *Herald*, but Signor Novara as *King* was beneath criticism: one might have suspected him of being a member of the chorus in disguise. The orchestra is such an important factor in "Lohengrin" that success or failure depends largely upon its achievements. We cannot agree with all Signor Arditi's *tempi*, nor have we any particular weakness for wood wind instruments or organs out of tune with the rest of the orchestra, or for oboes playing their solos in a wrong key. But, generally speaking, the orchestra was well enough managed and satisfactory from a mechanical point of view. What it lacked was that life, spirit, and animation without which an operatic entertainment bears the same resemblance to a spirited performance that a wax flower does to one that blooms in field or forest.

—Many foreign critics assembled at Munich to hear the recent two cycles of Wagner's operas. The London *Athenæum*, which used to be one of the organs most hostile to the new German school, has published several highly eulogistic letters on the "Meistersinger," "Tristan and Isolde," and their predecessors. But the most curious thing is the attitude of the Paris papers. The *Figaro* correspondent says that it was worth a journey of two hundred miles merely to hear *Walter's* prize-song in "Die Meistersinger." *Le Français*, speaking of the "Flying Dutchman," says that the score is clear and intelligible from beginning to end, and that it would be praised to the skies in Paris if it were given under the name of Gounod. This critic even indulges in exclamation points about the beauty of the famous and oft-denounced scene between *Ortrud* and *Telramund* in the second act. M. Octave Fouqué says in the *Ménestrel* about "Lohengrin": "Shall I tell you what struck me most in hearing this work? The extraordinary tenderness of this music! Only twice or thrice during the evening does the orchestra attain to its full force, and then so well prepared and so beautifully led up to that the fulness seems no more than just enough. This will doubtless surprise many of your readers who imagine Wagner as a blowing, storming, and trumpeting monster."

—The following curious advertisement is to be found in vol. 18 of Bachaumont's (Mouffle d'Angerville's) "Mémoires Secrets":

"30 Décembre, 1781. Le Sieur Duval, Confiseur du Roi, au Grand Monarque rue des Lombards, continue à offrir au public un cours d'histoire en sucrerie. Il annonce qu'on verra chez lui le mois prochain dans son magazin d'étrennes: *la flotte françoise bloquant la baye de Chesapeac, l'investissement d'York & Gloucester par les armées Françoises & Américaines, la reddition de Lord Cornwalis, le défilé des troupes Angloises rendant les armes.*"

Or in English:

"December 30th, 1781. M. Duval, confectioner to the King, at the sign of the Grand Monarch, Lombard Street, continues to offer to the public a course of history in sugar-work. He begs to announce that next month will be found in his stock of New Year's presents *the French fleet blockading Chesapeake Bay, the investment of Yorktown and Gloucester by the French and American armies, the surrender of Lord Cornwallis, and the English troops defiling to lay down their arms.*"

REIN'S JAPAN.

Japan nach Reisen und Studien. Von J. J. Rein. Band I. Natur und Volk des Mikadoreiches. Leipzig: W. Engelmann. 8vo, pp. 630.

It is a curious fact that, though Prussia and Austria were among the last nations to enter into diplomatic relations with Japan—the former in 1860 and the latter not until 1868—yet the first systematic writers about the Japanese were Germans. Kämpfer's book was, and still is, a classic, while Siebold's 'Archiv' is a mine of richest ore to the student. The Japanese appreciate it highly, and for his monument, recently erected in Vienna, they sent as their token of regard an undressed boulder of native rock, suitably inscribed by one of their own scholars. Dr. Rein's book before us is a proof that the literary evidences of German interest in the Far East keep pace with the steady advance of German commercial and political influence in that part of the world. Count Eulenberg, the present Prussian Minister of the Interior, made the first treaty of navigation and commerce between Prussia and Japan. His attaché, Von Brandt, returned to be consul at Yokohama, and later became Minister Resident of the German Empire at Tokio, having as his secretary Mr. Ernest Kempermann, the accomplished writer on Shintō. Mr. von Brandt, having been in 1875 transferred to Peking, was succeeded by Mr. von Eisendecher. There are now several hundred German residents in the Mikado's domains, who carry on a direct trade with the Fatherland, in their own vessels, while German men-of-war make the black-white-and-red flag familiar to those natives who enjoy the study of the "thunder-ship's" colors. In the academic, and especially the medical, schools German professors are fairly numerous, and

highly appreciated. A flourishing Asiatic Society (*Deutsche Gesellschaft für Natur- und Völkerkunde Ostasiens*), whose twenty or more portly *Mittheilungen* lie before us, prove that the exiles from Fatherland are not so absorbed in trade as to forget the German's sacred duty of increasing knowledge.

The friendly relations between Kaiserreich and Mikadoreich have rarely been strained. After the German Empire had been proclaimed at Versailles, however, some foreigners in Tokio, not French, suspected that the diplomatic pressure to secure berths for Prussian schoolmasters, and otherwise to advance Prussian influence, passed the bounds of modesty. Nevertheless, the Mikado's ministers, though often charged with fickleness, maintained their French military corps of instruction. German did *not* become the predominant medium of culture in place of English; Bismarck did *not* buy Formosa; and as the milliards were one after another paid, it became somewhat more pleasant to meet a Prussian, whether in diplomacy or in social life. Japanese lads are now to be found in the medical, law, and mining schools of Germany, and on the Prussian men-of-war. The Mikado has chosen German as his favorite foreign language, and, though English is the prevailing tongue of his best-educated subjects, yet the speech of Schiller and Goethe is familiar to hundreds of the rising men of Japan.

Prof. Rein, who fills the chair of geography at the University of Marburg, spent the years 1874 and 1875 in making several long, but not rapid, journeys in the southern and central parts of Japan. His work was done under the order of the Prussian Minister of Commerce, and he expects to follow this volume of 'Travels and Studies' with two others on the industry and commerce of the Japanese. He evidently made many friends among his compatriots abroad, who have liberally assisted him with material, advice, and criticism. To these he makes ample acknowledgment in his preface, and also to Mr. Ernest Satow, the Secretary of the British Legation in Tokio, without whose help no gentleman's book on Japan can be considered complete. From all other sources he has also gathered whatever was for his purpose worth collating, and, being himself a diligent scholar and a critic of acumen, he is able, fortunately for the reader, to control his authorities. The result is a narrative and summary of absolute clearness, in a superbly printed and illustrated octavo of 650 pages. It is, in addition, furnished with two large maps, both minutely correct, and executed in the best style of the German cartographic art. Prof. Rein's contributions to *Petermann's Mittheilungen* have accustomed his readers to a standard of excellence by which the present work can well afford to be judged. Before criticising it we cannot help comparing the altered state of Japanese opinion with that of the last century. In 1786 Rin Shihei, the patriot, made the first complete coast-line map of Japan, having traversed the empire on foot. For this crime alone he was seized and thrown into prison, out of which he never came alive. His books and papers were confiscated, and the plates broken up. In 1874 a foreigner is allowed to travel unmolested in the same country, with his theodolite and camera; and in 1876 the Mikado orders a monument to be erected to Rin Shihei's honor, while a prince of the blood is president of the Tokio (Japanese) Geographical Society, whose proceedings are published to the world. "The frog in the well," at last, "knows the great ocean."

Borrowing the title of his first volume—'Nature and People of the Mikado's Empire'—from a well-known American work, the author devotes 240 pages to the physical features of the country. A well-equipped scientific traveller, and no hasty tourist in a *jin-riki-sha*, he gives us valuable chapters on the geology, physical geography, hydrography, fauna and flora. We know of no other book in the Japanese library containing so rich and orderly an arrangement of data valuable alike to the man of science and the general student. In treating of the people, Prof. Rein devotes a chapter to each of the following subjects: History, Ethnography, and Topography. Here, though he gives the best summary of Japanese history to be found in the German language, he is hardly fair, certainly not generous, to the American authority from whom he borrows the titles of some of his chapters, and the facts and coloring of especially those portions of his narrative which treat of events and heroes in the province of Echizen, since no acknowledgment of the personal investigations made by the American writer are anywhere stated.

In one respect the historical part of Dr. Rein's work reminds us of the standard criticism on most commentaries on the Bible—"Good, except for the difficult passages." There is one arid stretch of Japanese history—a kind of alkali and grease-wood desert—which both to foreigners and natives is like the "Pelasgian" period in classic, and the mediæval portion of Church, history. How many historians, like Schaff and Neander, bravely write the story of the Apostolic or Nicene age, but stop at the morass of the Middle Ages; or emerge with unwearied interest to tell us about the Reformation, while the Dark Ages remain doubly dark. So, those who essay to write Japanese history plunge gloriously into prehistoric mist, and hold their way finely until the Ashikaga dynasty (1334–1573) is reached. Then, with a sudden leap, they are voluminous with the story of the times *since* 1540, leaving two whole centuries in just enough light to make darkness more visible. Though this era of civil war is repulsive to the student, because so full of confused details, it is nevertheless exceedingly important as containing the germs of many of the modern institutions of Japan. Now, since every foreign writer hitherto had leaped the bog, or gone around it, we opened Prof. Rein's book, turning first to the chapter on the Ashikaga dynasty, in hopeful expectation. Surely, we thought, German patience and thoroughness, so often vaunted, will give us the clue to the labyrinth, the "open sesame" to the unexplored cave. But no; disappointment awaited us. The nine scanty pages treating this period of two centuries contained nothing new, or not to be found printed in accessible books. We think the author, coming last, ought to have served us better.

Nevertheless, our satisfaction at the wonderful accuracy and spirit displayed in marshalling multifarious facts is great, and we do not hesitate to pronounce this work the best for reference on Japan, and heartily recommend it for translation. In the chapter on Ethnology Prof. Rein points out, rightly we think, in spite of Mr. Aston's opinion to the contrary, the affinities of the Japanese with the Malay stock. To form that mixed race inhabiting the Japanese archipelago, the blood of several races has entered. The most remarkable fact about the woodcuts, representing ethnic types, Aino, Corean, Riu Kiu (Loo Choo) islander, and Japanese, is that in them one cannot detect any German "personal equation." French artists Gallicize a Japanese drawing, a British draughtsman Anglicizes it, so that one is "Frenchy" and the other savors of John Bull. The impossible noses and African cast of visage so often put upon the faces of the Mikado's subjects in American books are here absent, and with exquisite delicacy as well as genuine expression, the woodcuts tell the truth they are meant to represent. A good index completes this scholarly and readable work, which so well illustrates the remark of the Cambridge professor of history, that "Good books are usually made in Germany."

MISS GORDON CUMMING IN FIJI.

At Home in Fiji. By C. F. Gordon Cumming. 2 vols. With map and illustrations. Edinburgh: Wm. Blackwood & Sons. 1881.

WITHIN a twelvemonth there have appeared at least four works either wholly or in great part devoted to the Fiji Islands. This unusual interest in a part of the world so remote and seemingly so unattractive is not unnatural, considering its present relations to Great Britain. So long ago as 1859 the islands were offered by the chiefs to the English Government for various reasons, the principal of which was the difficulty of controlling the European settlers—mainly Englishmen of a somewhat lawless type. At that time, however, their possession was deemed of little or no value, and the offer was declined. In 1871 a new tide of emigration set in from Australia and New Zealand, in consequence of the commercial depression which had prevailed for some years in those countries, and the troubles of the chiefs were greatly increased. About this time a constitutional government, under Thakombau as king, with a ministry and council formed of foreigners and natives, was established. This utterly failed to secure the ends of good government, and Great Britain was again asked to assume the protectorate. At length, in 1874, an unconditional cession was accepted, and Sir Arthur Gordon, son of the Earl of Aberdeen, was sent out as governor of the new crown colony. He reached Levuka, the capital, in June, 1875, at a time when the islands were reduced to the greatest straits. The measles had been introduced in the previous January, and had swept away nearly fifty thousand of the natives, or about a third of the population of the whole group. In some districts almost all had perished, and the few survivors were too weak to get food for themselves. It was not that the disease was of such a malignant type, as that it was impossible to induce the sick to take proper care of themselves. An irresistible desire to bathe proved fatal to almost all who were attacked. The foreign settlers were in many cases hardly better off. The cotton and sugar plantations, on which most sanguine hopes had been founded, had failed to be profitable, and their culture was being largely abandoned. In addition, there were innumerable disputes between the planters and the natives in regard to land-titles and the labor contracts. The difficulty of obtaining labor of any kind was very great, and is still the greatest obstacle to the commercial prosperity of Fiji. The natives will only in rare cases hire themselves out to work upon the land, and in this they are encouraged by the present Government, which aims at creating a large class of native planters. The dependence of the foreign planters has been hitherto upon the Polynesians, who are hired for three years, but this source of supply has become very limited and costly. The solution of the problem will no doubt be found in the introduction of coolies, which has already been done to a limited extent.

Sir Arthur Gordon appears to have been eminently successful in his five years' administration (he is now Governor of New Zealand), the revenue of the colony having been raised from £16,000 in 1875 to £75,000 in 1879, while the exports in this latter year exceeded £200,000 in value. Of the future prospects of the islands, commercially, he says: "After a careful investigation, extending over more than a year, it

has been reported to me, by most competent and most cautious scientific authority, that the annual value of the agricultural exports of the colony, when its powers of production have been fully developed, will probably exceed £10,000,000 sterling." Mr. Horne, author of 'A Year in Fiji,' who was employed by Sir Arthur to report on the formation of a Forest Department, says that "the total area of land in the group suitable for growing sugar-cane is approximately estimated at 1,000 square miles. . . . When capital has been attracted to the colony, and these cane-lands are fully occupied and planted with canes and proper works for crushing the cane and making sugar, it may be anticipated that about 200,000 tons of sugar will annually be made in Fiji. The value of this sugar, together with that of molasses and rum, will amount to over £5,000,000 sterling." He adds that 2,000 square miles are available for coffee, which "thrives remarkably well in Fiji, and its value as an export will ultimately be second only to sugar, and may be expected to amount to between £3,000,000 and £4,000,000 sterling." Some of the islands produce a remarkably fine quality of sea-island cotton. That from Mago "gained the gold medal both at the Paris and Philadelphia International Exhibitions." The great cost involved in its culture, however, makes it a less promising crop than those just mentioned. The principal exports in 1878, in the order of their importance, were coppra (a preparation of the cocoanut), cotton, sugar, and maize. There are also increasingly large exports of fruits, especially bananas and oranges, to New Zealand and Australia. "The present population of Fiji, in 1880, is estimated at 110,000 natives, 1,902 Europeans, and 3,200 Polynesians."

Miss Gordon Cumming's 'At Home in Fiji' is undoubtedly the best work on the islands for the general reader, though that of Mr. Horne, or 'Coral Lands,' by H. S. Cooper, may be better for the intending colonist. Her position as a member of the Governor's family gave her unusual facilities for seeing every part of the group, of which she availed herself to the utmost. She also accompanied the superintendent of the Wesleyan mission and his wife in several of their missionary tours. Her book is made up of the letters written to different members of her family in Scotland. She has a pleasant, vivacious style, describes well, with an artist's eye for color and grace of form (the illustrations are from her own sketches), and seems to be as good a traveller as her brother the famous hunter, or her friend Miss Bird. She is rarely tiresome, though her work is not free from the faults, almost inseparable from its form, of needless repetitions and passages of a purely personal nature. It is probable, also, that she gives a too favorable view of the native character, but otherwise she seems entirely trustworthy. The true Fijian seems to be more nearly allied to the Papuan than the Polynesian. He is singularly gentle and courteous in his manners, and, according to Miss Cumming, strictly honest and thoroughly sincere in his profession of Christianity. Many of the men, especially the chiefs, are tall and handsome. The ex-king, Thakombau, of whose cannibalistic tastes horrible stories are told, is described as "a very fine old man, stately and chief-like in his bearing, and with clear, penetrating eyes." A friend of the present writer says of Maafu, the powerful chief of the Windward Isles, known as the "Bismarck of the Pacific," that "he was the finest-looking man he ever saw." He stands six feet six inches high, is finely proportioned, and has a very noble head. The women, when young, are often pretty and graceful, and are scantily but becomingly clothed with native cloth, fringed with garlands of ferns and leaves. Physically and intellectually, they are superior to all the other races of the Pacific, with the possible exception of the Tongans. They show considerable skill and taste in the construction of their houses, in their carving and their "paper-cloth painting," and, in some districts, in their pottery. This is all made by women, and "entirely by hand—nothing of the nature of a wheel being known." "The objects vary in size, from small bowls or water-jars, six or eight inches in height, to great cooking-pots, three feet deep; and the colors range from richest golden to a deep red, running into green, the color being chiefly due to the glaze." The decoration consists either of an "elaborate geometrical pattern," or "raised work, almost like clusters of grapes." In the common articles for daily use conventional forms are used, but in "fancy articles every potter follows her own taste, and the same exact form is very rarely reproduced."

In the same village from which came the best pottery, Miss Cumming saw a woman painting a very large and heavy piece of *tappa* or native cloth, intended for a curtain in a chief's house:

"She had designed an admirable and most intricate pattern, which she cut out on a heated banana-leaf, laid this on the cloth, and rubbed it over with a scrap of *masi*, dipped either in vegetable charcoal and water, or in red earth, liquefied with the sap of the candle-nut tree—*i.e.*, the silvery-leaved croton. It is simply a form of stencilling, and only requires taste in arranging the patterns and colors, and a neat hand in executing them. But the result is handsome and artistic. And a great curtain of *tappa* hung across a native house is such a striking and uncommon-looking kind of drapery that it is certainly a matter of regret to know how surely this art is fated to die out before the influx of common English or American goods."

The doorways and rafters of the houses are often bound with colored *sinnet* (a kind of coarse string), "interwoven so as to form most elaborate patterns, extremely artistic in effect. The ridge-pole of a new house is frequently wreathed with long trails of the exquisite God-fern, the *Wa Kalo*." Perhaps the most striking evidence of the Fijians' love for the beautiful is to be found in their dances. These are, in fact, ballets descriptive of some scene or story. "Each district has certain dances peculiar to itself, and the people of one neither can nor will join in the *mékè* of another." One which Miss Cumming saw while accompanying the missionaries on a tour of inspection was full of poetry:

"The idea to be conveyed is that of the tide gradually rising on the reef, till at length there remains only a little coral isle, round which the angry breakers rage, flinging their white foam on every side. At first the dancers form in long lines and approach silently, to represent the quiet advance of the waves. After a while the lines break up into smaller companies, which advance with outspread hands and bodies bent forward, to represent rippling wavelets, the tiniest waves being represented by children. Quicker and quicker they come on, now advancing, now retreating, yet, like true waves, steadily progressing, and gradually closing on every side of the imaginary islet, round which they play or battle, after the manner of breakers, springing high in mid-air, and flinging their arms far above their heads to represent the action of spray. As they leap and toss their heads, the soft white *masi*, or native cloth (which, for greater effect, they wear as a turban with long streamers, and also wind round the waist, whence it floats in long scarf-like ends), trembles and flutters in the breeze. The whole effect is most artistic, and the orchestra do their part by imitating the roar of the surf on the reef—a sound which to them has been a never-ceasing lullaby from the hour of their birth."

Other subjects were "the rising of the stars," "a flock of flying-foxes in the act of robbing a garden of ripe bananas," and "a pig-hunt." These dances are given on almost every occasion which brings the people together, except the Sunday service, as, for instance, on the visit of the Governor or any great chief, a missionary meeting, or a school examination. On one of these latter occasions the subject of the dance was the "capture of Jerusalem." The men make admirable soldiers, regarding the drill as a *mékè* or dance.

Miss Cumming has of course much to tell of the cannibalism which prevailed in the islands till within a few years. In many places the ovens are still standing, together with the upright stones marking the number of bodies eaten. One chief had erected lines of stones "which even now number eight hundred and seventy-two, though at least thirty have been removed." Some thrilling stories are told of the courage displayed by the missionaries in their endeavors to put an end to these atrocities. In 1849 two ladies, Mrs. Calvert and Mrs. Lyth, with a single native Christian, their husbands being absent, rescued five women, nine having already been sacrificed, from the very hands of the butcher. Captain Erskine, R.N., who touched at the islands a few weeks after, says:* "Regardless of the sanctity of the place, it being 'tabued' to women, they forced themselves into old Tanoa's [the father of Thakombau, and an inveterate cannibal] chamber, who demanded, with astonishment at their temerity, what these women did there? The Christian chief, who well maintained his lately adopted character, answered for them, that they came to solicit the lives of the surviving prisoners, presenting at the same time the two whales' teeth." After some hesitation Tanoa said: "Those who are dead are dead; those who are alive shall live." "If anything could have increased our admiration of their heroism," adds Captain Erskine, "it was the unaffected manner in which, when pressed by us to relate the circumstances of their awful visit, they spoke of it as the simple performance of an ordinary duty." Human flesh was always cooked with the leaves of a certain shrub and those of two trees, which had the effect, the natives said, of assisting digestion, and was eaten with forks, this flesh alone being never touched with the fingers on account of the fear of a skin disease. These forks were "of dark polished wood, with handles richly carved," and were heir-looms, having names often obscene.

As has been already intimated, Miss Cumming gives the Christian Fijian a very high character for honesty and sincerity. Though she saw him under the most favorable circumstances, yet other writers agree with her that the conversion of the islanders is genuine, and not, as one at least asserts, a merely political action of the chiefs. Under the superintendence of the Wesleyan mission, established in 1835, there are in the whole group "about fourteen hundred schools and nine hundred churches." According to Mr. Cooper, at least a third of the people belong to these schools, and all are practically attendants on public worship. The practice of morning and evening prayers is almost universal. In 1876 an insurrection of the hill tribes was quelled by a force of about one thousand natives, gathered from every part of the group; thirty men being the contingent asked of each chief. "Every morning, at the very first streak of dawn, each separate tribe composing that little army mustered in array to join the teacher in saying the Lord's prayer, and a short prayer suited to the requirements of the day. And every evening, after the excitement of the day was over, each house separately had reading of the Scriptures, singing, and prayer, and every man in the force knelt as reverently as he would have done at family worship in his peaceful village home." Their regard for Sunday is as strikingly exhibited. "Not a canoe will put

* 'Journal of a Cruise among the Islands of the Western Pacific.'

to sea except to carry a teacher to a place of worship, nor will a native climb a tree to fetch a cocoanut, even when bribed with much-coveted silver." So when the great "Balolo festival" came on a Sunday for two successive years not one of the canoes of the Wesleyans went out. The *balolo* is a small sea-worm which rises to the surface only twice in the year, in small numbers in October, and in countless myriads at the high tide of the full moon in November. Then "the whole sea, to the depth of several inches, is simply alive with these red, green, and brown creatures, which form one writhing mass, and are pursued by shoals of fish of all sizes, which come to share the feast with the human beings. . . . As the day dawns, these mysterious creatures with one accord sink once more to their native depths, and by the moment of sunrise not one remains on the surface; nor will another be seen for a twelve-month." The natives wrap them in bread-fruit leaves and cook them in ovens.

There are many passages in Miss Cumming's entertaining volumes which we had marked for quotation, but want of sp ce forbids. In an appendix on the folk-lore there is given a fable, told to Sir Arthur Gordon, which reminds one of Uncle Remus:

"The crane and the crab quarrelled as to their powers of racing. The crab said he would go the fastest, and that the crane might fly across from point to point, while he went round by the shore. The crane flew off, and the crab stayed quietly in his hole, trusting to the multitude of his brethren to deceive the crane. The crane flew to the first point, and seeing a crab-hole, put down his ear and heard a buzzing noise. 'That slave is here before me,' said he, and flew on to the next point. Here the same thing happened, till at last, on reaching a point above Serua, the crane fell exhausted, and was drowned in the sea. Ratu Tabusakiu capped this by an almost exactly similar story—only in this case the competition was between a crane and a butterfly. The latter challenged the crane to fly to Tonga, tempting him to do so by asking if he was fond of shrimps. The butterfly kept resting on the crane's back, without the crane knowing it, and whenever the bird looked round and said to himself, 'That *kaisi* (low-born) fellow is gone; I can rest and fly slowly now without fear of his overtaking me,' the butterfly would leave his back and fly a little way ahead, saying, 'Here I am, cousin,' till the poor bird died exhausted; and the butterfly, who had no longer his back to rest on, perished also."

Another legend accounts for the introduction of cannibalism in precisely the same manner in which Charles Lamb attributed the discovery of roast pig to the Chinese.

Among the Sioux of Dakota. Eighteen Months' Experience as an Indian Agent. By Captain D. C. Poole, Twenty-second Infantry, U.S.A. New York: D. Van Nostrand. Pp. 235.

DURING the early part of Grant's first term as President, army officers not needed with their regiments were assigned to duty as Indian Agents. Captain Poole was one of these, and for a year and a half did duty in Dakota, at the Whetstone Creek Reservation, among the Sioux. The band of Brule-Sioux who recognized Spotted Tail as their chief was among those who were under the charge of Captain Poole, though they were not encamped at Whetstone. Other bands of Ogallalas, Brules, and Minneconjous, all parts of the same nation, were on the reservation at the agency. The Captain's charge consisted, therefore, of from three to five thousand of the fiercest and most uncivilized of the Indians of the Great West.

Spotted Tail was a chief of no ordinary character, and impressed all the officers of the Government who came in contact with him as a man of more breadth of judgment and intelligent discernment than are often found among uneducated men of any race. This he had proved by adopting a peace policy when the other bands of Sioux made war in 1867. He had so well established a reputation as a warrior and chief that he was able to control a large part of the Brules, and led them from the line of the Union Pacific Railway near North Platte to the Upper Missouri reservations. His great rival in the favor of the Sioux was Red Cloud, an Ogallala chief, who conducted the war of 1867, but who also had intelligence enough to discern at its close that further fighting with the whites would be ruinous. Both these chiefs have earnestly favored peace for more than a dozen years, and the fighting which has since been done by Sioux has been by fragments of bands, or small bands uniting for a campaign under a leader like Sitting Bull, whose supremacy over the united force only lasted during the actual hostilities.

Captain Poole's book is a vivid and interesting account of his experience, which not only included the common events of the Agent's life, but covered also the period of the noteworthy visit of Spotted Tail and Red Cloud to Washington in 1870. He does not conceal the fact that he shares the scepticism common among army men in regard to the possible civilization of the Indian of the plains, and seldom loses an opportunity for a "slant" at the policy of making farmers of the red men. Still, the narrative bears the evidence of truthfulness on every page, and the more familiar the reader may be with Indian affairs, the stronger will be his confidence that the Captain has told things as he saw them.

The book brings out with a good deal of felicity many of the most striking traits of Indian character, such as the difference between the wildest of the savages and those who have felt some of the influences of contact with civilization; the stubborn resistance of the men to all efforts to make them labor at farming or other work, which they look upon as squaws' employment; and the impulse towards strife and excitement which tempts the young men to steal away upon a raid in the hope of gaining importance in the tribe by warlike deeds. The family life of the Indian, his domestic virtues and social traits, are well drawn, and leave one with the feeling that his affection for his family, his fidelity to his friend, and his devotion to his tribe and his home are scarcely less than those of his civilized neighbors. His grief at a bereavement is as deep as any one's, and shows itself not only in giving away the things in which he has delighted and by which he has set great store, but in sincere sorrow, which shuns society and shows that he really carries a heavy heart that corresponds to the voluntary squalor of his dress.

The following description of Spotted Tail's encampment is not without an attractive glow of comfort and a picturesque gleam of primitive simplicity:

"Looking around the village, I found everywhere an air of quiet contentment. It was situated in a sheltered place, and the rays of the spring sun were warm, so most of the Indians were out of doors: the elder ones smoking as they basked in the sun, the young bucks, divided into two parties, enjoying their favorite game of foot-ball, and the boys whipping tops or practising with their bows and arrows. The women were working and gossiping, always at a distance from the men, and the girls too small to carry burdens were playing with their rude dolls or acquiring knowledge of the needle with dried sinews for thread. Some of the young maidens, I noticed, lingered a little as they carried wood and water, casting shy glances on the young athletes running after the ball. In the distance herds of ponies grazed on the prairie, watched by sentinels posted on high buttes to see that they did not stray too far, and to give timely warning should an enemy approach."

The unsatisfactory character of the annuity system is shown in several grotesque and striking scenes, and the mischief done by strong drink is illustrated by a night brawl in which Big Mouth, a noted Ogallala chief, assaulted Spotted Tail, and met his death at the hand of that doughty chief.

The journey of the Sioux chiefs to Washington, the character of their negotiations with the Government, and the brilliant assembly at the White House when President Grant gave them an evening entertainment, are all told with fulness and accuracy. Captain Poole's observations upon the effect of the journey upon the Indians, and the classes of things which arrested their attention and were educational in effect upon them, are all very shrewd and discriminating. In short, the book is one of which it may fairly be said that it enlarges our knowledge of the Indian and his character in a valuable way, and is at once entertaining and instructive. The author's theorizing is only incidental, while the facts he gives so well will help his readers to form their own opinions upon the nation's great problem.

Newfoundland to Manitoba. By W. Fraser Rae. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1881.

THIS book is a reproduction of letters written to the London *Times* concerning the material resources and prospects of the extreme portions of the Canadian Dominion—Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island on the coast, and Manitoba and the Northwest Provinces on the prairies. The inhabitants of the maritime provinces are staid, conservative people, clinging to traditional habits, possessing but little aggressive energy, devoting most of their attention to the fisheries, and allowing their mineral and other wealth to be turned to profit by more venturesome neighbors from the United States. In the wheat-growing valleys of the Red and Saskatchewan rivers there is a very different story to tell. Here for about ten years there has been a process of development similar in kind, but, owing to various causes, inferior in degree, to that which has built up the great States of our own Northwest. In 1870 the village of Winnipeg, or Fort Garry, contained 300 people; now it is a thriving town of 15,000 inhabitants, and in the same interval the population of Manitoba has increased from 12,000 to 40,000. The province, however, is of enormous extent (as large as Texas), and this increase is a small matter when compared with the early growth of Kansas, Nebraska, or Minnesota. In the same ten years the population of Dakota has increased from 14,000 to 135,000.

The author takes a very just view of the resources of the vast region between Lake Winnipeg and the Rocky Mountains, discarding equally the rose-colored pictures of the railway land-agents, who represent it as a paradise, and the gloomy predictions of Hudson's Bay officials, who certified that the land was worthless. In fact, the valleys are unsurpassed for wheat-growing; the borders of the Rocky Mountains (the former home of millions of buffaloes) afford excellent grazing; there are extensive beds of lignite nearly equal in value to coal, and iron ores have lately been discovered which give great promise. It is estimated, without exaggeration, that the whole region can support on the average one hundred inhabitants to the square mile, or 200,000,000 in all. Its future depends entirely upon the Canadian Pacific Railway, and the other roads which will follow it. It can grow enough wheat to feed all Europe, and with transportation by rail to Hudson's Bay, and thence by steamer, wheat can be placed in Liverpool at 28s. a quarter with the same profit that is now

obtained from United States wheat at 48s. "Should that day arrive, the British farmer must renounce growing wheat," and the present struggle between British and United States farmers will give place to one between Canada and the United States.

The future of Canada, as the author says, "is a tempting theme, but its adequate discussion is not easy. . . . The settlement of Manitoba, the construction of the Pacific Railway, the opening of steam navigation through Hudson's Bay to Europe, are elements of the greatest moment in determining the destiny of Canada, and several years must yet elapse before the influence of these elements is apparent. . . . It is clear to my mind that the future of Canada is in the hands of the Canadians. . . . Should they fail in making Canada what it may become, the fault will be their own, and not that of their magnificent Far West." The recent journey of Lord Lorne will probably give a fresh impetus to the Pacific Railway and to Canadian immigration, and the temperate and well-considered statements in this little book afford a great deal of useful information on those subjects.

Metrical Geometry. An Elementary Treatise on Mensuration. By George Bruce Halsted, A.B., A.M., and ex-Fellow of Princeton College; Ph.D. and ex-Fellow of Johns Hopkins University; Instructor in Post-Graduate Mathematics, Princeton College. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 1881. 12mo, pp. xiii–232.

FROM the fact that Mr. Halsted is an ex-Fellow of so young an institution as the Johns Hopkins University it may be inferred that he is himself still a young man. Such being the case, whatever merits his book may possess are all the more creditable to him, and he has time before him in which to remedy such defects as he or others may discover. The book is dedicated to Prof. J. J. Sylvester, "in token of the inestimable benefits derived from two years' work with him." The wording of this dedication leaves it uncertain in what relation Mr. Halsted stood to Prof. Sylvester during these two years. It is quite as fitting to an associate as to a pupil; but perhaps Mr. Halsted took it for granted that the relation of Prof. Sylvester to any young mathematician could hardly be supposed other than that of teacher to pupil. In his preface the author says: "The competent critic may recognize signs of a Berlin residence; but a considerable part, it is believed, is entirely new." It is not, perhaps, exactly "good form" to anticipate, in a preface, what "competent" critics may do; and then Mr. Halsted exposes himself to the insinuation on the part of ill-natured and incompetent critics that this is but an awkward way of letting people know that he had resided in one of the great capitals of Europe.

In the first paragraph of his introduction, after giving a definition of mensuration, Mr. Halsted says: "It has been called that branch of applied geometry which gives rules for finding the length of lines, the area of surfaces, and the volume of solids, from certain data of lines and angles" (p. 1). It will thus be seen that mensuration is an art rather than a science. It is practical. It tells us what to do in order to find out what we want, but for the most part it refers to geometry for proof of the correctness of the rules which it tells us to follow. It is evident from this statement that a treatise on mensuration is not the place to introduce new definitions of terms, the meaning of which has long been settled, nor new demonstrations of propositions which are demonstrated in every ordinary treatise on geometry, except under peculiar circumstances. The sole object of introducing anything new should be to show how to do something which before could not be done at all, or to show how to do things in a more practicable manner than heretofore. Now the first thing that strikes one who takes the pains to read Mr. Halsted's book is the great number of new words, new symbols, new definitions, and new forms of English, introduced apparently in accordance with no systematic principle.

On page 3 is a table of reference embracing all the small letters of the alphabet, and explaining in what sense they will be used as symbols. On page 28 is a similar table embracing all the capital letters, and several arbitrary symbols, some of which have heretofore been used in mathematical works, others of the author's own invention. On page 83 is still another table, embracing all the small letters of the Greek alphabet, with three exceptions, and some more symbols. But the reader must not suppose, when he attempts to decipher one of Mr. Halsted's formulæ, that these tables will certainly help him out. The tables in many cases explain the use of the letters by means of new-coined words unaccompanied by any reference to the place where they are explained—*e. g.*, ô signifies a *perigon*, U signifies "volume of *quader*," etc., etc. If he wishes to know what a "perigon" or a "quader" is, he must search till he finds. During the perusal of the book we had noted for remark a great number of new words, strange ways of expressing old truths, and queer forms of speech; but the accumulation of material was too formidable: we have bundled our notes into the waste-basket, and will give only a single specimen. The Greek word σφαῖρα (English, *sphere*) has been in use in the Greek language from Homer down to the present day. Under slightly different forms it has passed into nearly if not quite all the languages of the civilized world. Its signification has always remained essentially the same; in mathematics its meaning has not varied from Plato down to Peirce. For the word *sphere* as the universally-acknowledged designation of a well-defined solid, Mr. Halsted (p. 71) substitutes the word *globe*, and by a formal definition limits the word *sphere* to the designation of a surface. This of course necessitates a reconstruction of the language of spherical geometry. All this he does without intimating that he is in any way departing from received usage. But, what is inexcusable in a mathematical work, he does not adhere to his ôwn definition. After drilling his new definition into the reader through several pages, he turns to other matters. On page 110 he resumes the consideration of the sphere, and now in the most formal manner he uses the word in its old familiar sense. He first gives a rule "to find the volume of a sphere"—that is, according to his first definition, to find the *volume* of a *surface!* Turning over to page 195, we find several problems like the following: "Find the sphere whose radius is 12.6156 meters." As we are now uncertain whether it is the volume of a solid or the area of a surface that he wishes us to find, it is only by assuming one of the two meanings, working out the problem on that supposition, and comparing the result with the answer which he gives, that we discover that he has returned to his first love. If these are the results of a Berlin residence, would it not be advisable for Mr. Halsted, the next time he visits Europe, to try Göttingen or Leipzig? The truth is that the rage to invent new symbols and to coin new words without any real necessity, arising from the desire of expressing new ideas, has reached such a point that mathematicians have not only become unintelligible to well-educated people, even when treating familiar subjects, but they are fast becoming unintelligible to each other.

The following extract (p. 14) will show Mr. Halsted's notion of what is convenient, his knowledge of ferry-navigation, and his felicity of illustration. He is treating of the limits of variable quantities:

"EXAM. 14. The variable may be likened to a convenient ferry-boat, which will bear us just as close as we choose to the dock—the constant limit—but which cannot actually reach or touch it; for if they touch, both explode into the unknown infinite."

We hasten to jump ashore.

Fashion in Deformity: as Illustrated in the Customs of Barbarous and Civilized Races. By William Henry Fowler, LL.D., etc. With Illustrations. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1881. [Nature Series.]

THIS lecture, delivered last year before the Royal Institution of Great Britain, well deserves its present permanent form. Like any history of primitive superstitions, it shows the living connection between the lowest savage and the proudest heir of all the ages. We mutilate and deform both the lower animals and ourselves in deference to standards of beauty alike unnatural and absurd, and in spite of a world of pain and suffering, voluntary and involuntary. The check-rein is a survival of the period of docked and cocked tails in horses (see Cruikshank, *passim*); sailors emulate the Polynesians in tattooing; the lady's earring is one extreme of a practice of which the other is recorded in the case of "a man on one of the islands near New Guinea, the holes in whose ears had been extended to such an extent that the lobes had been converted into great pendant rings of skin, through which he could easily pass his arms"; the French still rival the Flathead Indians in artificial compression of the skulls of infants, and with results vastly more disastrous to health and intellect. So Professor Fowler leads his readers from point to point of his indictment against our humanity and our reason, beginning with the hair and nails, and ending with tight lacing among women. What he has to say of the barbarous treatment of the feet it would be well for mankind if the "anatomical shoemaker" could read and profit by, and the stocking-maker as well. "The great error in all boots and shoes made upon the system now in vogue in all parts of the civilized world lies in this method of construction upon a principle of bilateral symmetry." The result is often a deformity little short of that purposely attained by the Chinese by swathing the feet of their women.

"The English mother or nurse who thrusts the tender feet of a young child into stiff, unyielding pointed shoes or boots, often regardless of the essential differences in form of right and left, at a time when freedom is especially needed for their proper growth and development, is the exact counterpart of the Chinook Indian woman, applying her bandages and boards to the opposite end of her baby's body, only with considerably less excuse. . . . Any one who recollects the boots of the late Lord Palmerston will be reminded that a wide expanse of shoe leather is in this country, even during the prevalence of an opposite fashion, quite compatible with the attainment of the highest political and social eminence" (pp. 72–73).

In an aside, Professor Fowler remarks that the sculptor's making the second toe longer than the first is a pure conventionalism, "derived from the Greek canon, which in its turn was copied from the Egyptian, and probably originally derived from the negro. It certainly does not represent what is most usual in our race and time." Moreover, "As in all ages—in fact, in all other animals—the first toe is considerably shorter than the second, a long great toe is a specially human attribute, and instead of being despised by artists, it should be looked upon as a mark of elevation in the scale of organized beings."

This little work merits the widest possible circulation.

Wood Magic: a Fable. By Richard Jefferies. New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co. 1881. 'WOOD MAGIC' is a taking title, and Mr. Jefferies has written books of exceptional charm about sylvan things, of which he has great knowledge. But those who have read his 'Gamekeeper at Home' or 'Wild Life in a Southern County' will be disappointed in the present work. It is a fable for children; but Mr. Jefferies's fabling consists in little more than the personification of English birds, beasts, and insects under the popular conceptions of their respective moral characters. It is quite the Ruskinian method: the weasel, for instance, embodies all that would be false, cruel, and cunning in a human being; but of the weasel as a parent, a provider, the possessor of a sharp appetite, and as our own kin in perhaps every respect save moral responsibility, Mr. Jefferies does not conceive at all. It is not the weasel's accidental relation to his own poultry-yard which forms a sufficient theme for the fable-teller of our day; we look for more than this in any study of animals, whether poetic or scientific, by observers so well informed as Mr. Jefferies has shown himself to be. Nor has his writing the charm of the older method, as La Fontaine used it—the keen simplicity, the "lurking archness," which give his fables permanent interest as satires upon human life. From either the sentimental or the Darwinian point of view a man of Mr. Jefferies's gifts might have made a better "fable" than the present one, which suggests an ancient definition (Bruno's, we believe): "Fable est uns contes que l'on dit des choses qui ne sont pas voires ne voiresemblables." It is scarcely true, or probable, for instance, that a child of four years could have talked like this: "'Sky,' said Bevis, 'I love you like I love my mother.'" But this is perhaps the worst thing in this volume, which has the look to us of being earlier work than the excellent productions by the same author which we have noticed heretofore.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Avery, Prof. E. M. Elements of Chemistry. New York: Sheldon & Co.
Baragiola, A. Crestomazia Italiana Ortofonica. Prosa. Strassburg: C. J. Trübner.
Babcock, Emma W. Household Hints. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 60 cents.
Bjömson, B. Arne: a Tale. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Bunce, O. B. Bachelor Bluff: His Opinions, Sentiments, and Disputations. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $1 25.
Buxton, B. H. Sceptre and Ring: a Tale. New York: Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Cornwall, Sarah J. Roses and Myrtles. Poems. New York: D. Appleton & Co.
De Forest, J. W. The Bloody Chasm. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Fowler, Prof. T. Bacon. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 25.
Publishers' Trade-List Annual. 1881. New York: F. Leypoldt. $1 50.
Rosenthal, Dr. R. S. The Meisterschaft System: German. New York: I. K. Funk & Co.
Rossetti, Christina G. A Pageant, and Other Poems. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 25.
Rousselet, L. The Two Cabin-Boys. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 50.
Urwick, Rev. W. Indian Pictures, Drawn with Pen and Pencil. New York: Thos. Nelson & Sons.
Warner, Susan. The Letter of Credit. New York: Robt. Carter & Bros.
Watson, P. B. Bibliography of the Pre-Columbian Discoveries of America. Roxbury, Mass. $1.
Williams, A. M. Poets and Poetry of Ireland. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Wilson, C. S. Mining Laws of the United States, etc. Denver: W. H. Lawrence & Co. $1.

Greece and Rome.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 27, 1881.

The Week.

THE most noticeable feature of the proceedings at Yorktown on Wednesday was the very neat and graceful speech of the President. He succeeded in expressing, in a very few words, the idea which the centennial is intended to commemorate and the grateful sentiments aroused by the presence of the foreign guests, and in giving prominence to the fact, which it was certainly important to dwell upon, that the anniversary was celebrated with no feeling of exultation or rancor against England. Surely, as he said, "no such unworthy sentiment would find harbor in our hearts, so profoundly thrilled with expressions of sorrow and sympathy which our national bereavement has evoked." A still more emphatic method of expressing the real nature of the national feeling towards England and the Queen was taken at the close of the celebration, when, by order of the President, the British flag was saluted by the land and naval forces at Yorktown.

The rest passed off very successfully. The Yorktown centennial, as we pointed out the other day, possesses an historical picturesqueness which prevents it from being commonplace; and the presence of foreigners with titles and uniforms, combined with the military pageant, makes just that contribution to the spectacular effect of the occasion which was wanting at Philadelphia, where whatever was picturesque and attractive to the eye was almost swallowed up in the dull monotony of the huge and typically American crowd. When we come to the set speeches on such occasions as these, the supply of original thought with regard to the "lessons" taught by them was long ago exhausted, while our patriotic emotions have been subjected to so many centennial strains that their elasticity has become somewhat weakened. Mr. Winthrop succeeded better than might have been anticipated in making an address which went over some very familiar ground in a way that, if it did not fire the heart or quicken the pulse, was sensible, dignified, and appropriate to the occasion.

The report of the committee appointed last May by Mr. Windom to examine into the contingent Treasury expenses was submitted to the Senate on Monday. The committee found that for several years there had been in the department an officer known as the "Custodian," who, with the chief clerk, had been responsible for the contingent expenses. The office and salary of the Custodian (Mr. O. L. Pitney) the committee reported as entirely without authority of law. In making purchases and incurring expenses the committee found generally that there had been looseness and waste. In detail, they say that 118¼ yards of carpet had been paid for twice over; that one Moses had been paid for 637½ yards of carpet which already belonged to the United States, and which he, on having his attention called to the fact, at once replaced with 637½ yards of inferior quality; that "Woodruff file-holders" had been paid for as "ice," but that the file-holders had never been delivered; and that the custodian "refused to furnish any explanation," stating that a "personal explanation" would be made to Mr. Windom; that a purchased barrel of bay rum was put down as "deodorized alcohol," though what became of it does not appear. Other items of the same sort are given. Notwithstanding the committee's statement as to its illegality, it seems from a communication from Mr. Upton, chief clerk of the Department, that the position of Custodian is an old one. Mr. Windom, however, decided at once to abolish the office. This report of petty pilferings in the Department derived its principal importance from the rumor that Mr. Sherman was in some way personally involved in the "Custodian's" doings; but there seems to have been no foundation for this whatever.

Mr. Francis A. Walker has resigned his position as Superintendent of the Census for the purpose of taking charge of the Institute of Technology in Boston. The presidency of that institution was offered to him several months ago, and he accepted it, so that his leaving the Census Office causes no surprise. The work of the census is sufficiently advanced to require no longer the active control of the master hand. Mr. Walker may be regarded as an excellent model of the scholar in politics. The independence of his way of thinking on political questions could not make him a favorite with the ordinary party man, but his large and varied attainments pointed him out on more than one occasion as a man of eminent usefulness. He was for some time Commissioner of Indian Affairs under President Grant, and left the office for reasons very honorable to himself, and twice he has been put at the head of the Census of the United States, universally recognized as by far the ablest and best equipped man to superintend that important work. The last census was taken under a law the principal provisions of which were devised by Mr. Walker himself, and it may be said to be not merely the most comprehensive and best, but the first really valuable census this country has ever had.

In an order issued last week with regard to assessments for party purposes, Postmaster Pearson directs the attention of his subordinates to an official ruling of the Post-Office Department, issued under the last Administration, laying down the principle that the salary of a public officer is fixed by law, "and when he has earned and received it no one but himself can direct the disposition thereof," and he may contribute money for political purposes or refuse to do so "without affecting his tenure of office." Collector Robertson, in an interview on the same subject, said that he did not think the assessment system was the best way to raise money for political purposes, nor did he think "the reform newspapers wrong in opposing it as they did." He had no orders to give with regard to the subject. He would discharge a subordinate for unfaithfulness or bad habits, but not for refusing to pay a political assessment, "his giving or not giving being a matter wholly outside of his official relations." These declarations are perfectly correct, and we have no doubt they are sincerely meant; but it will be easier to convince the public of their sincerity than to relieve the Post-Office and Custom-House clerks of all apprehension as to the consequences of a refusal on their part to pay. And this is necessary in order to take from the assessment business the flavor of official coercion. To this end everything should be avoided which looks like officially countenancing the levying of assessments.

We know very well that neither the Postmaster nor the Collector nor the head of a department in Washington can prevent a campaign committee from addressing and mailing circulars requesting contributions to the clerks in those establishments. But campaign committees usually claim the privilege of sending their own agents with subscription lists, on which every clerk is put down for a certain sum, from desk to desk in those offices, to get the signatures of the clerks and to collect at the same time the amounts for which they have been assessed. When this is permitted by the chief of a Government establishment the coercive flavor of the assessment becomes very strong, and nine out of ten of the clerks conclude at once that a refusal to pay will cost them their places. It is therefore essential that the practice of permitting assessment collectors to enter the official buildings and to go from desk to desk should be stopped. No facilities should be offered for such things in public offices any more than in private ones, during business hours, while the clerks are or should be engaged exclusively in the discharge of their public duties.

A few days ago the members of the Republican district associations in the Eleventh Congressional district nominated Mr. W. W. Astor as their candidate for the seat in Congress vacated by Mr. L. P. Morton. When young gentlemen of Mr. Astor's wealth and social connections take an active part in politics, it is generally thought that they do so from disinterested motives, and with the sole desire to achieve an honorable reputation in serving the public interest. They are certainly above the sordid impulses of the ordinary politician who seeks public employment for a living. It is supposed that, with their assured social position, they can afford to defy those sinister influences in politics which threaten with persecution and defeat those they cannot control, and to act upon independent convictions of public good with perfect fearlessness of consequences. Their active participation in politics is therefore usually hailed with general satisfaction. But when, instead of being models of fearless and honorable indepen-

dence, they become startling examples of a want of that very independence, the public disappointment is in their case greater than in others. We regret to say that Mr. Astor has so disappointed those who applauded his first appearance in public life as a sign of good promise. As a member of the State Senate he persevered in subserviency to the local Machine, against the well-known wishes of a large majority of his constituents, in maintaining the deadlock over the Senatorial election.

Mr. Astor may have considered such conduct shrewd time-serving in view of the nominations the Machine could bestow. Such a nomination he has now obtained. But he must not be surprised if when going to the polls many of the voters of his district remember that Mr. Astor by his course in the State Senate has given little hope as to what his course would be in Congress, and that such a nomination as his obedience to the Machine has procured for him — a nomination by mere close corporations representing nothing but their members— may in such a case be regarded as binding upon nobody but their members. These reflections might have touched him little, had the opposing candidate been such as to induce reluctant voters to support Mr. Astor in order to escape from some great public danger or disgrace. But they must have appeared to him more serious when he heard of the nomination by the "County Democrats" of Mr. Orlando B. Potter, whose private character is not only unobjectionable, but who by his active support of the civil-service reform movement has shown that he at least knows how to recognize the signs of the times by serving higher interests than mere party politics.

Two New Jersey editors have been sentenced to hard labor—one for ten months and the other for six months—for criminal libel. It seems that they pleaded guilty, in order to escape the expenses of a trial, never dreaming that the court would impose a severe sentence. The punishment will, however, probably prove a wholesome discipline to them, and they will be all the better editors at the close of their respective terms. Criminal libel is now really the only effective mode of redress for assaults upon private character in the press. There are no such delays in the proceeding as always arise in civil suits, and the question presented for the decision of the jury is very much simpler than in such actions. One reason why these so rarely come to anything is the wide latitude of cross-examination generally permitted by the court. The defendant's counsel is allowed, for the purpose of getting at the pecuniary value of the plaintiff's character, to go into his whole private life, drag out in court every fact in his past history which can be in the least damaging to him, and, in short, to subject him to mental torture as bad as or worse than that caused by the original libel. In criminal libel, on the other hand, the issue can hardly involve anything more than the publication and the truth of the facts; the person libelled is not a party to the proceeding, and no question of pecuniary, damages arises.

It has also the advantage of impressing the gravity of the offence upon the minds of the jury, who generally are apt to look upon civil suits for libel against editors very much as editors themselves do. There is something in the whole process of assessing the value of a man's character in court which robs a civil libel suit of its dignity, and makes the very persons who are most entitled to the protection of the courts in this matter—*i. e.*, those who are sensitive to attacks upon their character—least willing to resort to them. Almost the same sort of feeling has grown up, in this country at least, among men of refinement, with regard to civil libel suits, that has always existed among women of refinement with regard to actions for breach of promise. A criminal libel suit, with the state intervening to protect the character of the person injured, presents none of these difficulties; and the case is one in which the state ought to intervene whenever it is possible. A community in which the press is allowed to become an engine of defamation and abuse is in a bad way. It will not do to wave the matter aside as of no consequence; nothing is more certain than that where attacks on character come to be generally regarded as trifling or amusing matters, character itself must soon be regarded with indifference.

The New York banks gained $4,430,150 in their reserve during the last bank week, in consequence of the large disbursements of the Treasury and, to a small extent, of the receipts of foreign gold. At the close of the week there was no profit in importing gold; the receipts since August, however, now amount to $21,152,160, or about half of those in the corresponding time a year ago. The Treasury bought $2,000,000 of extended 5 per cents during the week, and also gave notice that any part of the remaining $12,000,000 bonds called for redemption December 24 would be paid whenever presented, with interest to the date of presentation. The money market, naturally enough, became easier for borrowers, and there was less anxiety about the future of rates. At the Stock Exchange, United States bonds and railroad investments were for the most part strong. The National Banks were large buyers of the extended 5 per cents to substitute for extended 6 per cents, the policy of the Treasury in its redemptions being apparently to extinguish all of the latter before touching the former. The differences between the trunk-line railroads are not yet healed, but on account of the large accumulation of freights at the Western cities, each of the trunk-line roads of its own accord advanced rates late in the week, so that they are considerably above the figures recently current. By some this is construed as being the first step towards a comprehensive settlement later in the season.

Mr. Walter, proprietor of the London *Times*, has been again interviewed about city pavements, the water supply, and the elevated roads, and made thereon some startling assertions. One was that the cost of an aqueduct from Lake Erie to this city could be defrayed by "one year's saving in New York city jobbery." As the annual revenue of the city is about $30,000,000, and the aqueduct would probably cost $30,000,000, Mr. Walter must know of greater leaks in the city treasury than occurred even in Tweed's day. He also denounced the new Capitol at Albany and the pavement of Philadelphia. About the effect of General Garfield's death he declined to commit himself on the point whether it would "not eventually result to the benefit of the Union"; but he went so far as to say that it (the death) had "led to an examination of the Constitution and the laws, and had pointed a warning lesson regarding the civil-service system now in vogue." Of the Irish he spoke with "compressed lips" as "a fractious and turbulent people," but made a mistake in his illustration by alleging that they got up the Maryland and Pennsylvania riots. He would evidently, if a conqueror, rule them with a rod of iron. It is right to add that the London *Truth* and *World*, in very amusing articles, ridicule the American desire to know what Mr. Walter thinks, from which it is inferrible that his "views" are not so much in demand in England as here.

A statement is made on behalf of Mr. Tyner with regard to his connection with the Star-route cases which vindicates him as having the right to "claim" to have been the first person to call the attention of the Department to the irregularities, by means of the suppressed report made in 1879, after his investigation of the subject on the Pacific coast. Judge Key, who was at the time Postmaster-General, has been interviewed with regard to the matter, and in the course of his remarks makes the singular statement that on the report being presented to him he told Mr. Tyner that if it were published then there would be a "row," and that "Mr. Brady would feel that his territory had been invaded." He therefore advised Mr. Tyner to have a conference with Mr. Brady, whom he believed to be honest and capable. It seems to be settled that Mr. Tyner is to leave the office, notwithstanding his "claim," and it is said to be untrue that General Grant interceded for him. This may show that the importance of "carrying Indiana," which was urged as a reason for Mr. Tyner's appointment, is not so great as it used to be, or else that Mr. Tyner is regarded as less likely to render efficient service in carrying it than formerly.

The *Western Christian Advocate* is very severe on us for not knowing that the Methodists have had "missions, religious societies, churches, and converts by the hundreds in Italy, and that a large number of these societies and churches are ministered, too, by ordained clergymen, converts from the Roman Catholic Church." It communicates this information, in a bitter manner, to what it calls sneeringly "the religious editor" of the *Nation*. We are very glad to find that we were mistaken in thinking there were few or no Italian Methodists; but we warn the *Advocate* that this will not prevent our keeping a sharp eye on him when he comes to "offer

inducements" for "renewals," "clubs," and new subscribers, about Christmas-time. Should these "inducements" take the form of spiritual indulgences, he may be sure that our ignorance about Methodism in Italy will not seal our lips.

Mr. A. M. Sullivan, one of the most rational of the Land Leaguers, has, in an interview in Dublin with the correspondent of the *Herald*, spoken of the great inconvenience experienced by the agitators in Ireland, or "the men in the gap," as they are poetically called, from having lines of policy imposed on them by the Irish here, who send most of the money, and who, being simple spectators of the fray, like to see things made lively. A Leaguer in New York is naturally more eager for rebellion than the Leaguer in Dublin, because he can have his fun for a quarter of a dollar without even neglecting his business; while his unfortunate confederate at home—if he takes his advice—will have to be out nearly night and day, shooting, howling, and calling names. There is no sounder rule in politics than that which forbids any honest man to advocate hazardous or violent courses in the risk and responsibility of which he does not mean to share. Not only, to quote Jeanette and Jeannot, should "those who make the quarrels be the only men to fight," but every man who makes a quarrel should be compelled to share in the fighting. If the New York Leaguers want fighting and robbery done in Ireland, they should themselves go over and take a hand in them. That is the place to make the British lion yelp. We notice, by the way, that they have issued a proclamation mentioning among other things that "the supreme moment for Ireland" has come. This is not strictly accurate. The "supreme moment for Ireland" has been arriving many times a year for many years, whereas the language of the League gives the impression that it is a new thing.

Professor Goldwin Smith has been carrying on, in the *Nineteenth Century*, a controversy with Mr. Wolff on the Jewish question, in which he makes the strongest statement of the case against the Jews which has yet appeared. He denies that the hostility to them either is now or has ever been mainly religious in its origin. He says it is hostility to a race or tribal organization, carrying on obnoxious trades, the chief being usurious lending, and he finds a solution of the "Jewish question" in the abandonment of the tribal organization by the Jews—that is, the abandonment of the prohibition against marriage with Christians—and their surrender of the Old Testament as a sacred book. Indeed, he insists upon this latter step as a very important one for the Christian Church also, which he declares cannot any longer safely promulgate what he considers the immoralities of Hebrew history. It will, however, probably be a good while before the Jews will seek escape from the discomforts of their present position by any such methods as these. It may be their tribal organization and not their religion which exposes them to Christian hatred; but to them the tribal organization and the religion are and must be inseparable. They could hardly give up the one without making profound modifications in the other. Professor Smith also complains bitterly of their refusal in every country to take to agriculture, and doubts much whether, even if their projected restoration to Palestine is carried out, they will take to it there. Indeed, he says they will be most likely to cultivate the soil through fellahs whom they will "boss." But on this point it is to be observed that no men of any race take to farming with their own hands whose wits are of a kind to promise them a good living in the towns. Even the French, whose capacity for hard labor on the soil is almost unequalled, show as strong a desire to escape from agriculture to the stock exchange and counting-room as the Jews do. The strength of this tendency among Americans is well known.

Affairs in Peru have come to another crisis, if another crisis be possible. The Calderon Government has been overthrown by Admiral Lynch of the Chilian Navy, ostensibly because it had been issuing too much paper money, or had been issuing it fraudulently, but in reality, probably, because the issue of paper money was the only function of a government it was able to perform. It was set up by the Chilians in order to provide some organization capable of making a treaty and preserving order. But as it has never been able to exercise any authority outside Lima, it is plain that no treaty it could make would be worth anything. All the power it ever possessed it derived from the presence of Chilian troops. Admiral Lynch has accordingly deposed it by simply saying that hereafter in territory occupied by the Chilian troops all authority will be exercised by officers appointed at his headquarters. As the paper money had proved a great affliction to the business community, the revolution apparently causes no great regret. Outside the Chilian lines it will make no change either for the better or the worse. There anarchy has reigned since the close of the war, and will continue to reign. It will probably diminish only as the temptations to robbery and murder diminish. The Chilians only hold two or three large cities. The rest of the country is held by, or rather exposed to, two or three chiefs, Montero, Pierola, and Solar, each of whom has a small force about him and cannot be caught by the Chilians. The whole situation is deplorable, and shows the danger of pushing a semi-civilized Government too hard. In most countries in the stage of progress which Peru has reached, the Government, whatever it be, is almost the only social bond, and if it is overthrown, there results something like Hobbes's state of nature.

The part now played in the trouble by our Minister, General Hurlbut, probably alone makes it at all interesting to most Americans, and we confess it is to us decidedly puzzling. He has written a very authoritative letter to Admiral Lynch in the character of a mediator, giving his own opinion and that of his Government as to what the Chilians should do. It is, in many places, a startling departure from the views which our Government promulgated during and at the close of our war as to the proper limits of outside meddling either between two belligerents or between victor and vanquished. But in addition to this it lays down rules of international law which are so novel that they ought to be either argumentatively and formally fathered or formally repudiated by the State Department. He strongly protests against any annexation of Peruvian territory, although he admits the Chilian right to a war indemnity, but says that, as a "principle of public right," "this should be either agreed on by the parties, or determined by disinterested arbitration." We believe this is the first time any such limitation on the rights of a conqueror has been produced by any diplomatist. It was not thought of either by us in the Mexican war, or by the Germans in the French war, or in the Austrian war. General Hurlbut declares it is "contrary to the rules which should prevail among civilized nations to proceed at once, and as a *sine quâ non* condition, to incorporate into Chilian jurisdiction territory which is undoubtedly Peruvian, without having previously proved the incapacity or unwillingness of Peru to meet the indemnity in some other form." It may be contrary to the rules which "should prevail" among civilized nations, but it is certainly not contrary to the rules which do prevail at present; and consequently it ought not to call down on the Chilians "the most decided disapprobation on the part of the United States," as General Hurlbut says it will.

The meeting of the three Emperors at Dantzic is now generally supposed—and the supposition is supported by the language of the Russian explanatory circular—to have been prompted by the Czar's fear that Bismarck's designs were not as regards him altogether pacific. In fact, the latter was suspected of being dissatisfied with the German frontier on the Russian side, and of having concocted a scheme for taking Poland away bodily from both Austria and Russia, and giving it to Saxony, and compensating Austria out of the Balkan principalities. It was, it is believed, with the view of satisfying himself that nothing so alarming as this was on foot, that the Czar sought the meeting, and he is officially reported as having come away very much satisfied, on being assured that no mischief was brewing. The desire of the three potentates to agree upon some concerted line of action against the European Socialists was probably put forward as a mere blind to cover much more serious business. But the meeting has not dissipated the belief that Bismarck means to make one more great territorial change before he quits the scene, in which the descent of Austria towards the Ægean will form a prominent feature. This determination to push her down into that region is of long standing; it is, in fact, as old as 1866. The annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina was the first step in it, and the next will probably give her the suzerainty of Servia, of Bulgaria, and perhaps Eastern Rumelia, with Salonica as the terminus of her great southeastern trunk line of railway.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

THURSDAY, the 20th, being the anniversary of the surrender of Lord Cornwallis, was appropriately celebrated at Yorktown. President Arthur opened the ceremonies with a graceful address. He was followed by M. Max Outrey, the French Minister, and the Marquis de Rochambeau, who returned thanks for the courtesies the French delegation had received in this country. Baron Steuben responded for the German guests. The Centennial Ode, written by Paul Hayne, of South Carolina, was then sung by a chorus, after which Robert C. Winthrop, of Boston, delivered the oration of the day. On Friday there was a grand review of the regular and volunteer soldiery assembled at Yorktown. At the close of the day, in accordance with President Arthur's proclamation, the English flag was saluted. There was a great crowd and a large number of distinguished persons present. The accommodations for visitors are reported to have been wretched. After leaving Yorktown the French guests visited Annapolis and Richmond and various other points of interest.

On Monday President Arthur sent to the Senate the nomination of ex-Governor Edwin D. Morgan, of New York, for Secretary of the Treasury. As soon as the Senate went into executive session the nomination was at once confirmed. It is said that, without doubt, ex-Senator Howe, of Wisconsin, will succeed Mr. MacVeagh in the Attorney-Generalship.

Mr. Morgan having positively and definitely declined the Secretaryship of the Treasury, it is rumored that United States Treasurer Gilfillan is likely to be nominated for the office by President Arthur.

President Arthur has sent to the Senate, in answer to the resolution adopted on the 14th of October enquiring what steps the Government has taken to protect the rights of the United States in the Panama Canal, the report of the Secretary of State. Secretary Blaine says that, having learned since the adjournment of Congress of the rejection by Colombia of the protocol negotiated by the representatives of the United States and that Republic, and having been informed that the Government of Colombia by its public acts was avowing its desire to terminate the treaty of 1846 and appeal to the Powers of Europe for a joint guarantee of the neutrality of the Isthmus, the Department of State addressed a letter of instruction to each of the United States Ministers in Europe. The letter is of considerable length, and sets forth the political rights of the United States in the matter of the Panama Canal. It reiterates, in substance, the so-called Monroe Doctrine, and calls the attention of Lord Granville to the thirty-fifth article of the treaty of 1846, in which the United States guaranteed "positively and efficaciously" the perfect neutrality of the Isthmus. Mr. Blaine goes on to say that, "in the judgment of the President, this guarantee given by the United States of America does not require reinforcement, or accession, or assent from any other Power." The letter is dated the 24th of June, 1881.

A resolution was adopted in the Senate on the 25th inst., authorizing the Library Committee to receive and carefully preserve the papers of the Count de Rochambeau, to await the action of Congress on the proposition to sell the same to the United States Government. The papers fill a very large trunk and include many letters of George Washington. The committee had been appointed in May to examine the disbursements and contingent-expenses account of the Treasury Department, and as the result of their investigation they state that the office of Custodian of the Treasury Department is illegal, and that there have been extravagance, waste, and unlawful purchases in the department. In a letter to the Senate accompanying the report, Secretary Windom says that all the changes necessary to a complete and thorough correction of these irregularities and abuses have been adopted.

In the Senate on Friday Mr Sherman offered a resolution calling upon the Secretary of the Treasury for the report of the Meline committee, it having been intimated in the newspapers that the report had been suppressed owing to the fact that there was something in it which was injurious to Mr. Sherman. The resolution was adopted, and on Monday the report was laid before the Senate.

The sub-committee of the Senate Judiciary Committee have been investigating the subject of a bankrupt law, and in order to obtain information fifty thousand circulars of enquiry have been distributed throughout the country. It is said that nine-tenths of the opinions received are in favor of the passage of a bankruptcy law. The United States, as well as the State, judges unanimously approve the passage of some law on the subject.

From the report of the First Assistant Postmaster-General for the last fiscal year, it appears that the increase in the number of post-offices during the year was 1,500. The total number of post-offices in the United States on the 30th of June last was 44,512.

Large reductions have been made in the service on the Star and Steamboat routes, and it is thought at the Post-Office Department that further material reductions would result in harm to necessary service. The reductions already made have resulted in a saving to the Government of $525,000 per quarter.

Assistant Postmaster-General Tyner, whose resignation President Arthur has demanded on account of his having failed to expose the Star-route frauds which he is said to have discovered in 1879, has caused a very lame defence to be published. It is stated, however, that nothing that Mr. Tyner or his friends can do will save him, and that Mr. Frank Hatton will be nominated for Mr. Tyner's position at an early moment.

General Francis A. Walker, the Superintendent of the United States Census and one of the most efficient bureau officers of the Government, has resigned his position to take the presidency of the Institute of Technology in Boston.

Mrs. Garfield has written to Colonel Rockwell requesting him to announce in some public manner her purpose to cause to be published an account of the life and an appropriate collection of the literary remains of General Garfield, "after that careful consideration and preparation so manifestly necessary."

Mr. Cyrus W. Field reports that the total amount subscribed towards the fund for Mrs. Garfield and her children is $361,791 72, $361,770 75 of which has been invested in United States four per cent. registered bonds.

The Executive Committee of the National Garfield Memorial Hospital have issued an address to the pastors of churches throughout the United States, suggesting that Saturday and Sunday, November 5 and 6, "be set apart for discourses and collections in all their places of worship throughout the land" in aid of the hospital fund. Contributions should be forwarded to the Hon. James Gilfillan, Treasurer of the United States.

Justice Cox has granted the motion of Mr. Scoville, Guiteau's counsel, for an allowance to defray the expenses of bringing the defendant's witnesses to Washington.

On Friday the Grand Jury at Washington found an indictment against Captain H. W. Howgate, charging him with embezzling upwards of $90,000 from the Government.

The Navy Department has received communications from the Arctic relief ships *Rodgers* and *Alliance*. They report that no trace of the *Jeannette* has been found.

A meeting of the French and American Claims Commission was held at Washington on Monday. M. Grimaud de Caux, who has been acting as provisional agent for the French Republic, has been appointed permanent agent by the French Government.

Advance copies of the eleventh number of the *Consular Reporter* upon the commerce, manufactures, etc., of foreign countries have been furnished to the press. Considerable space is devoted to the subject of the restrictions imposed by France, Germany, Belgium, and Switzerland upon the importation into those countries of pork, lard, and canned beef, showing that the measures taken by the Governments of the countries named have created such a panic among the consumers that the sale of American meat has been greatly injured, and in some cases virtually destroyed.

Mr. Carlton, the chairman of the Port Huron Relief Committee, has published an address thanking the "charitable public of the United States and Canada" for their contributions, and requesting that no more contributions in kind, but only money, be sent to the Relief Committee.

The repudiationists in the Minnesota Legislature have adopted a policy of obstruction in the contest over the bill providing for the payment of the State bonds.

Mr. Windom was nominated by acclamation at the Republican Senatorial caucus on Thursday, and in the separate balloting by the two Houses on the 25th inst., received all but four of the Republican votes in the Legislature, and of course a large majority. His return to the U. S. Senate is therefore assured.

The Constitutional Amendment providing that all the judges of the Supreme and Superior Courts shall be nominated by the Governor and confirmed by both houses of the General Assembly has been ratified by the people of Connecticut. The judges have hitherto been nominated by party caucuses and elected by the Legislature.

Mr. John H. Lewis, the candidate for Lieutenant-Governor of Virginia on the Readjuster ticket, is reported to have said that the Readjuster party in Virginia is certain of victory and a large majority in the coming election.

On Thursday the Mississippi River broke through the Sny Levee south of Quincy, Ill., and flooded hundreds of acres, destroying many fields of fine winter wheat and much live stock, and forcing the farmers in some instances to flee for their lives.

There has been an alarming prospect of scarcity of water in New York city during the week, and on Saturday Mayor Grace issued a letter to the people of this city calling their attention to the gravity of the situation, and requesting their co-operation in stopping the "lavish or wasteful use of water." The danger has been somewhat abated by the slight rainfall on Monday and Tuesday.

The new Inman steamer *City of Rome*, which is the largest steamer afloat with the exception of the *Great Eastern*, has made her first trip from Liverpool to New York. She was rather long on the voyage, but this is said to have been principally due to the bad weather.

The Church Congress of the Protestant Episcopal Church began its seventh annual session in Providence on Tuesday. There was a large gathering of clergymen and laymen. Bishop Clark of Rhode Island delivered the inaugural address. Civil-Service Reform was the topic assigned for discussion for the first evening.

Justice Booth has bound over for trial to the January term of the Superior Court Walter and James Malley, charged with the murder of Jennie Cramer.

Action has been taken by the Pennsylvania and Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Companies to put a stop to the ruinous competition which has been going on among the trunk lines over the through-business. Trusting to Mr. Vanderbilt's assertion that the railroad war was not of his own seeking, and that he has simply

followed the action of the other managers, the two above-mentioned roads have agreed to double the present passenger rates between New England and the seaboard cities which they enter, and all points west of Pittsburg. This puts an end to the cheap Western travel of which the public have had the benefit for some time.

There is an active demand at Richmond for Confederate bonds. One banking house is reported to have bought over $1,000,000 worth of them on Wednesday last. The only hope of their redemption is thought to lie in a considerable amount of money placed to the credit of the Confederate Government in the Bank of England during the Rebellion.

FOREIGN.

The Land League has issued a manifesto advising tenants to pay no rents under any circumstances. This was followed by a proclamation issued in Dublin by the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, declaring the Land League to be an illegal and criminal organization, and that all meetings to carry out or promote its designs or purposes were unlawful and criminal and would be dispersed by force. Archbishop Croke has dealt a severe blow to the Land League by publishing a letter protesting against the "no-rent" manifesto. He says that he has been a steadfast and uncompromising supporter of the public policy of the League, believing it constitutional and calculated to effect great national results, but that the absolute repudiation of rents meets with no sympathy from him. Arrests under the Coercion Act continue, and meetings are still being held in disobedience to the Lord Lieutenant's proclamation. It is reported that the headquarters of the League will be moved to Boulogne, France, as soon as it is no longer possible to carry it on in Dublin.

It is said that a great pressure is being exerted by English and Irish Catholics to obtain from the Pope a strong and clear condemnation of the Land League "no-rent" manifesto.

The Irish Land Court opened in Dublin on Thursday. Lord Justice O'Hagan said the court had decided on extremely simple rules of procedure, free from all technicalities. The fee for entering the court would be only a shilling, so that nobody could have the excuse of not having the advantage of the Land Act. There would be a similar fee on giving notices of appeals. Many tenants, he said, had already applied to have their rents fixed, but no decision could be given before the expiration of ten days. Mr. Edward F. Tilton and Lord Vernon sit with Justice O'Hagan in the Land Court. It is stated that a majority of the litigants thus far belong to northern counties.

The Right Hon. Sir John R. Mowbray, Conservative Member of Parliament for Oxford University, has written to the London *Times* confirming Professor Goldwin Smith's opinion concerning the kindly feelings of Americans for England. He says he believes that the unreasonableness of the Irish agitation and the character of its leaders are as thoroughly appreciated in America as in England.

The London *Times*, in an editorial discussing Secretary Blaine's letter in reference to the Panama Canal and the Monroe Doctrine, says that while the weighty nature of the interests of America in any interoceanic canal through the Isthmus of Panama will be readily admitted, still Mr. Blaine "pushes the point too far when he would have the world take it for granted that no Government except his own and that of Colombia has any claim to be consulted in regard to the neutrality of the work." The *Times* further says that this proposition is not supported in the letter by arguments which will make it acceptable to England.

The London *Daily News* has announced that the original sum of £500,000, given by the late George Peabody in 1862 as a fund for building lodging houses for the poor in London, now amounts to £720,000.

The steamer *Clan MacDuff*, bound from Liverpool to Bombay, foundered off the Welsh coast on Thursday night. She carried twenty-two passengers. Between twenty and thirty lives are reported to have been lost.

Mr. J. R. Keene's colt Foxhall scored his seventh victory on the English turf on Tuesday by winning the Cambridgeshire Stakes. Thirty-two horses started.

A meeting of the French cotton industry was held at Épinal on Sunday. Senator Claude of the Department of the Vosges presided. He deprecated a reduction of the duties, which he said would give foreigners, including the Germans, an immense advantage over the French. He urged that an appeal be made to the Chambers to maintain the duties of 1880 as the minimum.

A meeting of Radicals was held in Paris on Sunday, and various charges were made against the Government in regard to Tunis. Resolutions were adopted summoning the Chamber of Deputies to institute a searching enquiry in relation to the war there.

The condition of the French troops in Africa is reported to be worse than ever. The number of the sick is increasing and the hospitals in Algeria are overfilled.

Ali Ben Amar, the chief of the insurgents, has written to the Bey of Tunis that their religion compels the Tunisians to resist the practical cession of the country to France. The Bey demands from M. Roustan the immediate recall of Mustapha Pasha, the late Tunisian Premier.

The Bey of Tunis has received a letter from the Cadi, the Mufti, and principal inhabitants of Kairwan, declaring their willingness to surrender the town, but solemnly protesting against the bombardment on account of the resistance offered by Arabs outside the walls. The Bey immediately sent the letter to M. Roustan, the French Minister. Meanwhile the resistance of the Arabs to the advancing French columns is unabated.

The ceremony of riveting the parts of Bartholdi's colossal statue of Liberty, which is to be placed on Bedloe's Island in New York harbor, took place in Paris on Monday. There was a distinguished company of French and Americans present. Mr. Morton, the American Minister, drove the first rivet, and delivered an address testifying the "gratitude of Congress for so felicitous an expression of sympathy from a sister republic." Senator Laboulaye then responded.

King Humbert of Italy is going to Vienna to visit the Emperor of Austria. The Government "organs" in Italy say that the visit will strengthen the cordial relations between the two countries, and prevent for the future any doubt concerning Italy's loyal intentions with respect to existing treaties.

The Khedive of Egypt informed the Turkish delegates before their departure for home that he would go to Constantinople as soon as the state of public affairs should permit, which would probably be next summer. It is understood that the exact date of his visit and other details will be finally settled by the Khedive in concert with England and France.

M. Novikoff, the Russian Ambassador to Turkey, has informed the Porte that Russia has placed no obstacles to an arrangement being concluded with the bondholders. It is believed that Russia would consent to reduce her claims one-half provided Turkey offered a reasonable rate of interest with substantial guarantees.

It is reported that the true explanation of the resignation of Count Valuyeff, President of the Russian Committee of Ministers, was that the committee appointed to enquire into abuses in the sale of state lands in Orenburg was appointed without his permission.

A great political trial is expected to take place at St. Petersburg in November, when forty Nihilists will be arraigned before a special court.

The Federal Council of Switzerland intend to propose to the Federal Assembly that the Swiss Consulate at Washington be transformed into a legation.

The financial and commercial condition of Spain is reported to be more flourishing than it has been for many years.

On Monday Señor Comacho, the Spanish Minister of Finance, read his financial statement in the Cortes. He proposed a gradual reduction in the customs tariff, and said that Spain would renounce all existing commercial treaties on the promulgation of this new tariff, and would conclude new conventions on the basis of the proposed reduction. He added that at the same time Spain reserved to herself the right of imposing additional import duties upon foreign productions the introduction of which is calculated to injure home interests. It is intended to allow a free coasting trade between Spain and all her colonies.

The Spanish ministers have unanimously approved the financial projects of Señor Comacho.

Funeral services in memory of President Garfield, under the direction of the municipal authorities, will be held in Berlin on Sunday next. Herr Luerssen, the sculptor, is to produce a colossal bust of the late President.

The Transvaal Volksraad has finally ratified the convention with England. The motion recording the acceptance of the convention declares that the Volksraad relies upon the promise of the British to modify the terms of the settlement if in its workings it should be found impracticable.

The boundary treaty between Chili and the Argentine Republic, which was arranged by the American Ministers to those two countries, has been approved by both the Chilian and Argentine Congresses.

The Calderon or provisional Government has ceased to exist in Peru, the Chilians having assumed full authority. It seems that the Calderon Government has been supporting itself by the issue of unlimited quantities of paper money, to the great detriment of what little trade remained in Lima. Rear-Admiral Lynch has stated that he is in possession of proofs that frauds have been committed in connection with the issue of bank notes, and has therefore issued an order prohibiting the exercise of governmental powers by other functionaries than those established by order from the Chilian headquarters. He has received from the American minister, General Hurlbut, a letter, in which the latter expresses disapproval of the Chilian policy. Speculation is now rife as to whether General Hurlbut will not have to meet, at Ayacucho, the Pierola Government, which he denounced a short time ago in a letter to Pierola's Secretary.

The Panama Canal Company has purchased the Grand Hotel in Panama. The hotel is to be used for general offices for the company and a residence for the employees. The amount paid for the building was 990,000 francs.

It is reported from Durban that preparations are being made for an advance of British troops, and that it is evident that they are intending to make a serious demonstration in order to compel the signature of the convention by the Boers. It is also reported that the Boers are massing near the frontier.

The city of Herat has been captured by Abdul Kudas Khan, a General of the Ameer of Afghanistan. The Ameer's son has been appointed Governor of Candahar.

The Marquis of Lorne delivered a speech at the banquet given him by the Manitoba Club of Winnepeg on his return from his journey to the northwest. In the course of his speech Lord Lorne expressed the deepest sympathy with the United States in the death of the President, and stated that Canada was not desirous of annexation.

TUESDAY, October 25, 1881.

THE BRITISH FLAG AT YORKTOWN.

No incident of the celebration at Yorktown could well have been more appropriate and graceful than the President's order to the army and navy to salute the British flag at the close of the services, "in recognition of the friendly relations so long and so happily subsisting between Great Britain and the United States, in the trust and confidence of peace and goodwill between the two countries for all the centuries to come, and especially as a mark of the profound respect entertained by the American people for the illustrious sovereign and gracious lady who sits upon the British throne." There is one great drawback in the celebration of most military successes, even the greatest and most fruitful, in the fact that they commemorate overthrow and humiliation as well as victory and rejoicing. This makes thoughtful and hopeful men, who look to the disappearance of war as the next great step in the march of the race, more and more unwilling to make anniversaries of great victories days of unalloyed rejoicing. We are fast, thank Heaven, passing beyond the stage of morality in which we can exult in other people's sorrow, even if it be the sorrow of enemies.

This consideration would have more or less affected a great many in reference to the Yorktown celebration, even if the England of to-day were really the same England as that which one hundred years ago struggled so hard to subjugate the colonies. Many would have been glad, even if a king as obstinate and ignorant as George III. were still on the throne, and British merchants were still as unenlightened as to the true interests of trade and as indifferent to those of their competitors as the merchants of Bristol who applauded the royal fanaticism, to find some way of keeping the celebration of our greatest national triumph from being marred or stained by any one's chagrin, or humiliation, or resentment. Even to such an England they would not have grudged the salute which the President has just ordered.

Happily, however, there is no need in this matter of any strain on our delicacy or magnanimity. Much has been said about the changes which have come over France since Rochambeau and Lafayette and Noailles and the rest sheathed their swords and went home. But in truth the changes which have come over England, though less sudden and violent, are hardly less marked. The Government which the King and his friends were trying to set up during our Revolutionary war, and against which the Liberals of that day were contending, would have been, in its full efflorescence, not much more respectable than that of Louis XVI. The principles which Burke and Fox and a long list of other worthies defended in the House of Commons, were substantially those for which Washington was contending in the field. They triumphed completely in this country at Yorktown. They did not triumph completely in England till half a century later. But triumph they did, and although weighted in a score of ways by evil relics and traditions, it is they which to-day rule England no less than the United States. So that in point of fact there is no liberal Englishman who, if his *amour-propre* could be saved, and some way could be shown him of rejoicing in the American victory at Yorktown without seeming to rejoice in the lowering of his own flag, but would do so heartily. His pride in his flag, even if it once covered the statesmanship of George III. and Lord North, all can understand. It has not waved over many fields, after all, within the last six hundred years in which a brave man of any country would not wish to have been, or sheltered many causes of which any lover of his kind need feel ashamed. Take it for all in all, the world has much reason to be thankful that it has for so many ages been borne by such strong arms, and loved by such stout hearts. So that even if recent events had not brought the two peoples closer together than they have been for over one hundred and twenty years, a salute for the flag under which Washington, Jefferson, and Hamilton and Adams were born would not have come amiss at Yorktown. It has, however, happily been rendered easier and more graceful than even ten years ago any one could have anticipated, by the expressions of sympathy on the part of the English people called forth by President Garfield's illness, and by the exceedingly touching way in which the Queen associated herself with it. That the cause for this sympathy should have come so close on the Yorktown anniversary seemed at the time very unfortunate; but it has happily been the means of making it possible for England to participate in our rejoicing, and of furnishing the President with a conspicuous occasion for marking the national appreciation of the recent manifestations of English condolence. He has availed himself of it most felicitously, and in terms of which it would be difficult to increase the fitness.

GUITEAU'S CASE.

WHETHER Guiteau is responsible for the assassination of the President or not, it is obviously of great interest to the community that the question should be thoroughly sifted —not only for the sake of the proper administration of justice, but to determine the status in the community of the class to which Guiteau belongs. There is probably little doubt in most people's minds that Guiteau will be found guilty; but it would be a pity if he were found guilty as a sort of foregone conclusion, without a full and exhaustive presentation of his grounds of defence. The case on both sides ought to be laid before the jury by the ablest counsel in the country; neither Mr. Corkhill nor Mr. Scoville has sufficiently high professional standing to attempt the task by himself.

The "statement" which Guiteau, on his arraignment, was prevented by the court from making has now been published, but, as might have been expected, little or no light is thrown by it upon the question of his responsibility. It is designed to produce the impression that he shot the President in the belief that he was under a Divine command to do so. The fact that the statement is blasphemous, or what would be blasphemous if it came from a sane man, is entirely beside the point. It must be remembered that the absence of motive will probably be the main reliance of Guiteau. He had nothing to gain, his counsel will argue, by the President's death. He was a disappointed office-seeker, no doubt, but then it was not the President any more than a dozen other men who had prevented his getting office. If, as he says in his "autobiography," he was at the time of the shooting actually pressing his claims for a foreign consulship, the crime was still more irrational in the ordinary sense of the word. As a sane man he cannot have imagined that bringing in the Stalwarts by such means would have bettered his position in any way. On the other hand, the absence of motive is not in any sense conclusive. If a man walking up Broadway fires a shot into an omnibus and kills one of the passengers, it may raise a presumption that he is out of his head, but unless something more than mere absence of motive can be shown, he has to be hanged for it.

The case is one in which "expert" testimony will be probably of the least possible value. The testimony of medical experts on the subject of insanity has fallen of late years into great disrepute in courts of justice, partly because it is highly paid, and can therefore generally be produced in any quantity on either side which has money at command, and partly from the fact which no one who is at all familiar with medical enquiries into insanity can have failed to notice—though, curiously enough, it has attracted little attention from the courts—that the medical and the legal view of insanity are not only different, but are radically opposed to each other. In any criminal case the only thing the law cares to find out is whether the accused is responsible for the act charged against him. If he is not, punishment would be unjust to him, and could have no deterrent effect upon others similarly situated. In order to determine the question of responsibility there are three common tests applied, which are very simple, and usually easy of application: First, did he know the nature and quality of his act; second, has he the capacity to distinguish right from wrong; and third, did he act under a delusion as to some matter of fact which, supposing it to be no delusion, would have justified the act?

Now these are not the tests necessarily applied by physicians at all. Their enquiries are directed to the investigation of the condition of a man's mind, not in reference to responsibility for a particular act, but with reference to his mental state as compared with what they regard as a healthy normal condition. Any departure from this is a symptom of mental disease. This difference would be of less consequence if it were in some way brought clearly into view in court. If medical experts were asked, for instance, to testify under oath whether on a given state of facts they were of opinion that the accused was responsible for the act he is charged with, they could answer intelligently. But, for the technical reason that to do so would be to let witnesses invade the province of the jury, this, under our system of law, is not permitted, and expert witnesses are generally asked whether, on a given state of facts, the man was "sane" or "insane." Now it admits of very simple demonstration that the answer to this

question may be wholly irrelevant. It not infrequently happens that persons actually confined in asylums are brought into court to testify to matters within their knowledge. They are of course "insane," and yet at the same time they may be good witnesses, and would be responsible for perjury if they should commit it. In the same way a perfectly valid will may be made in an asylum, for the capacity of the testator, like the responsibility of the criminal, is dependent solely upon the amount of intelligence he possesses with regard to the particular transaction involved—in one case the disposition of his property, in the other the crime.

But in Guiteau's case there will probably be little necessity for medical expert testimony on either side, nor would the jury be likely to be affected by it one way or the other. If several members of his family have been, as is stated, insane, this fact, once proved, would do more to establish a doubt in the minds of an ordinary jury than all the testimony of all the experts in the country with regard to hereditary insanity. The question as to his responsibility must in all probability be determined by the application of the ordinary legal tests to which we have referred—by a consideration of the man's appearance, demeanor, conversation, past history, and his own explanation of his conduct. What is to be chiefly feared with regard to it is that the case will not be tried thoroughly well on both sides, and that confusion may be introduced into it by the weakness of court and counsel. The refusal of the court to allow Guiteau to produce his "statement" when called upon to plead does not seem a very auspicious opening of the case, and we may say the same thing of the singular decision of the judge that the question of jurisdiction must be argued in advance of the trial. The court itself cannot be strengthened, but the trial of the case can be secured against degenerating into confusion, and the verdict from leaving a feeling of uncertainty behind it, by the presence of efficient counsel on both sides.

THE SUPPRESSION OF THE LAND LEAGUE.

The very desperate step taken by the Irish Land League in advising the tenants not to pay rent has been met by the Government with a proclamation suppressing the organization as illegal. We believe it is the anti-rent move which has furnished the Government with legal as well as moral justification for the proclamation. As long as the League confined itself to agitation, even though violent agitation, for a change in the land laws, and supported its arguments by denunciations of the Government and the landlords, it stood on ground which, though it might not be in point of law absolutely impregnable, was so strong that any Liberal Ministry would probably have shrunk from meddling with it. But the advice to the farmers to refuse all payment of rent, accompanied with a promise of pecuniary assistance in case of eviction in consequence of such refusal, was advice to violate lawful contracts, backed up by a promise of impunity in case it was taken. Any association which undertakes work of this kind is doubtless illegal, and suppressible by proclamation. Rent is in the eye of the English law a debt like any other, fully as binding as a bill at a grocer's. If a society were started to induce persons to enter into a combination to pay no grocer's bills already due, because some grocers sanded their sugar, it would, if not ridiculous, be a sufficiently near approach to a society for the promotion of swindling to make it distinctly criminal. The League has in fact been hoist by its own petard, or, as O'Donovan Rossa would say, been slain by an arrow feathered from its own breast.

But illegal though it be, it is very doubtful whether the Government would have ventured to suppress it, even for the combination against rent, if no redress had been provided for the acknowledged grievances of the Irish tenant. If, for instance, a strike against rent had been organized close on the defeat by the Lords of Mr. Forster's Disturbance Bill in the winter of 1879-80, it is very unlikely that the Ministry would have undertaken to arrest it. In fact, its occurrence would have furnished a sort of justification of the very extraordinary interference with the obligation of contracts for which that bill asked Parliament. Public opinion, too, the world over would have been with the tenants. Or, if the present Land Act had been loyally tried, and had been found after such trial to give no relief, the strike against it might have been excused, as the strike against tithes was fifty years ago, as a quasi-revolutionary remedy for grievances no longer tolerable, and for which legal remedy seemed hopeless. The Land League, however, has now put itself hopelessly in the wrong by refusing to try a legal remedy produced with enormous pains, and which has enjoyed the very high commendation of being denounced in unmeasured terms by the leading landlords of the kingdom.

It may be said that the League was making preparations to test the value of the Land Act when Parnell was arrested. Unfortunately he made known in advance what his tests were to be, and as candor, fairness, and truthfulness have not disappeared from the world, these tests were regarded as a piece of transparent trickery. In the first place, he denounced the Land Courts as sure to be dishonest before they were organized. Then, knowing that the phrase "a fair rent" as used all through this agitation was understood to mean such a rent as the average price of produce would permit a farmer to pay, after leaving him a reasonable profit, he concocted a new meaning for it—viz., the rent which a farmer ought to pay after providing himself with the kind of subsistence which the Land League should pronounce "comfortable." Finally, he capped the climax by repudiating the "Griffiths valuation," which for the last two years he has been preaching as the true basis for rent, and substituting a new one of his own invention, which confined the landlords' interest in the soil of Ireland to the soil in a state of nature, and made the rents amount to about half a crown an acre or $15,000,000 per annum for the whole island instead of $85,000,000, which is about the sum the landlords are now supposed to receive. It was these fantastic theories which he and the League were going to submit to the Land Courts as tests of its willingness and ability to do the tenants justice under the new law. Their object was plain enough. The Court, being composed of rational and civilized men, would be sure to reject them, and then the League would denounce it as an imposture. Even those who, like ourselves, sympathize warmly with the tenants in this crisis are, however, bound to assume, in discussing Irish questions, that for Irishmen, as for the rest of the world, straightforwardness, rationality, good faith, and fair dealing, even towards enemies, are of constant obligation.

That the suppression of the League involves the failure of the strike against rent, we think there is little doubt. The mutual confidence, and the certainty of pecuniary and other support, which would be necessary to make such a combination on so great a scale successful, cannot be kept alive by any secret organization, however well conducted. It would need the aid of all kinds of publicity—meetings, newspapers, the telegraph, and the post-office. With the "halls" shut up, the leaders in jail or in flight, and the money undistributable or not subscribed, the enterprise is hopeless, even if morality be as dead among the Irish farmers as the managers of the League would fain have the world believe. That their last and greatest stroke should have been a solemn and pathetic appeal to the rascality of their countrymen, is surely as pitiful a termination to a great effort to right human wrongs as the world has ever seen.

THE AMERICAN HEIR AND THE LORD CHANCELLOR.

The Hedges family, which, like so many other families, is said to be "scattered all over the United States," has recently learned that there is a nice little property of $250,000,000 in England ready to be divided among all Hedges who can prove a descent from a "common ancestor" who died some century or two ago in England. He did not leave behind him $250,000,000, but his unclaimed property has been accumulating ever since his death, and has now reached the very respectable figure we have given. It is, of course, in the Bank of England, where all unclaimed sums of this sort accumulate, but how it is invested does not appear. Invested funds, it is well known, double every few years or so, and if the Hedges meet, as they probably will, some obstacles in the way of effecting a distribution, the delay will after all only make the family richer. In 1890 the fund ought to be about $500,000,000, and by the beginning of the next century $1,000,000,000; and however large the family may be, the division of sums of this magnitude will make a perceptible difference not only in their private fortunes, but in the national resources themselves. The sudden transfer of $1,000,000,000 or even $250,000,000 from the vaults of the Bank of England to a foreign country would, a hundred years ago, have been regarded with alarm by all statesmen; and though modern political economy has taught us nowadays to regard such transfers without national terror on the one side or exultation on the other, even the economist will probably concede that the sudden enrichment of a large

number of citizens by such a transfer increases the resources of the citizens themselves, and spreads a general feeling of contentment and prosperity among them and their creditors which must reinforce the general national vitality and energy, and indirectly increase the ratio of progress made by the nation itself.

The Hedges estate is by no means the only English estate which is awaiting distribution among American heirs. There are numerous other properties of the same description which have been discovered from time to time, and fully described in the newspapers. Formerly they used to consist almost invariably of land, which had been left a century or so ago by a wealthy Englishman who died without leaving a will, but having some relative in this country. The discovery of an estate of this description generally led to a family gathering and a resolution to retain counsel and prosecute the claim. The trouble always was in these cases that when the opinion of counsel was taken it was found, to the surprise of everybody, that the provision of English law which makes land, in cases of intestacy, descend to the eldest son, had been overlooked—a very singular fact, considering that every American child learns in his cradle that primogeniture is the great blot upon England's boasted civilization—or else that the claim was barred by lapse of time. As a nation we could hardly feel much interest in an American claim to English landed estate, because there was always a risk that the successful claimants would, after all, go over to England and settle down on the property, and denationalize themselves. As a people we should gain nothing by this. Nevertheless, this consideration would have little weight with the claimants, and at one time the number and extent of these claims grew with amazing rapidity.

They have now entirely disappeared, and the fortunes at present awaiting American heirs in England, like the Hedges estate, invariably consist of personal property. This is obviously a much better form for them to have than land. There is no trouble about primogeniture nor adverse possession ; but curiously enough a new obstacle in the way of an immediate distribution seems to have arisen from the unaccountable behavior of the Lord Chancellor. What the origin of his jurisdiction over property in England claimed by American heirs is, we have never seen explained ; it may perhaps be one of those assumptions of authority in new cases which used in former times to be so characteristic of the Lord Chancellor's jurisdiction, but which we must say we supposed had in modern times no chance of obtaining a foothold. But whatever the true explanation may be, the movements of the American claimants seem to be always governed in a remarkable way by the proceedings of the Lord Chancellor. Sometimes he helps them, and sometimes he puts them off. They are generally waiting for a decision from him which will enable the fund to be distributed. Occasionally he makes a decision which seems to satisfy them. When this is the case it almost always turns out that there was some mistake about it which compels the postponement of the really final adjudication till a later date.

This sort of thing has now been going on for years, and not a foot of English land has been secured, nor a dollar of English money got out of the Bank vaults. With such a claim as that of the Hedges family there can hardly be any difficulty in getting the best legal advice, and it may therefore be expected that they will have the proceedings of the Lord Chancellor with regard to their fund looked into. A discussion of the origin and present extent of his jurisdiction over the vaults of the Bank of England might lead to some curious revelations. If he won't distribute the money, what does he mean to do with it ? If he thinks he can use it to pay the national debt, and intends to "cover it into the Treasury" for that purpose, it is time the fact should be known in this country. If his proceedings are fair and above-board, why is it that all this wealth continually accumulates, and no distribution is ever effected ? Why is it, too, that all his decisions about American claims are secret, and never get into the reports ? The Bank must now have thousands of millions of unclaimed property, which his indecision and vacillation and secrecy tie up. The Bank does not want it, and the heirs are all waiting for it; the old jurist is always at work on the cases, and still we seem to be as far off from the end as ever.

THE KING'S MISSIVE.

THE historical accuracy of "The King's Missive," a poetical contribution by Mr. Whittier to the 'Memorial History of Boston,' is discussed in the new volume of Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society. When, at the meeting of the Society in September, a year ago, the poem was read from the proof-sheets, it "led to some discussion," not, however, preserved in the Proceedings ; but at the following March meeting the Rev. Dr. George E. Ellis read a paper which, being given to the newspapers, drew out letters from Mr. Whittier and replications from Dr. Ellis. The paper read by Dr. Ellis to the Society and one of his newspaper letters, one letter from Mr. Whittier, together with some notes by the poet and his critic, are now preserved in the published volume of the Society's Proceedings.

The information upon which "The King's Missive" was composed was gathered from the pages of authentic books ; as poetized by Mr. Whittier it furnishes a pleasing episode in the history of the persecution of the New England Quakers. It is to the lasting dishonor of the Puritans that in their treatment of the Quakers they violated all the laws of humanity and of Christianity. Cotton Mather, writing in 1695, says : "I will not, I cannot make myself a vindicator of all the severities with which the zeal of some eminent men hath sometimes enraged and increased, rather than reclaimed, those miserable heretics." What those "severities" were is shown in part in a declaration drawn up by some of the sufferers and presented to King Charles II. shortly after his restoration. Thirty had been whipped, the stripes amounting to six hundred and twenty ; twenty-two had been banished on pain of death if they returned ; twenty-five had been banished upon the penalty of being whipped, or having their ears cut, or being branded in the hand, if they returned ; three had their right ears cut off by the hangman ; one had been branded in the hand with the letter H ; many had been imprisoned ; many had been fined ; and, worse than all, three had been put to death. This declaration of sufferings, signed by John Rouse and John Copeland, who had been deprived of their right ears in Boston jail, and by Samuel Shattuck and five others, who had been "banished upon pain of death," was followed up by the earnest solicitations of Edward Burroughs and other zealous Quakers of London. They did not seek for revenge, they said, "but to restrain the violence of the rulers of New England." It was not, however, until the news of the execution of William Leddra reached London that the King took action. As soon as the circumstances of that tragedy were made known to him he ordered a mandamus to be forthwith issued, the wording of which was as follows :

"CHARLES R.

"Trusty and Wellbeloved, we greet you well. Having been informed that several of our Subjects among you, called Quakers, have been and are imprisoned by you, whereof some have been executed, and others (as hath been represented unto us) are in Danger to undergo the Like : We have thought fit to signify our Pleasure in that Behalf for the future, and do require, that if there be any of those people called Quakers amongst you, now already condemned to suffer Death, or other Corporal Punishment, or that are imprisoned, or obnoxious to the like Condemnation, you are to forbear to proceed any farther, but that you forthwith send the said Persons (whether condemned or imprisoned) over to this our Kingdom of England, together with their respective Crimes or Offences laid to their Charge, to the End such Course may be taken with them here, as shall be agreeable to our Laws, and their Demerits. And for so doing, these our Letters shall be your sufficient Warrant and Discharge. Given at our Court at Whitehall, the 9th day of September 1661, in the thirteenth Year of our Reign.

"Subscribed, To our Trusty and Wellbeloved John Endicot Esq ; and to all and every other the Governour or Governours of our Plantation of New-England, and of the Colonies thereunto belonging, that now are, or hereafter shall be : And to all and every the Ministers and Officers of our said Plantation and Colonies whatever, within the Continent of New-England.

"By His Majesty's Command.

"WIL. MORRIS."

The King having deputized Samuel Shattuck to bear the mandamus to New England, the Friends in London bestirred themselves, and made an agreement with Ralph Goldsmith (himself a Quaker and the master of a ship) to sail with all despatch for Boston, and convey thither the King's deputy. For this service Goldsmith was paid £350. The ship entered Boston Harbor on a Sunday in the latter part of November, 1661, after a passage of about six weeks. Joseph Besse ('Sufferings of the People called Quakers,' vol. ii., p. 220) gives the following circumstantial account of the delivery of the mandamus to Governor Endicott :

"Next morning [Monday] Ralph Goldsmith, the commander, with Samuel Shattuck, the King's deputy, went on shore, and sending the boat back to the ship, they two went directly through the town to the Governor's house and knocked at the door. He sending a man to know their business, they sent him word that their message was from the King of England, and that they would deliver it to none but himself. Then they were admitted to go in, and the Governor came to them, and commanded Samuel Shattuck's hat to be taken off, and having received the deputation and the mandamus, he laid off his own hat, and, ordering Shattuck's hat to be given him again, perused the papers, and then went out to the Deputy Governor's, bidding the King's deputy and the master of the ship to follow him. Being come to the Deputy Governor, and having consulted him, he returned to the aforesaid two persons, and said : '*We shall obey His Majesty's command.*' After this the master of the ship gave liberty to his passengers to come on shore, which they did, and had a religious meeting with their Friends of the town, where they returned praises to God for his mercy manifested in this wonderful deliverance."

The colonial authorities were greatly disturbed by the King's interference in their proceedings. Gov. Endicott called a special session of the Gene-

ral Court. The execution of the laws against Quakers was suspended, and the keeper of the jail in Boston was ordered "forthwith to release and discharge the Quakers" then in his custody. For various causes set forth, but "in special God's suffering many enemies and underminers to multiply complaints against us to our sovereign lord the King," a day was set apart for fasting and "solemn humiliation." Agents were despatched to England with an address from the General Court to the King, representing that the execution of the laws against Quakers had been suspended in accordance with the letter missive. It is true that some of the inhuman laws were subsequently revived, but it is also true that for a considerable time following the arrival of King Charles's mandamus the Quakers found peace in the Massachusetts colony.

We must regard Mr. Whittier's poem, in its main incidents especially—the return of the banished Quaker with the King's letter, his interview with Endicott, the "jail delivery," the Friends' meeting—as an exquisite representation of interesting historical events. Dr. Ellis, in discussing the "historical accuracy" of the poem, bases his argument largely on mistaken facts. He says: "The proceedings of the court and magistrates towards the Quakers were in no whit changed by such intimations of the King's wishes as were conveyed to them. His instructions in his letter were not complied with." Against this we offer Hutchinson (vol. ii., p. 205, 'History of Massachusetts Bay'), who says, referring to the King's order of Sept. 9, 1661: "Whatever opinion they might have of the force of orders from the crown controlling the laws of the colony, they prudently complied with this instruction." And also Neal (vol. i., p. 235, 2d ed. 'History of New England'), who says: "This [mandamus] put an effectual stop to the sufferings of the Quakers on account of their principles, the hands of the Government being tied up by this letter from putting their laws in execution for the future."

But it is where Dr. Ellis charges the Quakers with "indecency" that he makes his gravest mistake. Having set forth the law of May 22, 1661, he goes on to say:

"The effrontery and indecency of the Quakers waxed to a perfect riot under these circumstances. Women without any clothing, and smeared with black dye, marched through highways and public places 'by way of prophesying,' screeching, denouncing awful judgments, causing dread, pain, and fright to many of the delicate of their own sex. Such was the position of things here in May, 1661."

Mr. Lodge, too, in his 'Short History of the English Colonies in America,' sees the events of that period with Dr. Ellis's eyes, and so can say: "The Quakers were drunk with religious zeal, and came a few at a time, but did little in the way of conversion. They appeared naked in the streets and churches, hideous with grease and lamp-black, breaking bottles, and raising a riot and disturbance everywhere." This is all improbable. The tenor of it is untrue. The Quakers, as a class, are innocent of the grave charges brought against them by Messrs. Ellis and Lodge. The offenders within the category made out by these historians were not only few in number, but the offences were not committed until long after May, 1661—not until long after the arrival of the mandamus, and not until after the cruel laws, suspended by that mandamus, had been revived. It is well to be particular. The facts stand upon record. On the 25th of November, 1662, Deborah Wilson, "for going through Salem, without any clothes on, as a sign of spiritual nakedness in town and country," was sentenced to be whipped not exceeding thirty stripes. And on May 5, 1663, Lydia Wardwell, "for coming naked into Newbury meeting-house," was sentenced to be severely whipped. Mr. Felt (in his 'Annals of Salem'), referring to Mrs. Wilson's case, says that "from instances of discipline, found on the first records of the Friends in Salem, they, no doubt, as a body disapproved of her conduct." In 1663 Thomas Newhouse (having previously been whipped through three towns for attending a Quaker meeting in Salem) went into a Boston meeting-house with two glass bottles, which he broke before the congregation, saying: "Thus will the Lord break you in pieces." In 1677 Margaret Brewster, clothed in sackcloth, and "with her face smeared as black as a coal," presented herself at the Old South in meeting-time, and for her misbehavior was imprisoned and whipped. The substance, then, of the sweeping charges, after a fair sifting, leaves four cases—one found in Salem, one in Newbury, and two in Boston, but not one connected with the "position of things here in May, 1661."

Through all the controversy upon "The King's Missive" Dr. Ellis exhibits something of his prejudices against the Quakers. He tried his utmost, he tells us, to deal impartially with the "harrowing subject" in an article printed in the 'Memorial History of Boston.' A single quotation from that article must here suffice to illustrate his idea of impartiality: "They [the Quakers] were all of them of low rank, of mean breeding, and illiterate." The evidence that they were not "all" illiterate is contained in the writings of Robinson, Stephenson, Leddra, Mrs. Dyer, and many others of the persecuted sect: Savage, in his 'Genealogical Dictionary,' applies the term "excellent" to one of Leddra's letters. It is known that some were sons and daughters of gentlemen, and that they were of good education and circumstances. And "all of them," probably, were of as high rank and breeding as can be claimed for their oppressors. The more the subject is studied, the greater becomes the wonder that a harmless, peaceable, and non-resisting people, such as the Quakers are known to have been, escaping from the oppression of Old England, could have met with the reception they did in New England. But history tells many strange and cruel tales, and this is one of its strangest and cruellest.

Notes.

Mrs. Garfield makes public her intention to secure "an account of the life, and an appropriate collection of the literary remains" of the late President, "at the earliest practicable time." Colonel Rockwell intimates that the latter part of the task will not be difficult, owing to General Garfield's remarkable order in his literary affairs.——Henry Holt & Co. have now ready a 'Young Folks' History of the War for the Union,' by John D. Champlin, jr.; and an illustrated translation of Dr. Jacob von Falcke's 'Greece and Rome,' forming a "massive quarto" for the holidays.——E. & J. B. Young announce Part 2 of the Rev. J. H. Blunt's 'The Reformation of the Church of England, 1547-1662'; 'Sermons to the People,' by the Rev. H. P. Liddon; and 'The Village Pulpit,' sermon outlines, by the Rev. S. Baring-Gould.——An enlarged and even renewed edition of Prof. J. M. Hoppin's treatise on Homiletics is soon to be published by Dodd, Mead & Co.——Presley Blakiston, Philadelphia, has nearly ready 'Malaria: How Caused and How Prevented,' by Dr. Joseph F. Edwards.——Geo. W. Harlan issues this month three juvenile holiday books, with many illustrations—viz., Mrs. Brine's 'Road to Slumberland,' and 'Madge, the Violet Girl'; and 'Tutti Frutti,' child songs by Laura Ledyard and W. T. Peters.——The prospectus of the new (64th) volume of *Harper's Monthly* indicates an increase in English contributions, and, among American names, a series of papers by Mr. John Fiske on Early American History, and a paper by Prof. B. L. Gildersleeve on the recently-discovered statue of Athena Parthenos. The publishers state that the average cost of the illustrations of each number of the magazine exceeds $5,000.——Mr. Christern has received catalogues and photographs of the principal paintings, of the Dutch school, forming the collection of the Bierens family, which are to be sold at auction by Frederick Muller & Co., Amsterdam, Nov. 15. A large number of these have never had any other owners.——Mr. Christern also sends us the first (October) number of *Vom Fels zum Meer*, the latest magazine for family reading which has appeared in Germany. The publisher is Spemann, of Stuttgart, which is a guarantee of typographical elegance and literary excellence. The number is in fact beautifully printed and charmingly illustrated. Gottfried Kinkel, G. Nachtigal, and E. Werner are among the contributors; and in addition to the customary quota of fiction there are papers on travel, on the right of asylum, on color, on the military strength of France after ten years of reorganization, on the wonders of the stage; poetry; songs, with music; and various colored plates, including one of the heavens.——Alphonse Daudet's new romance, 'Numa Roumestan,' the appearance of which was noticed in our Summary last week, has had the unprecedented distinction of being published in a German translation a fortnight before the book was brought out in Paris. This will seem perhaps less surprising when it is known that Gambetta's career is the basis of the novel.——David Bogue, London, has in the press 'Alps and Sanctuaries of Piedmont and the Canton Ticino,' by Samuel Butler, a book to keep for its text and its pretty etchings from nature, and also a guide to little-known and little-frequented places in a delightful region.

—Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are the American publishers of the second edition of Mr. Taswell-Langmead's excellent text-book on 'English Constitutional History,' reviewed in No. 565 of the *Nation*. The author has revised it to advantage, and expanded one chapter particularly—that on the "Progress of the Constitution since the Revolution"; and to the full texts of the Magna Charta, the Petition of Right, and the Bill of Rights, he has added that of the Act of Settlement, "which completes the written Code of our Constitution."——The judicious have always regarded the index to Mr. John Bartlett's 'Familiar Quotations' as being one of the greatest excellences of that admirably thorough work, and the maker of it has quite naturally undertaken the species of concordance called 'The Shakespeare Phrase Book' now published by Little, Brown & Co. This is not a verbal concordance, and on the other hand the cit tions give more than a cue—they are, if not always complete, carried beyond the point of abruptness. Mr. Bartlett's principle of selection has been ideas and quotable sentences rather than words; hence, while *tuition*, for example, occurs only once in the 'Phrase Book' as in Shakspere, *note-book* occurs but once for a different reason—the compiler's choice. So *tune* the verb has been wholly neglected in favor of *tune* the substantive. The plural of nouns is commonly found under the singular; but we note an exception in the case of *follies*, and of course in *men* and *man*. Proper names are entered whenever they have any familiar significance; and here the comparison is curious as between *Hamlet* (once) and *Cassio* or *Cæsar* or *Brutus*. At the end Mr. Bartlett has placed a select *variorum* in

the shape of comparative readings from the texts of Clark and Wright (followed in the body of the work), Dyce, Knight, Singer, Staunton, and Grant White. The value and convenience of this arrangement are self-evident. It only remains to praise the punctiliousness of the typography and the general tastefulness of the book, which is of a very handy size and will soon be found on every shelf.——Even of a 'French and English Dictionary' in its 116th thousand (by Prof. E. Roubaud—New York, Cassell) there is something to be said, for this popular work has been entirely reset, and brought up with the latest edition of the French Academy's Dictionary, to whose innovation it conforms, as in the accenting of the heretofore exceptional words in *ége*. It is of course less inclusive than Littré, and while admitting *income-tax* omits *photogravure*. The merits of this work are clearness of print, conciseness of definition, and distinction of obsolete from current meanings—a very useful feature. Some grammatical tables supplement the customary lists of proper names. The pronunciation is given only in the English-French vocabulary. ——Col. Henry B. Carrington's 'Battle-Maps and Charts of the American Revolution' (New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.) is intended for school use, and has impartial references to a great variety of text-books. It consists, in brief, of a map for each considerable battle or campaign, with a statistical statement, on the opposite page, of commanders, forces engaged, results, etc., with occasional comment on the strategy. Our chief criticism would be that the letter-press and maps are both unattractive to the eye, and we fear that the author's "Elementary Maxims" will sound obscure to the young student—*e. g.*, "Wise statesmanship is fundamental in declaring military policy."——Prof. Ebers's 'Egypt' (Cassell) has now reached Part 20, giving in neighboring chapters views of ancient life from the monuments and of modern life among the people at Cairo. Finally, the route for Upper Egypt is taken. The social and ethnographical illustrations are of singular beauty and in the usual abundance. ——'The Photographic Amateur,' by J. Traill Taylor, issued by the Scovill Manufacturing Company, will answer very well the purpose of stimulating would-be photographers, and of fairly starting them in their experiments.—— A portrait, which has suddenly become memorial, of the late J. G. Holland has been photographed by the Century Co., from a life-size crayon by Wyatt Eaton. Those of Dr. Holland's admirers who have room on their walls will doubtless prefer this to the admirable woodcut in a late number of *Harper's*.——The chief features of the current Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society are extracts from Revolutionary orderly-books, with a long list of such as the Society possesses; and a noteworthy paper by ex-Governor Bullock on "The Centennial of the Massachusetts Convention," which we commend to all our legal readers, especially if they be members of legislatures.——M. Alfred Sardou's 'French Language Self-Taught' (Appletons) is on the whole a misnomer, as must be said of every work professing to enable one to *converse* in a foreign language. It is really Ollendorff in disguise, yet is not without some praiseworthy qualities of its own. We may instance the very well-conceived and useful twenty pages on prepositions; and the section on idioms, very complete and well done. Errors like "À quoi *bon* cela vous servirait-il?" (p. 379) are rare. The rules are too brief for grammatical purposes.——Mr. O. B. Potter has generously and wisely given $2,000 to the Civil-Service Reform Association, for the purpose of spreading widely the utterances of President Garfield on the reform, and the Association has already put forth a broadside of extracts from General Garfield's speeches and writings.

—The *Atlantic* for November contains instalments as usual of "Dr. Breen's Practice," and of "The Portrait of a Lady," both of which promise to be among their authors' best stories. Mr. James's atmosphere grows more and more thoroughly European as Mr. Howells's gets more completely American. The conversation between Dr. Mulbridge and his mother may be said to be horribly American, just as the character of the Countess Gemini is disagreeably European. It would be absurd to attempt to institute any comparison between the merits of Mr. Howells and Mr. James, for each is in his own way absolutely individual. Mr. Howells's humor, Mr. James's wit; the easy narrative style of the one, the sharp, dramatic changes of the other; the former's delicate delineation of character, the latter's wonderful fertility of plot, in which he seems to us to be excelled by no writer, American or foreign—there are no common tests to be applied to such widely different literary qualities and resources. In one thing, and in one thing only, they are alike—in a certain lowness of tone, which exhibits itself sometimes in an almost nervous shyness of all display of passion, and sometimes in quiet little scenes and dialogues, which in Mr. James's case remind us now and then of the cleverness of the French stage, and in Mr. Howells's of the representations of American life to be met with in Mr. Winslow Homer's pictures. As a haphazard illustration of this the following scene (from "Dr. Breen's Practice") is characteristic:

"She went away, feeling suddenly alone in this exclusion from the cares that had absorbed her. There was no one on the piazza, which the moonlight printed with the shadows of the posts and the fanciful jig-saw work of the arches between them. She heard a step on the sandy walk round the corner, and waited wistfully.

"It was Barlow who came in sight, as she knew at once, but she asked, 'Mr. Barlow?'

"'Yes, 'm,' said Barlow. 'What can I do for *you*?'

"'Nothing. I thought it might be Mr. Libby at first. Do you know where he is?'

"'Well, I know where he *ain't*,' said Barlow; and having ineffectually waited to be questioned farther, he added, 'He ain't *here* for *one* place. He's gone back to Leyden. He had to take that horse back.'

"'Oh!' she said.

"'n' I guess he's goin' to stay.'

"'To stay? Where?'

"'Well, there you've got me again. All I know is, I've got to drive that mare of his'n over to-morrow, if I can git off, and next day if I can't. Didn't you know he was goin'?' asked Barlow, willing to recompense himself for the information he had given. 'Well!' he added, sympathetically, at a little hesitation of hers." This is flat with a genuine American flatness.

—Mr. John Fiske contributes an article on "The Theory of a Common Origin for all Languages," in which he comes to the conclusion, which may be taken to represent the orthodox view of the matter, that in speech, as in other branches of human activity and development, the progress of mankind is "from fragmentariness to solidarity." At the beginning, among savage tribes, hundreds of half-formed dialects, each intelligible to a few score of people, all constantly changing; "at the end, an organized system of mighty nations, pacific in disposition, with unlimited reciprocity of intercourse, with very few languages, rich and precise in structure and vocabulary, and understood by all men." He gives an extraordinary instance of the instability of primitive languages in the following changes which have taken place among the Tahitians in the name of five of the ten simple numerals since Captain Cook's time:

"Two was *rua*; it is now *piti*.
Four was *ha*; it is now *maha*.
Five was *rima*; it is now *pae*.
Six was *ono*; it is now *fene*.
Eight was *varu*; it is now *vau*."

The metaphysical demand for a common origin for languages was derived of course from the ancient world, just as was the theory of descent from a common pair. There has been perhaps no more remarkable mental change brought about by the revelations of modern science than the complete dislodgement from the human mind of the idea that the order of development is from unity to variety, and the substitution for it of the conception of a development from heterogeneity to unity. An anonymous writer contributes an article on the "Romance of Modern Life," in which an attempt is made to show that there is in the nature of things no reason why, a few generations hence, the last half of the nineteenth century should not seem to our descendants to have been a period as full of poetry and romance as bygone centuries seem to us. The writer insists that the events and personages of what we now consider romantic periods did not appear so to contemporaries; and, on the other hand, that the events and personages of to-day possess all the materials of interest just as fully as they would have done had they lived and happened two or three hundred years ago. We trust it may prove so. We should be glad indeed to think of our descendants getting as much romantic pleasure from Bull Run, Gettysburg, and Appomattox; Stanton, Grant, Jefferson Davis, and Lee; the reconstruction struggle, the "carpet-baggers," and the "brigadiers"; the Tweed Ring, the panic of 1873, and the Star-route cases; the adventures of William Mahone and Jubal Early, and the duels of Riddleberger, as Scott managed to extract for us from the 'History of the Crusades,' the life of Richard Cœur de Lion, the tournament of Ashby de la Zouche, or the adventures of the Pretender. But we very much fear the case is hopeless. There is one great difficulty in the way of a new birth of Romance hereafter which writers on the subject would do well to consider—that Romance never had before to struggle with newspapers. The newspaper leaves behind it not only a very realistic picture of the history of the world from day to day, but it also preserves a record, which the world has never before possessed, of what the age thinks of itself. A very brief examination of any old newspaper file of the present period a hundred, or two hundred, or a thousand years hence, will convince any one that the present age, though it had on the whole a very good opinion of itself, did not regard itself as romantic. Progressive, intelligent, moral, civilized, witty, humorous, we may think we are, but not romantic. There are people of an observing turn who think that we are vulgar, frivolous, sensational, and shallow, but this is not the atmosphere of Romance. All this criticism, it must be remembered, will be preserved, and will seriously embarrass any future romantic school that may spring up.

—Mr. Hatton's second paper on "Journalistic London," in the November *Harper's*, begins with the *Times* and ends with some of the society papers—the *World*, *Truth*, etc.—the personal account of Mr. Henry Labouchere being particularly full and entertaining. The manufacturing aspect of the *Times* establishment will most surprise American readers. The portrait illustrations include Mr. Walter, Mr. Delane, Sir W. Vernon Harcourt, Mr. Yates, Mr. Labouchere, Dr. W. H. Russell, and others. The paper on "Ohio's First Capital"—Chillicothe, namely—not only tells the familiar story of Western towns missing their great expectations, but, in the case of the late Gov. William Allen, shows again what remarkable revivals there may be in the career of an American politician.

Gov. Allen entered the United States Senate in 1837, served two terms, and then retired to private life. In 1873 he appeared to the majority of Ohio voters the fittest man to be their chief magistrate. Mr. John A. Dillon advocates and explains the proposed Eads railway across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, but without furnishing probable evidence of its feasibility. His argument for a national subsidy is that the Mexican Government having in their concession to Captain Eads allowed him to discriminate in his charges in favor of any nation which might aid him, he will have it in his power, by "a rebate of thirty-five or fifty per cent. on transit dues," to "enable us to compete with England—our chief competitor—while at the same time permitting the company to make enough money to earn interest on its cost." Here an estimate of the ratio between the rebate and the interest on the Government subsidy would have been in order, after which some questions of national dignity and the national policy of protection would have remained to be considered. Mr. Thomas Hughes contributes "A Reminiscence of Arthur Stanley," which adds something to our comprehension of the late Dean of Westminster, and briefly mentions "one slight but characteristic trait of his Canterbury life—his pride that the ordinary services were continued as usual while the roof [of the cathedral] was on fire." This does not appear to have been a case of deliberate self-control in order to avert a panic, like the band's playing when the theatre is burning, and suggests some reflections on the grounds of pride in inaction under such circumstances.

—The *Century Magazine* enters upon its twenty-third volume with an enlarged page, of which the advantage for illustrations is seen in the striking portrait of George Eliot (after an etching by Rajon), which serves as a frontispiece. The accompanying text, by Mr. F. W. H. Myers, tells little that is new about the author of 'Adam Bede,' unless it be that she was an admirable player on the pianoforte, and that Schubert was her favorite. The most noteworthy illustrated articles are Mrs. Lizzie W. Champney's "In the Footsteps of Fortuny and Regnault," Mr. Frank D. Millet's "Costumes in the Greek Play at Harvard," and Mr. W. J. Stillman's "The So-Called Venus of Melos." Mrs. Champney's impressions of Tangier contrast singularly with Mr. Aldrich's recent humorous report of the same city, and for the rest we can only refer to the way in which the connection between the lives and artistic careers of Fortuny and Regnault is brought out in her paper. She says of Fortuny's drawing-book at nine years of age that it contains not a trace of talent, whereas at thirteen Regnault could have earned his living as a designer for the pictorial journals. Mr. Millet speaks with the highest authority as to the costuming for the "Œdipus Tyrannus," which he directed with so much devotion, and the drawings by Mr. Alfred Brennan are worthy of all praise for their fidelity to the spirit of the scenes and even to the personality of the actors. Mr. Stillman rehearses arguments familiar to readers of the *Nation* to prove the Venus of Melos the Wingless Victory for which the little temple on the western brow of the Acropolis was reared, and furnishes a great number of Venus types, and the few incomparable Victory types which survived the demolition of the shrine, together with some tracings after photographs of a model posed like the so-called Venus, and with a shield or tablet resting on her left knee. The action of the body seems to answer that of the statue, and the chief difficulty to the acceptance of Millingen's theory (advanced by him in 1826) lies in the fact that the eyes are directed above and beyond the natural margin of the tablet. We can only allude to Salvini's "Impressions of some Shaksperian Characters," and Frederick Douglass's account of his escape from slavery, the exact mode of which was never before revealed. The poetry of the number is much above the average, as well it may be, with two such characteristic productions as Mr. Lowell's "Phœbe" and Mr. Stedman's "Christophe."

—Two of the finest engravings in the magazines just mentioned—Closson's General Prim, after Regnault, and Kruell's Dean Stanley—are now on exhibition at the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, along with other American and some foreign specimens of the art of wood-cutting, embracing more than 700 entries. The catalogue of this exhibition lies before us. As the management expresses its acknowledgment to Mr. A. V. S. Anthony for his assistance, there is some excuse for printing the slipshod preface which he has furnished. The most noticeable portion is that which criticises the now fashionable mode of photographing on the block, as to which Mr. Anthony says, with some weight:

"I am not certain that this too common method of furnishing subjects to the engraver is not going to work destruction to the art in this country. These designs are often fine, decoratively, in the originals, but owing to the great reduction on the wood the forms are lost, or only vaguely defined, necessitating constant consultation with the originals. The eye is one moment looking through a powerful magnifying glass, and the next is searching over the large drawing for indistinct detail. The effect upon the ordinary eye may be imagined."

In his hurried historical summary we do not know what authority Mr. Anthony has for saying that Bewick and his pupils worked "on *blackened* blocks," drawing "as they progressed with the graver." The truth is to be found in the statement made on page 21 of a little 'Handbook of Wood Engraving,' just published in a new edition by Lee & Shepard: "Modern draughtsmen regard the block upon which they draw as a white surface; Bewick regarded it as black." This, by the way, is nearly all that can be said in favor of the Handbook, which gives an atrocious cut of the pathetic vignette of the ruined house and starving ewe, and begins its instruction in a way directly opposed to Bewick's teaching and example.

—The latest number of the *American Art Review*, that for September, is chiefly occupied with three biographical and critical articles concerning three painters whose lives and works curiously illustrate the widely diverse modes and interests of the art they practised in common. The first and best of these papers is on Trumbull, a painter who has had less than justice hitherto done to his excellent qualities, and who, in the short list of American painters of distinction, is well deserving of the high place to which Mr. Durand here assigns him. The illustrations of the article, especially Miller's engraving from the original sketch in India-ink for Trumbull's well-known picture of the Battle of Bunker Hill, are of value as exhibiting the characteristic qualities of Trumbull's artistic conceptions and methods of design. They show his straightforward and intelligent representation of action, his skill in composition, and the simple, prosaic temper of his imagination. Mrs. Van Rensselaer's essay on Correggio is a little vague in thought and extravagant in phrase. Clear discrimination of an artist's merit is not indicated by speaking of his "balanced, rounded, uneccentric, and unstunted perfection." Perfection needs no epithets. And to be told that "his life just spans the time when the great wave we know as the Renaissance was at its fullest height, pausing, crested with a marvellous foam of beauty, between its slow upheaval and its more rapid dissolution," is enough to satisfy a common reader as to the advantage of reading more. The article on Hamon, by Miss Adams, gives numerous characteristic illustrations from the works of this poetically gifted artist, whose fancy occasionally, as in his "Théâtre Guignol," reached over into the domain of the imagination, but was too often content with pretty and trivial conceits. The number, as usual, contains some specimens of the work of American etchers, and, as usual, they are specimens of work which indicates that as yet we have, among a multitude of etchers of more or less technical ability, few who have anything of special interest to communicate to the world by means of their art. The editorial gatherings in the Art Chronicle are, as always, full, accurate, and useful.

—We regret to learn that with the next number, which closes its second year, the publication of the *American Art Review* is to cease. But the announcement is not surprising. The venture was a bold one—to publish, in competition with the foreign art journals, a magazine of such high character and of such cost that its circulation must of necessity be confined to persons rich enough to indulge in an expensive luxury. The failure of the attempt to establish the journal on a permanent footing is not due to any lack on the part of the publishers to do their best to make it worthy of support, or of any want of energy or capacity on the part of the editor. Indeed, both publishers and editor deserve much credit for the manner in which the journal has been conducted. Mr. Koehler's wide acquaintance with the field of art, his liberal sympathies, and his unwearied industry, have been conspicuous from the first number to the last. The defect in the conception and conduct of the *Review* has been the attempt to appeal to too many classes of readers, and hence a division of interest, and a failure to enlist any class heartily in its support. The project of combining attractions for the great mass of uninstructed people who like pretty pictures, with what should be of interest to the select and small class of cultivated readers and serious students of art who have a great objection to merely pretty pictures, was perhaps a natural design, but was not likely to be successful. And when to this double-headed project was added the intention to make the journal representative, in the best sense, of American art, the critic standing by could not but ask how long a supply of tolerable material would be afforded. In one branch of the technique of art America, indeed, is well at the front, and the *Art Review* is likely to be chiefly remembered for the admirable specimens it has afforded of the work of such men as Mr. Linton, Mr. Kruell, and Mr. Closson. Still in this field it could hardly compete with *Harper's* and *Scribner's* monthlies. On the critical side, the *Art Review* has been generally content to express the average sentiment and opinion concerning matters of art prevalent among the semi-educated artists and cultivators of art whom it mainly addressed. It has wanted a distinct and vigorous voice of its own. It has lacked consistent and intelligent principle. It has not done much to educate the public, and it might have died with its first year had it attempted to do so. There is a chance in America for a critical journal of art, and it is much needed. But if properly conducted it could have but a small circulation, for it would pay little attention to "American" art, as such, and that little would not be flattering to the conceit of artists or public. Mr. Stillman's *Crayon* and Mr. Sturgis's *New Path* were, each in its way, better than anything we have had since. We need now a journal as independent and as

thoughtful as these were, and more learned and larger in outlook than either of them.

—Lovers of art will welcome 'Select Works of Adoph Tidemand,' the greatest of Norway's *genre* painters, who died in 1876. The work is published by Christian Tönsberg, Christiania, and contains twenty-four etchings of Tidemand's most celebrated works, namely: 1. Sunday Night in a Cabin in Hardanger. 2. Christmas Custom. 3. A Catechising. 4. The Letter from America. 5. Going to the Chalet. 6. The Sectarians (Tidemand's most famous painting). 7. The Woman Winding Worsted. 8. The Solitary Old Couple. 9. Fishing by Torch-light. 10. A Wedding Procession Arriving at the Church. 11. A Wedding Procession in Hardanger. 12. A Funeral on the Fjord. 13. A Funeral Repast. 14. The Farewell. 15. Return of the Bear-Hunters. 16. At the Death-Bed. 17. Decorating the Bride. 18. Fight at a Country Wedding. 19. The Grandfather's Souvenirs. 20. The Fanatics. 21. The Grandparent's Visit. 22. The Resurrection of Christ. 23. A Wedding Procession through the Forest. 24. The Landing of Sinclair in Romsdalen in 1612. The series furnishes a delightful opportunity of studying the manners and customs of the peasantry of Norway. Their every-day occupations, their merry and solemn festivities, their rural interiors, their dress and faces are here depicted to the life, as in no book that we have seen; for if we compare these compositions with Björnson's fiction, faithful as it is, their scope is wider, including well nigh every phase of Norse life. The price of the collection is only 30 crowns (about $8). From the same publisher we have received 'Norway: an Illustrated Handbook for Travellers,' edited by Mr. Tönsberg himself. It is a handsome volume of more than six hundred pages of close print, with 134 fine engravings on wood and 17 maps. So far as Norway is concerned there is no other similar work that can compete with it. Every route is given with the utmost detail, and besides this there is an introductory section of upwards of sixty pages on the climate, geology, orography, water-courses, lakes, glaciers, snow-fields, animal and vegetable kingdom, literature and art, national character, habits, constitution, courts, statistics, etc., of Norway, all prepared for the work by the most eminent specialists of the country. The handbook is in English, and therefore perfectly available for the increasing number of English and American tourists in Scandinavia. The price is only eight crowns (say $2 50).

—Harper & Brothers have published a book of vocal music under the title of 'The Franklin Square Song Collection.' It contains two hundred pieces and costs forty cents, or five songs for a cent. This is certainly cheap enough, and would be considered so even in Germany, the land of cheap music. Some of the songs included in the collection are also cheap in an æsthetic sense; but this could hardly be avoided in a book which was intended to be popular. Popular most of these songs certainly are, and many of them deserve their popularity. There are ballads and songs of sentiment, such as "Auld Lang Syne," "Annie Laurie," etc.; patriotic airs of various countries; Christmas carols, hymns and school songs, although, as the editor says, nearly everything in the book is appropriate for use in the schoolroom. The editor does not lay claim to the adjective "best" or "rivalling the best" for his book, but only "worth having"; and that epithet it certainly deserves. It does not require any great genius to make such a collection where there are so many thousand songs to choose from; but the editor deserves credit for avoiding the vulgar and puerile songs that are too often allowed to creep into such compilations from the street and the variety show, under the impression that by altering the words the song too has been refined in character. The print is clear and legible, and each song is finished on the page on which it begins, thus obviating the necessity of stopping to turn a leaf. The vacant space left over by this process is filled out with notes and paragraphs on all sorts of subjects of interest to musical folks. In households where young folks frequently meet in the evening, and, after other entertainments have lost their charm, indulge in some vocal music, half a dozen copies of the 'Franklin Square Collection' would be very much appreciated; and for such a purpose we can honestly recommend the book.

—Henry Holt & Co.'s 'Our Familiar Songs' is a similar collection of over three hundred songs of the English-speaking race only, arranged with pianoforte accompaniments and preceded by sketches of the writers and histories of the songs. The heads under which these songs have been arranged are as follows: Songs of Reminiscence, Songs of Home, Songs of Exile, Songs of the Sea, Songs of Nature, Songs of Sentiment, Songs of Hopeless and of Happy Love, Songs of Pleasantry, Convivial Songs; Political, Moral and Religious Songs. In writing the biographies more attention has been paid to the minor poets and composers than to those whose fame has made the incidents of their lives more or less familiar to everybody. In looking over some of the songs we have come across an occasional error in the accompaniment which, however, may be the printer's fault. The typographical execution is otherwise attractive. What we object to is the size of the book. It contains more than six hundred and fifty pages, and as the paper is rather thick it is so bulky that it cannot be conveniently placed on every piano. It would have been better to leave out some of the songs or else to bind the book in two volumes. Musical books should never be bulky and never bound in stiff covers. Barring this defect in the get-up of the volume, 'Our Familiar Songs' will commend itself to lovers of English music.

—A little work on 'Word-building' was left by the late Professor Haldeman nearly completed, and is issued (Lippincott) by Mr. J. Hunter. It illustrates the processes of derivation by parallel sets of English words coming from different forms (as Teutonic, Latin, Greek) of the same ultimate root, with definitions and remarks appended. Teachers will get valuable hints from it, but its method does not seem well adapted to school use. By an undesirable deviation from ordinary usage, the editor calls a borrowed word (as *canoe*) a "derivative," a derivative (as *manly*) a "compound," and a compound (as *manservant*) a "composite."

—It seems to be natural for any one who has made himself familiar with the oration of Demosthenes 'On the Crown' to feel an impulse to translate it. It is so clear, so powerful, so absorbing in the intellectual interest it excites, so stirring in its appeal to universal and readily-responding feelings, that one feels as if he could not keep it to himself. And so there is a long list of published translations, from that of Cicero, one of the earliest foreign students of Greek literature, to the present time. To this list another has recently been added by Mr. Geo. W. Biddle, a well-known member of the Philadelphia bar, in a handsome volume published by Lippincott & Co. He has followed Cicero, as most of his predecessors have not, in translating together the two great orations belonging to the same trial, so that one may read Æschines first and thus understand better the special arguments of Demosthenes and the need for so great an effort on his part. In the most important respects Mr. Biddle has done his self-imposed task well. There are not a few inaccuracies of translation, as might be expected in such a work from a lawyer in active practice, and inconsistency in the troublesome matter of transliterating the Greek proper names; but the orations read well and reproduce in good measure the life and vigor of the originals. The value of such a book must be mainly in its bringing these masterpieces within the reach of those who are not acquainted with Greek, and for such readers its value would be greatly increased by a few judicious notes explaining things that must be unintelligible to them, by cross-references from one oration to the other, and perhaps by a brief analysis of each.

—One of Mr. Ruskin's most deep-rooted objections to modern society is that it has invented and developed the railroad. He refused some years ago to come to the United States because he could not live in a country in which there were "no castles," but if he had been forced to emigrate he probably would have found the great and increasing mileage of railroads in this country a more pestilent evil even than the absence of castles. His objections to railroads are of course entirely æsthetic, and it must be confessed that a line of iron track is seldom an attractive object in the landscape, and if the picturesque were the only thing to be considered in locomotion, there can be little question that many ways of getting from place to place could be found which would be far preferable to that at present in use. But something can be done to make even railroads attractive to the eye, or at least to mitigate their unattractiveness; and everybody but the hopeless pessimist will be glad to learn that on one of the roads leading out of Boston the station agents are now allowed an annual sum for the purchase of flower seeds, plants, and shrubs, and that the company offers prizes to the station agents who make their stations most attractive. This will have its effect not merely upon the station "grounds," but probably upon the walk and conversation of the station agent himself. The influence of flowers in softening manners is well known, and there is perhaps no place in the world where manners could be softened with more advantage than at railroad stations.

—The Vienna Burg Theatre, which has no rival in Germany and only one in France, lost its director last winter by the death of the famous dramaturgist Dingelstedt. The position thus left vacant has not yet been filled and there was no urgent need of filling it at once, as Dingelstedt had left behind him a partial sketch of the *répertoire* for a whole year. Various names have been mentioned in connection with the place, but of late it has become tolerably certain that Adolf Wilbrandt, the novelist and playwright, would be elected. It was, however, by many regarded as a suspicious omen that Wilbrandt's latest drama "Johannes Erdmann," which was brought out a few weeks ago at the Burg Theatre, had a bare *succès d'estime*. L. Speidel, in the *Neue Freie Presse*, reassures these timid folks, and points out that the success or failure of a single play has nothing to do with the decision of the question whether its author is a proper person for the post of director. Wilbrandt has all the qualities to be desired of such an official: a famous name, a connection with literature and artists, and a most intimate acquaintance with the life, requirements, and mechanism of the stage. The appointment of Wilbrandt would not only be an advantage to the Burg Theatre, but also to the poet himself. Speidel thinks that the failure of his last work is due to his temporary poetic exhaustion, and that if his mind were distracted and rested for a year

by attention to the practical details of stage management, his poetic gifts would recover their former freshness.

A FRENCH VIEW OF OUR SIGNAL SERVICE.

L'Astronomie pratique et les observatoires en Europe et en Amérique, depuis le milieu du XVII. siècle jusqu'à nos jours. Par C. André et A. Angot. Quatrième partie. Observatoires de l'Amérique du Sud et les établissements météorologiques des États-Unis. Paris: Gauthier-Villars. 1881. 16mo.

ALTHOUGH this is nominally Part iv. of the interesting series prepared by MM. André, Rayet, and Angot, it is really the fifth volume which has appeared, the others being: Part i., Observatories of England (1874); Part ii., Observatories of Scotland, Ireland, and the English Colonies (1874); Part iii., Observatories of the United States (1877); Part v., Observatories of Italy (1878). It is, moreover, that one which is most generally interesting to Americans, since seventy-eight of its one hundred and twenty-six pages are taken up with a description of the meteorological services established in the United States, and especially with the best account of the Government Signal Service, or Weather Bureau, which has yet appeared. This account is particularly valuable, as it has been written by M. Angot, the Secretary of the French Meteorological Society, who has familiarized himself with the whole routine of our Weather Bureau from personal inspection during two visits to the United States. He has given just such a sketch of its origin and its activity as was needed to connect together the isolated facts of the annual reports of the Chief Signal Officer; and although his is usually the most flattering of verdicts, it is important that the points which he finds not entirely admirable should be attentively considered.

The history of the progress of meteorology in the United States begins with the establishment of the Smithsonian Institution. Prof. Henry, from the outset of his career as director of that establishment, turned his attention to the formation of a corps of volunteer observers of meteorological data; and so successful was he that some three hundred to four hundred persons were engaged in this service without cost to the Institution. This continued until the Government Weather Bureau was well under way, when Prof. Henry caused these reports to be made to the Signal Office, in accordance with his often-expressed and wise policy not to attempt any scientific work which could be equally well done elsewhere. Besides collecting immense quantities of data, Prof. Henry provided for the discussion of the results from time to time by men of ability in this direction. Some twenty or thirty special memoirs have thus appeared, among which may be cited Prof. Coffin's 'Winds of the Northern Hemisphere'; 'Magnetic and Meteorological Observations in the Arctic Seas,' by Dr. Kane; 'Smithsonian Rain-Tables,' by Dr. Schott; and 'Meteorological Tables' (several editions), by Prof. Guyot. Thus the Smithsonian Institution has not only been an assiduous collector of meteorological data, but it has done a more important work in providing for their exhaustive discussion by competent hands. It is in this latter way that the greatest services have been rendered.

The early history of American meteorology is not fully treated in the volume before us, and it appears that more should have been said of the early work of Espy, Loomis, and others. The work of Lieut. Maury, however, at the Naval Observatory is mentioned with the high praise it deserves, although no details are given in regard to it. The organization of the Weather Bureau is described at great length, and in a most interesting manner. The *arrière pensée* of the author is certainly apparent, as he clearly desires to force his own Government to understand what practical steps have been taken here, in order that they may be imitated at home. At the end of our civil war it was decided not to disband our Signal Corps, which had rendered such useful service in the field. It was organized with a chief (the late General Myer), and consisted of enlisted men, of its chief, and of officers temporarily detailed from the line of the army, young lieutenants of artillery, etc. The services of Prof. Cleveland Abbe, the director of the Cincinnati Observatory, were also secured as scientific adviser. Prof. Abbe, following out suggestions made by Prof. Henry and others, had organized a bureau of predictions at his observatory, and had been for some time publishing in the Cincinnati daily papers the *probabilities* for the ensuing day. It is to him that whatever is scientific in the present system is in great part due. The military and administrative portion is due to General Myer and to the corps of able young officers by whom he was surrounded. These facts deserve mention in even the briefest review of the work of the Office, for there has never been a department of the Government in which an able chief was more indebted to the efforts of those about him.

The observers of the Signal Service are enlisted men in the United States Army, and are regularly instructed in their duties at Fort Whipple, Virginia. They are of two classes—*sergeants*, receiving about $830 per annum (including all allowances), and *soldiers*, receiving about $657. The passage from one class to the higher is by examination. Each year two are appointed lieutenants in the army (at $1,500) on examination. At each signal station, so called, one or more of these observers is placed. In 1870 (the first year of the Service) there were 24 stations; in 1871, 55; in 1872, 65; in 1873, 79; in 1877, 109, etc. The growth has been rapid, and more rapid than is necessary, the stations being often established in a Congressional district to secure the support of "the member." We should recollect, in looking at the familiar daily weather-map, that not more than two-thirds of the stations are there given.

At each signal station the sergeant in charge sends *by telegraph*, three times each day, ten words to the central office in Washington. This message is a simple cipher-code, and gives the name of the station, the hour of the day, the state of the barometer, thermometer, hygrometer; the aspect of the sky, the direction and velocity of the wind, the nature of the upper and the lower clouds, and the rainfall. River stations add two words, which give the rise or fall since the last report. The instruments at each station have all been compared with one set of standards. Obvious precautions like these have not been neglected. Dr. Angot's remarks on the disposition of the instruments at the various stations should be noted. They are based, let it be remembered, on his personal examination of stations of the Service in all parts of the United States, from San Francisco to Boston and Washington. He says:

"The position of the rain-gauge and the thermometer is usually very bad; it is often so with respect to the wind-gauge. . . . It follows from this that the observations of the Signal Service, while sufficient for the requirements of weather warnings, where great precision is not necessary—at least, not up to this time—are not accurate enough to serve as a base for the serious study of climatological conditions."

A more rigid system of establishing the instruments of each station is thus desirable.

The next section of Dr. Angot's work is devoted to a description of the central office at Washington. Here the tri-daily reports are received, translated, mapped, printed, and despatched to various points. The maps so made are studied by the officer in charge of the "probability-room," and the *indications* are made out and given to the press. The reports sent by the various stations at 11 P.M. must be mapped and studied, and the indications for the next day sent out, before 1 A.M. The tri-daily indications are sent to the "fact-room," and there compared with the veritable occurrences. The ratio of fulfilled predictions is then computed by fixed rules, and each officer's work is thus subjected to the most rigid of tests. Other bureaus prepare the international bulletin—a record of *facts* from all over the world for each day of the year. The bureau in charge of publications issues no less than eight periodicals, and employs a large force of printers and lithographers.

There is no space here to speak of these in detail, nor of the repute in which they are held all over the country. It must suffice to direct attention to the lucid account given by Dr. Angot, who is full of admiration for the Service and the manner in which it is carried on. At the same time he points out in various places that, however great this Service may be, it still requires serious improvements, whose general nature is the addition of permanent scientific value to the present rough observations, and the careful discussion of the vast quantity of data daily received. It is more than probable (though this is not stated by Dr. Angot) that the Bureau could be carried on at far less expense than at present.

The volume contains a very flattering account of the Meteorological Observatory in Central Park, where Dr. Daniel Draper has a truly scientific establishment filled with ingenious and simple instruments of his own devising. The printing meteorological instruments invented by Prof. Hough, Director of the Dearborn Observatory of Chicago, are also fully explained. In short, the work, while destined especially for men of science, contains a quantity of most useful and interesting information, such as is not to be met with elsewhere.

We have no space to speak of the excellent accounts given of the observatories of South America, two of which the American astronomers, Gilliss and Gould, have made so famous. This part of the work is also well done. If we have a criticism to make, it is on the extreme good-nature with which the extravagant and useless instrumental outfits of some of the South American observatories are spoken of. On the whole, this volume is even better than its predecessors, principally because its subject was sufficiently limited to allow of an adequate treatment.

BOULGER'S HISTORY OF CHINA.

History of China. By Demetrius Charles Boulger, Member of the Royal Asiatic Society, Author of 'England and Russia in Central Asia,' 'Yakoob Bey of Kashgar,' etc. Vol. I. London: W. H. Allen & Co. 1881. Pp. 604.

MR. BOULGER'S labor on the two previous works quoted in the title-page of this one has probably suggested the preparation of a compend of Chinese history which should furnish English readers with a digest of its leading events, and aid them in following the growth and fortunes of the Black-haired Race. We have now become comparatively well acquainted with the Chinese of the present day, and an attempt to narrate the changes and describe the great actors in their long past is likely, if well done, to meet the wishes of many readers. In a short preface the

author says that Gibbon's remark, "that China has been illustrated by the labors of the French," is almost as true now as it was in 1781.

"It is they also," he adds, "who have at all periods been more willing than we have been to recognize the innate strength and greatness of the Chinese nation. The task of supplying what has appeared to be a want in our literature, and of popularizing the subject of Chinese history, has been very congenial to me; and if I have only succeeded in making the subject in any degree as much a cause of pleasure and instruction to others as its study has proved to myself, I may indulge a hope that something of the reproach of being behind our neighbors in the interest we take in China may be removed."

Bringing this spirit of candor to the execution of his task, Mr. Boulger, unlike most English writers, is willing to judge the Chinese by their own opportunities; and to estimate their advances in good government and morality by their own standards and circumstances. His non-residence among them, therefore, has had one advantage—he is not always disparaging their actual condition. His principal authority in this epitome is the 'Histoire de la Chine,' translated by the Jesuit Père Mailla from the native compend called 'Tung Kien Kang-muh,' and published after his death by Abbé Grosier, in 1777–1783, in twelve quarto volumes. But this work is by no means a double translation; it is rather a digest of the information in the original, and we must not look for minute accuracy. The author has also consulted 'La Chine,' the excellent résumé of the late French sinologue G. Pauthier, whose knowledge of his subject gives weight to his opinion. The work has, we think, been fairly well done. The reader will obtain from it a just idea of the dynastic changes through which the Chinese have passed since the destruction of the feudal system, B.C. 220, and their gradual welding into a homogeneous people. It sketches their history from the earliest times, about B.C. 2637, down to A.D. 1350, and gives a synopsis of the successive ruling families. The Chinese reckon twenty-six dynasties *in toto*, and all but two are here noticed; while among these the four great names of Han, Tang, Sung, and Yuen occupy two-thirds of the volume. Their varying fortunes during their struggles for power, and the diverse characters of the successive sovereigns, are on the whole narrated in a lively and clear style. Mr. Boulger has also looked at later books, but with no material advantage to his narrative. One extract, summarizing the deeds and character of the first Mongol Emperor, Kublai, whose life fills fifty pages, will show his style:

"After Kublai's last journey to the northern frontier his bodily infirmities increased so much that it was generally perceived that the end could not be far distant. In A.D. 1294, after the appearance of a comet in the preceding year, which the Chinese took advantage of to reform his administration, Kublai fell ill and died. He was then in the eighticth year of his age, and had occupied the throne for thirty-five years. Twenty-three years had elapsed since he gave his dynasty the Chinese name of Yuen, and during the last sixteen years he had been the acknowledged ruler of the whole of China.

"With regard to the private character and domestic life of this prince, we owe most of the details to that vivacious gossip and remarkable traveller, Marco Polo. That Kublai was destitute of natural affection could not be sustained in view of his evidently unaffected grief at the loss of his wife Honkilachi and his eldest son Chinkin; but there is much corroborative evidence of the charges brought against him by the Chinese historians of having been too much addicted to such weaknesses as the love of money and a morbid inclination for superstitious practices, and he was also undoubtedly of a sensual nature. But, admitting these faults and shortcomings, there remains a long list of virtues and high qualities in his favor. If he was not the greatest of Chinese emperors—and that he certainly was not—his character is sufficiently vindicated by the events of his reign. They show him to have been well able to maintain a great empire at its height, and to lead his people into the paths of peace and prosperity.

"Kublai's long reign is not less remarkable if regarded from the standpoint of its being the climax of the triumph of a more vigorous race over a weaker. The greatest of the Mongol achievements, greater in its way than the march across Asia to the confines of Austria and the Persian Gulf, was undoubtedly the conquest of China. It had foiled the efforts of Genghis and his immediate successors, and all the credit of success was reserved for Kublai. The praise for having accomplished the most arduous of all the undertakings that formed part of the original Mongol programme belongs, therefore, to this prince. The Chinese were subdued and reduced by him to the condition of subjects of the Great Khan; but there can also be no question that they were throughout the most unwilling of subjects. Kublai showed that he knew how to conquer them, but it was above his capacity to reconcile them to his rule. Perhaps the task was impossible; but his later public acts were conspicuously deficient in the tact and judgment required for popularizing his authority" (pp. 583, 584).

If we have commended the candor of our author in his estimate of the Chinese, we cannot say as much for his accuracy. He is evidently totally ignorant of the Chinese language, and has, in consequence, fallen into many mistakes, and been misled by similarity of sounds. For instance, in a note on page 6, he says: "Before his reign the sovereigns of China were called *wangs* or kings. The name of the King of Heaven, or God, was *Changti*, Supreme Emperor or sovereign. *Hoangti* means the Yellow Emperor; but it henceforth became a usual title for the first ruler of a new dynasty to take." On this queer *mélange*, it is enough to say that *Hoang* stands for two different characters, one meaning "yellow," and the other meaning "autocratic"; that there has been only one Yellow Emperor among the two hundred and forty-six names on the list; that every monarch in a dynasty has been popularly called *Hwangti*, or Autocrat, since Tsin Chi Hwangti, B.C. 240, as Pauthier mentions on page 478; that *Changti* is the name of the highest god in the Chinese state religion; and, lastly, that all the sovereigns were styled *wang* down to B.C. 249. Mr. Boulger follows the French spelling of Mailla and Pauthier, as *Hoangho* for *Hwang-ho*, the Yellow River; *Chunti* for *Shun-ti*, etc., when he quotes from them; but in quoting an English author he uses his spelling. Thus, on page 405, he says: "Hoeitsong was the eleventh son of Chintsong II."; but Chin-tsung is written quite differently in Chinese from Shin-tsung, the name of the father of Hwui-tsung, and both sound and sense are unlike in the two titles. The province of Shantung is also written Chantung, owing to this confusion.

The different uses of the *nien-hao*, or reign-name, and the *miao-hao*, or temple-name, seem also to be unknown to our author. On page 339 he says: "Chuwen founded a dynasty and took the great names of Taitsou Hoangti," etc. This single title means Greatest or High Ancestor Emperor, and was conferred on Chu, the general who established the After Liang dynasty on the ruins of the Tang dynasty, after his death in A.D. 915. He was worshipped in the Imperial Ancestral Hall under the full title of "The High Ancestor, the Divine Warrior, the Original Holy and Filial Emperor." The years of his reign of eight years were styled Kai-ping and Kien-hwa, which were two *nien-hao* or reign-names.

Upon the uses of these and other titles among the Chinese monarchs we have no room to enlarge, and refer to them chiefly to show the desirableness of a knowledge of the language in one who writes a history of China. A Chinese always writes his family name first, and his style or given name after it—the reverse of our own custom. These terms ought, consequently, to be separated, making two words, as indeed Mr. Boulger has done in some cases, as *Chow Kwang Yu*, *Kwo Wei*, etc. His usage is, however, too often a disorderly mixture, thus: *Chupasien*, *Fanyuki*, and *Lichimin*, and so generally elsewhere; Chu Pa-sien, Li Chi-min, and Fan Yu-ki are more correct.

One celebrated officer, Li Sz' (not *Lisseh*), the minister of Tsin Chi Hwangti, is charged by native historians with having influenced his master to destroy the literati (pp. 73, 74), for which both of them have been denounced. Of that great conqueror's career we have a full account (pp. 59–79), though here much confusion arises from the misapplication of the title *Hoangti* as a proper name; as, "Hoangti cut short the admonition"; "In Hoangti they encountered an opponent." In Chinese history he is only known as *Chi Hwangti—i.e.*, the Emperor First; but in the work before us he is called Tsin Hoangti, which is somewhat as though a modern historian should employ the title "Brandenburg Kaiser" for the Emperor William of Germany, were that combination conceivable. We are told (page 76) that this hero lived "long enough to see the fortified wall constructed from the sea-coast to the extremity of Kansuh." But the Great Wall was not completed till seven years after his death; and in its construction he joined several short walls which had existed for many years. We have some doubts, too, as to the propriety of using the modern name Kansuh for a region called by other names hundreds of years before. Mr. Boulger does so throughout his book, thus causing the same confusion in the minds of his readers as if one should say Lincolnshire and Devonshire, when describing the boundaries or wars of the Saxon Heptarchy.

Still, with these defects and some others, the 'History of China' will repay perusal. We recommend its readers to begin with chapter iii., inasmuch as the two previous chapters are far too meagre and imperfect to reward them. The next volume will come down to modern days, when the annals of Mailla can be rectified by more reliable historians. This attempt may incite some accomplished sinologue to become the historian of the Chinese Empire, and emulate Gibbon in all his best qualities. The native histories among the Chinese have never been carefully studied by any foreigner, and a survey of the rise and fall of the successive dynasties will enable a modern scholar to weigh the merits and demerits of Chinese civilization while comparing it with that of the Romans, Greeks, and Hindus.

RECENT NOVELS.

Damen's Ghost. [Round-Robin Series.] Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

With Costs. By Mrs. Newman. [Franklin Square Library.] New York: Harper & Bros.

Kalani of Oahu. An Historical Romance of Hawaii. By C. M. Newell. Boston: Published by the Author. 1881. 8vo, pp. 415.

Warlock o' Glen Warlock. By George Macdonald. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.

Sceptre and Ring. By B. H. Buxton. [Franklin Square Library.] New York: Harper & Bros.

Boscobel. New York: W. B. Smith & Co.

The Lutaniste of St. Jacobi's. By Catharine Drew. [Leisure-Hour Series.] New York: Henry Holt & Co.

A Prince of Breffny. By Thomas P. May. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros.

The Letter of Credit. By the author of 'The Wide, Wide World.' New York: Robert Carter & Bros.

Michael Strogoff: the Courier of the Czar. By Jules Verne. Translated by W. H. G. Kingston. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons.

'DAMEN'S GHOST' and 'With Costs' fall together in virtue of plots based upon the disputed inheritance of large fortunes, but in merit the two are widely apart. The title of the first is, by the by, *a lucus a non*, for there is not the ghost of a ghost; or if there were, there is no part for him to play. With much good intention as to the reward of the good and the punishment of the wicked, the writer has gathered such a host of improbabilities as to turn the whole story into a farce. The different groups of people will be recognized as "reproductions," at the longest interval, of well-known characters and scenes. There may be a doubt whether the law in the case would be admitted by the profession to be even "good enough for a novel."

'With Costs' is so well contrived, and there are so many wheels within wheels, that we shall not spoil the story by giving the conclusion:

"There was Miss Gray, ready to take all the blame and the shame, as she called it, to shield her father, letting the friends she thought so much about believe her guilty! Had he not heard her with his own ears? There was Mr. Norman, refusing to let her have her way, insisting upon being punished himself! Mrs. Lydesley and her son holding fast to Miss Gray when facts seemed to tell against her, and for no other reason than because they liked her! Sir Edward ready to condone everything and marry the daughter of the man that had wronged him! And, more puzzling than all, the clever woman—Marks gave Mrs. Verral credit for ability—had come to grief! 'A curious world—a curious world!' was his mental ejaculation."

Over the main drift of the story there come such cross-currents, such eddies and whirls, that it vividly shows, though there is no pretence of going beneath the surface, how the plans and the wiles of men are sometimes furthered and sometimes thwarted equally by the malice of things and the careful good luck which seem to track every footstep. The story does not descend to the trickery of law-suits, but it finds a field for humor, far from barren, in the rivalry of attorneys for no meaner motives than the pleasure of beating each other. "Honor bound to outwit Goodge" is all the droller that Goodge was not in it at all, only one scheming little busybody of a woman working out of her own head for her own purposes. The book well repays reading.

Polynesian history and mythology, however interesting in themselves, have not as yet proved fertile themes for imaginative writers. Since Byron's 'Island'—in which, however, there is little that is Polynesian but the scene—we know of but one English poem that can be called important which has found its subject in the Pacific Islands: Alfred Domett's 'Ranolf and Amohia.' In prose romance we have Herman Melville's 'Typee,' a work of imaginative genius, and yet truer to the facts than many a book of Island travels. Hawaiian history has been the "only begetter" of Mr. James Jackson Jarves's 'Kiana,' a story published in Honolulu many years ago; and Dr. Newell has gone for his theme to the same interesting period—that of the conquest of the "Eight Islands" by Kamehameha I. After the rival kings, the leading human characters of his romance are Boki, Kaiana, Kupuli, the "love-queen" of Kalani, and Keone Ana, the English sailor. Besides these actors, Dr. Newell introduces a full line of supernatural personages, chief among whom is the goddess Pele, "the divine," "the dread," "the beautiful ignipotent." She is the most striking figure in the Polynesian pantheon. We may add that her position, according to the Hawaiian scheme of divinity, was highly anomalous. Pele dwelt in the great volcanoes of Mauna Loa, pouring forth their lava-streams at will; her Paradise was in Hale-mau-mau, the pit of everlasting fire. It will be seen that this view greatly embarrassed the first missionaries' expositions of the true doctrine of the future state.

Pele was, however, an entirely anthropomorphic goddess, and as a tropical woman she became the lover of Kalani, the young King of Oahu, Kamehameha's enemy. Being slighted by him, she withdrew her protection from him and his cause, retired to her burning lake on Mauna Loa, and, after dreadful portents, left him to his fate at the battle of Nuuanu, when his island fell under the power of Kamehameha I. Dr. Newell has hung upon this plot a great deal of mythology, description, and really imaginative, if florid, writing. The mythology is very courageous, elves and mermaids being added to the local supply of supernatural creatures, while the descriptions are fervid to the last degree: that they convert the semi-tropical climate and scenery of the Islands into full-tropical is only the beginning of Dr. Newell's transformations. But local truth of color is not the first thing we look for in a romance, least of all in one which seeks to give popular interest to an order of ideas and customs a hundred times remoter from our own than the ideas and customs of the ancient Greeks. The same fault pervades Mr. Domett's poem, just mentioned, in spite of the fine imagination and the literary gift displayed in it. What sort of literary gift Dr. Newell's is, will appear in the following fairly representative passage, describing the apparition of Pele by night to Kalani and his queen:

"Afar off the red lava streamed up from Loa's top, and lit the reeling world with fire, like some monstrous beacon-light put forth by the hand of God. The pool, that had already grown tranquil since the departure of the nocturne spirits, had again become ruffled by some unseen wind. . . . The hill whereon they stood shook with agony. . . . A dark something now came suddenly over the moon, leaving the royal pair clinging to each other in the midst of blackest darkness. . . . By the tender blue of her large, soft eyes, and the golden magnificence of her shining hair, both the King and Queen knew the blinding vision before them to be Pele, the creator of the world."

Dr. Newell's English speaks for itself. As to his Hawaiian, the phrases frequently employed show that his knowledge of the native idiom has been impaired by long absence from the Islands, where, as he tells us, the first draft of his story was composed thirty years ago. Solecisms in Polynesian syntax are not, however, the sharpest of trials for the critic of novels, and we dare say that the reader of 'Kalani' will not be disturbed by Dr. Newell's slips in this matter. Of these, the most flagrant that we have noted are such readings as *nui mokus* for *moku nui*, and *maikai Moi* for *Moi maikai*.

'Kalani' is a curiosity, both in subject and in treatment. In the second edition, which we hear is forthcoming, we advise Dr. Newell to drop the superfluous name Kamehameha in his dedication of the book to "Kalakaua, the VII. King of the Eight Isles." King Kalakaua is descended from an old line of chiefs, but is not more nearly related to Kamehameha than President Grévy is to Napoleon I.

There can be nothing new said of George MacDonald's work. 'Warlock o' Glen Warlock' is only another of the strange medleys that so forcibly emphasize the possible difference between what a man has heard and what he has invented. One might look far for truer wisdom than the sturdy Scotch lassie's: "It's no kennin' things—it's kennin' things upo' the so'd ye gang, 'at 's o' consequence to ye." But turn the page and read: "Such a man I do not think even diamonds could hurt, although where breathes no wind of life those very crystals of light are among the worst in Beelzebub's army to fly-blow a soul into a thing of hate and horror." Could mixed metaphor further go? The laird of Warlock, again, puts a whole chapter of critical dissertation into one line: "There's naething like faith for makin' o' poets." But no faith except a supreme one in a man's own genius could have inspired the verses which close the story. "My spiritual colophon," the author calls them. Two stanzas will show how like they are to Henry Vaughan's—as like as tinsel is to gold:

"Diamonds are shadows of the sun:
They drink his rays and show a spark;
My soul some gleams of thy great shine hath won,
And round me slays the dark."

"All knowledge is but broken shades—
In gulfs of dark a wandering horde;
Together rush the parted glory-grades—
And lo! thy garment, Lord!"

'Sceptre and Ring' is neither better nor worse in its workmanship than the average novel of the circulating library, but the extraordinary manner in which the meanest conduct is overlooked by those who have cruelly suffered from it demands a word of comment. A gentleman just setting out for hazardous duty with the army entrusts, in the most solemn manner, a letter to a lady, for delivery at a given hour the next day. Piqued by his manifest indifference to herself, she carelessly drops the letter, and finds upon her recovery from a fit of weeping only its charred remains under the grate. She remembers part of the address, but in jealousy allows herself the basest suspicions, makes one faint effort to find the street and number, and conceals the loss of the letter from her friend, with whom she is in correspondence during his four years' absence. The letter, of course, was for the young and beautiful lady whom he had secretly married. It would have explained his sudden departure and supplied her with means of support. Failing these, she is even compelled to sing in the streets to save herself and her baby from starvation. What follows is the old story—a great musician's hearing the wonderful voice, training for the stage, a brilliant *début*, the "sceptre" already in her hand. The husband returns, and recognizes her at a private concert in a house which she has just discovered to be his father's. Father, son, and wife learn within a few hours the heartless treachery which has cost them so dear; but at this point the tale becomes utterly false, or men and women have so deteriorated that noble resentment for wrong is no longer a virtue. That Miss Hartley had, meanwhile, most unwittingly been the benefactress of the deserted wife is no redeeming trait, for it was only for self-pleasing and vanity. The ready indifference with which her excuses are accepted is as repulsive to a high-minded sense of honor as many things more commonly characterized as bad in novels. She becomes at once the affianced of the father, and all the admiration which the beauty and patience of Olga in her lonely suffering may have excited turns to a feeling of almost contempt for the four as they disappear driving gayly together to the Ascot races.

'Boscobel' shows not very much skill in contrivance of plot or portraiture of character; but it is worth an hour's reading for the sake of some pretty sketching of Florida scenery and of the life of the winter sojourners there.

'The Lutaniste of St. Jacobi's' was a German maiden, the daughter of the last of a long line of famous musical-instrument makers in the old Hamburg of the seventeenth century. All the week she worked swiftly and deftly over her lace pillow and bobbins, and on Sunday she played the lute in one of the orchestras which made part of the great church choirs before or-

gans came into use. Close by her, George Neumarck played the viol da gamba. To him she was the good genius, first, for strength in grievous temptation, and then, when through her own success she had won for him fortune and position as court musician, to be his happy wife. The book is in the main a biography of Neumarck, in something the fashion of the once-famous 'Charles Auchester.' If there is not the fervent imagination which made that so vivid, the slender story has, nevertheless, a delicate sweetness which proves it to be a labor of love—a token of gratitude, perhaps, for some helpful experience of the beauty and pathos of the hymn and tune to which George Neumarck owes his fame. The old words are dear to many hearts:

> "Leave God to order all thy ways,
> And hope in Him, whate'er betide;
> Thou'lt find Him in the evil days
> Thy all-sufficient Strength and Guide."

Frederic William I. of Prussia ordered it to be sung at his funeral. In the form in which Mendelssohn adapted it for a chorale in "St. Paul" ("To Thee, O Lord, I yield my spirit"), it was used in the funeral service for the Prince Consort. By a coincidence, which must seem more than fortunate to both author and publisher, the book appeared but a few days before the same chorale was again sung, this time, one might say, to a listening world, on the 26th of September last. "The ages come and go, but down through them all ring the notes of a plaintive song that has a subtile power over all hearts, that soothes and consoles, and for sweet melody and rich harmony has no rival in all the great compositions that have come, or may yet come after it, through all future time."

It is seldom in our day that a book appears so much after the model of Scott as 'A Prince of Breffny.' The old baronial hall, the fair maiden in her bower, the hero eager for adventure, the faithful retainers, even the priestly earl, are old friends. But if the story is after Scott, it is a long way after, for the episode in history which the author has chosen to illustrate, if not obscure, is at least too remote to awaken any keen interest in the mind of the reader, and the incidents are few and scantily told. There is much *said* about the O'Reilly, the Prince of Breffny, in whose courage and valor unbounded faith is asked, but with one exception, in the attack upon Charles III. at Madrid, he is never seen to do anything. As for the heroine, an author may well be arraigned for wanton waste of sympathy who at the four hundredth page drowns the lady for whom he has sought our admiration and affection, and within twenty more marries her lover to another. Mr. May has much to learn of Scott in quite another direction: Scott could draw low life with dignity. The hearty, the very homely, is not of necessity the coarse.

It is more than thirty years since Miss Warner first presented to the public her hero and heroine, the latter an impossible child, the former a young man of superlative accomplishments and conscious good manners. We will not renew here the question of good taste, or of the wisdom of putting into a child's head the idea that any kindly-disposed man may some day prove a lover. There is something to be said of another side of the stories. In the first the man converts (to use what would be Miss Warner's own phrase) the young girl; in the second the girl converts the young man. Under the given conditions, these are the only two situations possible, for that either side should resist would be an inconceivable category to that way of thinking. Still, Miss Warner has found modes of repeating the story through a long series of books of which 'The Letter of Credit' is the last. There is something painful in the steady deterioration of them. The first did contain not a little that was beautiful in pictures of village and country life, but each time the color has grown fainter and the outline balder, till there is nothing left of the charm which attracted many to the first books who could by no means approve the leading *motif* of them. Another result of this reiteration has been, that she long ago exhausted her resources for quotation from the Scriptures, and is obliged to seek strange verses and far-away interpretations to answer her purpose. It were well that the guardians of Sunday-school literature should mark this, for it is doing no reverence to the Bible to strain and twist it thus. The passages which have guided the human soul from darkness to light are not so very many. Miss Warner knew she could not use them over and over again for purposes of fiction. She did not see that therefore, instead of following these by-paths, so to speak, she should drop the story. Only genius could portray in succession the manifold experiences by which from the same source the most diverse need is met.

In the pause to take breath which must follow the perusal of 'Michael Strogoff,' the reader's first thought will be of wonder at the skill with which the writer keeps within the line that divides even the wildly improbable from the impossible. Jules Verne is a born story-teller, and he is fortunate to have fallen upon a time when, to the great mass of readers, a novel is nothing if it is not full of incident. This "voyage extraordinaire" has barely enough of a love story to pass it for a novel, but it has in it every other moving adventure of flood or fell. Moreover, there is something canny in the way in which the author, while entering a field which is at this moment among novelists a kind of preserve of mysteries and horrors, keeps himself clear of what he knows have been snares and pitfalls for the unwary, and employs only the incidents which are the common stock of the tales of adventure. The two newspaper correspondents who achieve the same perilous journey as "the Courier of the Czar" are, however, unique, and, on the whole, the haps and mishaps of these "two of the most distinguished products of modern civilization" are the most entertaining in the book. There is only local color enough to make the picture real, and it would not be amiss to add to it by looking up Gautier's sketches of the Volga, etc., which were not included in the admirable "Winter in Russia." It is very unusual to find so good a translation as this: it reads like an original. Not much can be said of the illustrations, numerous as they are. For some reason they are greatly inferior to the same pictures in the Hetzel edition.

A Sketch of Ancient Philosophy. By Joseph B. Mayor, M.A. Cambridge (Eng.) University Press. New York: Macmillan & Co. Pp. 254.

ABOUT half of all the instruction given last semester in philosophy in the German universities was strictly historical. The great change thus indicated in the method and spirit of philosophic study is caused mainly by the distrust of every individual system as such, and the growing conviction that, as Hegel said, though not in his sense, philosophy is now the history of philosophy. Instead of indoctrinating the student with the system of the instructor or his master—the only method yet known in far too many of our colleges—he is first of all taught the chief stages by which human consciousness became broadened, deepened, and elevated in the past, and is thus saved from provincialism in time. Not only are lessons of reverence and curiosity thus impressed which make the *nil admirari* spirit impossible, but the danger which springs from the limited range of present interests, and of wasting time over problems already clearly wrought out by thinkers of antiquity, is averted. The story of happiness, first naïvely conceived as sensuous pleasure, and gradually widening to high intellectual enjoyments, and culminating in the sacrifice of personal to public or social interests—or in pure altruism; or of virtue deepening from mere obedience to a few authoritative commands to spontaneous goodness; or of the first apperception of ideas by Socrates, their materialization and independent existence urged by Plato, the logical forms given them by Aristotle, and the quaint structures reared on them by Alexandrian mystics: the romance of substance, the only reality of Spinoza, fading into the unknowable in Locke, denied of matter by Berkeley, and of mind by Hume, till at last phenomenalism culminated in the *éclaircissement* and the French Revolution; —these are things that must for ever appeal to all that is most essential and formative in young men of an age liable to Wertherian crises, but capable of both the deepest insights and the strongest enthusiasms. In our age of transition, too, the choice for men of culture between nativism and empiricism, between phenomenalism and spiritual realism, which is so inevitable, either explicitly or implicitly, is perhaps the most important in its moral bearings of any made during college years. It is essential that it should be made early and in a wide horizon of facts, and *not* under the dominant influence of individual teachers, however revered. Within the last forty years the history of philosophy has been written not less than a score of times, and the consensus as to what is and what is not essential is mainly established. Why, then, is it excluded from our colleges?

This question is becoming more and more urgent. While most colleges are mediæval in the methods and field covered by this department, science is coming daily into closer quarters with purely psychological questions. Political studies centre more and more about what might be termed ethical philosophy. Education is realizing far and wide the need of a basis securely laid in the nature of human faculties and the order of their unfolding; and most of all, if it were but seen, religion itself, in its most cherished interests, needs the offices of a reverent but profoundly discriminating philosophy more than ever before since the Reformation. Yet it is hardly too much to say that, by the consent of almost all who are competent to judge, the very poorest teaching in our colleges is in this field, because here they still follow instead of lead public sentiment. Young men's minds are still sealed up against all future interest in the most vital questions. What passes for the *best* teaching is that which inoculates young minds with the "love of wisdom" in such a way that they may never feel it seriously later in life. They are brought safely to anchor instead of being led out into the open main, for which every seaworthy keel was made. To lead young men through college without "unsettling" the religious opinions of childhood is to leave them puerile in religious character and opinion; but it is an art which many professorlings of philosophy assiduously cultivate, because they dare not trust their pupils in the wide field of historical philosophy with accessible apparatus to follow up their interests fearlessly and freely.

The complaint has been that text-books were wanting. Ueberweg is too large, Schwegler too abstract, Zeller too detailed, etc. We have, however, in the work now before us a little sketch of ancient philosophy, from Thales to

Cicero, inclusive, which, though not perfect, is yet in many ways admirably adapted to introduce college classes to the study of historical philosophy. The author is Professor of Ethics at King's College, and has considered mainly—indeed, almost exclusively—the *ethical* teachings of Plato, Aristotle, the Stoics, and the rest. This is perhaps commendable, as matters now stand, although it is not the historical method. The author is Evangelical, and believes that Greek philosophy as well as Jewish law should be regarded as a schoolmaster to bring men to Christ. We hope this little book may find wide favor among those teachers of philosophy who still hesitate to adopt more fully the historical method. It is well written, and with abundant references.

Memorials of the Right Reverend Charles Pettit McIlvaine, D.D., D.C.L., late Bishop of Ohio, in the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States. Edited by the Rev. William Carus, M. A., Canon of Winchester Cathedral. New York: Thomas Whittaker, 1881.

It is not a little remarkable that the biography of a man who was so conspicuous in the Episcopal church of the United States, and so much venerated and beloved, should have waited so long for a biographer (Bishop McIlvaine died in 1873); but it is even more remarkable that when at length his biography appears it is not from the hand of a fellow-countryman, but is written by an English churchman, whose friendship for him was indeed of long standing and of the tenderest character, but whose acquaintance with him was confined almost entirely to a correspondence, generally of the most abstract nature, eked out with a few brief periods of immediate personal intercourse. It is true that Canon Carus has been entrusted with a few letters and journals of the late Bishop; but even with the help of these, in addition to his own letters from him, his 'Memorials' have throughout an air of great remoteness, and can in nowise be accepted as an adequate biography. Canon Carus is himself aware of this, and in his preface modestly indicates the relation of his book to some completer biography of Bishop McIlvaine, which he hopes will some day appear.

Bishop McIlvaine was, if we are not mistaken, a man of considerable organizing and administrative ability, but there is in these 'Memorials' no indication of the extent or nature of his work. The letters and journals are of a highly emotional and exclamatory character, without any literary charm. Current events are treated always sentimentally and never thoughtfully. It is to be presumed that the good Bishop was a man of some reading, but there is no reflection of it in these pages. 'Essays and Reviews,' and the remarkable letters of "Janus" on the Œcumenical Council, are well nigh the only contemporary works mentioned. Against the former, Bishop McIlvaine wrote a *pronunciamiento*, as he called it, for the Episcopal Convention. He belonged decidedly to the Evangelical party. Ritualism was his particular abomination: it was "Popery" thinly disguised. The old-fashioned character of his polemics is indicated by the fact that his word for Roman Catholicism is always "Popery." A good churchman, his sympathies were affected more profoundly by his dogmatic than by his ecclesiastical ideas. He wished to be on good terms with all believers in the atoning sacrifice of Christ. This doctrine was the heart of his heology, which was extremely simple and sincere. Luther's belief in a personal devil was not more concrete, and certain "buffetings of Satan" are set down with implicit faith in their reality, as also are certain providential escapes from physical danger. In all his personal and domestic relations Bishop McIlvaine figures in these pages as a man of singularly sweet and joyous disposition, much loving, much beloved. He died anticipating many serious changes in the religious world, and many of his prophecies have already been made good. The tendency of his church to substitute tradition for the Scriptures as the stronghold of its faith would have given him great anxiety if he had lived to see its latest phases, but the shrewdness which these manifest is evident to the ordinary observer.

Butterflies: Their Structure, Changes, and Life-Histories, with Special Reference to American Forms. Being an Application of the "Doctrine of Descent" to the Study of Butterflies. With an Appendix of Practical Instructions. By Samuel H. Scudder. Illustrated. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1881. 8vo, pp. 322.

It may be that the scientific standing of our author leads us to expect too much from his book. It certainly contains a great deal of important matter, much that is the outcome of his own observation, and more perhaps drawn from observers like Harris, Edwards, Burgess, and others. Yet the general effect is disappointing. Scientists will find the manual unsatisfactory in that it contains very little that is new, that the applications of the doctrines of descent are not made sufficiently clear, and that many of the author's peculiar ideas as to nomenclature, classification, etc., generally thought unworthy of adoption, are here repeated. The unscientific or popular reader, for whom no doubt the book was written, will find the style difficult, and many of the common names such as were never before heard of, some of them indeed being misnomers, as in case of the brown or black Limenites, which are grouped as "Purples." The meaning is often obscured by sentences of extraordinary length, that drag through the text like literary tapeworms. Grammatical puzzles occasionally obstruct the reader's way. The definition of a caterpillar (p. 33), though not one of the longest sentences, will serve as a fair illustration:

"A caterpillar, then, is a cylindrical jointed creature, having several of the front segments consolidated to form a horny head, with numerous mouth-parts, eyes, and antennæ all crowded together at the bottom; three other segments succeeding it bearing horny legs; and most of the remainder supported by fleshy legs furnished with microscopic hooks; all the body segments are furnished with special appendages, which, during some stage of its development, are arranged in definite series."

The following, from p. 235, will show at once a peculiarity of logic, running through sentences and chapters, and the uncertain condition of the author's belief as to origin and development:

"That each of these forces [physical agencies and natural selection] has borne its part in the work there can, I think, be little doubt; but in a case like this, where we find beauty of the most exquisite and refined character in creatures of an inherently low organization, I can only express a deep-seated conviction that a preordaining purpose and plan governs these proximate causes, and that beneath both structure and beauty we may discern far-reaching and controlling thought."

Only in cases like this? Reasoning similarly, one might say: A result of the author's education is that he recognizes certain phenomena as beautiful; these phenomena appear in creatures of inherently low organization; therefore they are evidence of a preordaining purpose and plan—which is hardly conclusive. Huxley's 'Crayfish' seems to have served Mr. Scudder as a model, without being approached in clearness, vigor, or exhaustiveness. Considerable space is given to suppositious ancestry, with the result of leaving the condition of our knowledge on the subject of descent about as it was. In many respects the work is, for its pretensions, behind the times. Thus, it ought to have contained some mention of the work of Weissmann (1875) on season dimorphism, ornamentation, etc. Such statements as (p. 10) that "very little is known of the changes undergone by the yolk and surrounding parts, and of the formation of the embryonic caterpillar," were good enough ten years ago. They are now best met by reference to the works of Hatschek, Ludwig, and others, which surely cannot have escaped the author's notice. We have only a very superannuated account of the venation. "At the base of the anterior margin of the fore-wing is a horny scale such as occurs in many other insects" (p. 73). This should have been substantiated by references. These patagiæ are generally supposed by entomologists to be without known relation or representation in other insects, and the mere assertion is not convincing. Speaking of the Heliconii (p. 70), we are told: "This is the one group of butterflies in whose wings we find large patches of membrane devoid of scales." Our author had forgotten that in the Satyridæ, and occasionally in the Papilionidæ, we find the same. We wish he had given the localities for the crowds of *P. philenor* which (p. 121) appear in spring upon the New England landscape. The records show that the species was first seen long ago by Harris, in the Botanical Garden; in the fall of 1880 it was seen again. Except on the most southern borders of New England, a few isolated specimens only have been recorded in the intervening time. "As we go north, the colors become less sharply defined, then gradually fade away or become blended with surrounding tints; the red first disappears," etc. (p. 161). It is best for the theory to say nothing of the splendid red spots of the Parnassius, ranging northward to the Yukon and to 13,000 feet of altitude. Notwithstanding the fact that the foundation for his remarkable story of Brenthis and its overlapping generations (*Amer. Nat.*, Sept., 1872) was completely demolished by the results of the researches of Mr. W. H. Edwards (*Can. Ent.*, 1875–77), it is revived here as if the author thought it a pity to allow so good a story to be spoiled. The information said (p. 149) to be lacking in Mr. Edwards's publication will be found there on a more careful reading. The European species, *P. podalirius*, is not confined to the Mediterranean region, as alleged on page 154, but ranges as far north as 55°; it is not to be compared with *P. Ajax*, which is a strictly southern species. Mr. Edwards discovered that the brown race of *C. pseudargiolus* is the male, and not the female, as was commonly believed—a fact which should have been credited to him. Serious impediments in the way of the student are to be found in vernacular names of the author's coinage, and in scientific designations from a still-born nomenclature, almost unknown to scientists, that has already been sufficiently characterized by Peabody, Edwards, and others.

Fifty of the illustrations are from Harris. As may be seen by comparison, they have suffered much in electrotyping. Thirteen have fore-legs which do not belong to them (84, 89, 118, 120, 121, 129, 130, 131, 140, 141, 143, 144, 192). In the preface to Harris's work this was said to be due to the exposure of the second pair of legs, the first being rudimentary. This excuse did not apply in case of the side view (130), in which "the fore-foot should have been omitted." Our author repeats the mistakes, but does not correct them. One-third of the work treats of anatomy, external and internal; it contains nothing new. Another third is devoted to color, ornamentation, etc., and was intended to be the most important; but the exuberant phraseology

and verbose diffuseness make it difficult to follow the thought or to determine the nucleus of the ideas. The remarks in this portion relate principally to the author's own careful observations of New England lepidoptera, which are good as far as they go. In the absence of a basis—a knowledge of the force or power which originates color and ornamentation—they amount to a careful tabulation of external characters, which might or might not be intimately connected with the animal itself. The question of descent is left about where it was taken up. The portion with which the least fault is to be found is the first Appendix, which is full of excellent advice to beginners.

Buddha and Early Buddhism. By Arthur Lillie. London: Trübner & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1881.

THIS is an ingenious though a dangerous book. There are some good points made in it, but on the other hand the errors are many and misleading. Why does the author begin with such certainty—"Five hundred and sixty years before Christ a religious reformer appeared in Bengal, Buddha"? In the first place, every one ought to know nowadays that the date of Buddha's "appearance" is not so proved as the author asserts. The probability is leaning towards a much later date than 560 B.C.; probably the year 360 B.C. would meet the case on evidence now forthcoming. Then, again, the appearance of Buddha in "Bengal" is rather misleading. Bengal, indeed, is a large Presidency, and may possibly include the almost unknown region of Kapilavastu; but the statement is a loose one.

On the other hand, there are some happy allusions in this book. We are glad, for instance, to find so clear an account of the symbolism of Buddhism, especially the Catacomb symbolism. The descending dove (plate ii., fig. 1) is a real gain for Buddhist archæology. Very probably this is a Christian adaptation of the trisul, and it is perfectly in accordance with the evangelist's narrative (Luke ii., 23) that the dove "*rested* upon Him." Supposing that the origin of the trisul is to be found in the three rays of the rising sun (the dawn), then it will be easy to understand why these doves are sometimes drawn on the *shoulders* of saints, as, *e.g.*, in the case of Elisha (Lincoln College, Oxford)—(Mrs. Twining's 'Symbols,' p. 64, pl. xxxi.); and so Gregory Nyssen relates that when Basil the Great was preaching, Ephraim saw on his *right shoulder* a white dove. So, also, Augustine and Aquinas are drawn with white doves *on their shoulders*. Now this will be understood at once if we compare with it the account of Zohák with a snake on each shoulder, and the old coins of the Kadphises group which represent a flame on each *shoulder* of the reigning monarch. This flame is sometimes drawn as a nosegay of flowers (borrowed, probably, from the story of Dipañkara), but in all cases the symbolism may be traced back to the three rays, two on each side of the orb of the sun, representing his shoulders; the other (the one on the top of his head) preserved to us under the form of the ekas'ringa or unicorn, and also in the horn of the Burmese Buddha.

Mr. Lillie has gathered his information from so many sources that his pages are confusing. It is not easy to draw the line distinctly when such authorities as the "Asoka inscriptions," the 'Lalita Vistara,' and the 'Mahawanso' are brought into immediate connection. But surely Mr. Lillie is wrong in taking the 'Lalita Vistara' as the "oldest life of Buddha." What would the late Mr. Childers have said to this? Indeed, it is plain that such cannot be the case. The 'Lalita Vistara' is one of the last of the expanded Sûtras, and must take its place very late in the Buddhist development. Then, again, the puzzling question of Buddhist early intercourse with America is discussed, as though it were yet an open one. Surely Mr. Lillie would not contend that Buddhist missionaries ever found their way to Mexico *via* Behring's Straits and Alaska. If so, we give it up.

But to be serious. The examination of Buddhist literature must be undertaken with some knowledge, at least, of the widely diverging schools of that religion; and the enquiry must be patiently pursued on one line to a fixed end. It is impossible to settle everything in books of this sort. We must be content to find out bit by bit; and every one who adds one item of truth to the stock of knowledge (little enough) that we possess will deserve thanks. Mr. Lillie has done some service in his enquiries on the symbolism of the Buddhist Church compared with that of the Catacombs. Beyond this his book is a jumble of disconnected essays.

Report on the Geology and Resources of the Black Hills of Dakota. By Henry Newton, E. M., and Walter P. Jenney, E. M. With atlas. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1880.

THE fieldwork upon which this report is based was executed in the summer and autumn of 1875, under the authority of the Bureau of Indian Affairs. Several causes have conspired to delay its publication until the present time. In the first place, it was discovered, when too late, that there was no law authorizing such a survey, and no funds from which its expenses could be met. This was subsequently remedied by legislation, but not until it had caused considerable delay. The death of Mr. Newton, which occurred in 1877, before the completion of his report, caused a second and serious delay. The work was finally taken up by Mr. G. K. Gilbert, of the Geological Survey, and pushed as rapidly as possible to completion. The publication has been made under the auspices of Major Powell's Survey of the Rocky Mountain Region, and Mr. Gilbert's name appears as *editor* only, although his share of the work consisted of much more than merely editorial duties. The first half of the volume is devoted to the structural geology of the Hills. Following this is a reprint of Mr. Jenney's preliminary report on the economic geology and other industrial resources of the region, first published in 1876. The last part of the book consists of a report on the palæontology of the region, by R. P. Whitfield, and a brief report on the astronomical and hypsometric work.

As is well known, the Black Hills are of a roughly elliptical shape, the longer axis trending somewhat west of north and east of south. They have a length of somewhat more than 100 miles, with a maximum breadth of about 50 miles. The area covered by them is about 5,000 square miles, or a little more than the area of Connecticut. The opening sheet of the atlas, a bird's-eye view of the Hills, tells the whole story of their physical conformation in a peculiarly graphic manner. Just to the east of the middle of this mountain mass is a large area of rugged mountains and hills without any apparent system, further than that all the streams appear to flow off radially. Around it is a continuous cliff, facing towards it, so that it is in a manner shut in. This interior region is made up of Archean rocks, the core of the uplift, while the cliff is of carboniferous limestone. On the east these beds have considerable inclination, which carries them at once below the surface. On the west, on the other hand, they have a very gentle dip, and form a plateau instead of a ridge. At the further edge of this plateau, west, north, and south, the dip of the beds suddenly increases, carrying them down below the surface. The level of this plateau is, with the exception of a few igneous peaks, the highest land in the Hills. It is evident that these carboniferous beds originally extended over the whole region, and that they have been removed from the eastern area by denudation, which has also carved the Archean rocks into their present orographic forms.

Outside of the carboniferous, and completely encircling it, is the "Red Valley," marking the outcrop of the soft clays of the Red Bed and Jurassic formations. This valley, which extends completely around the Hills, forming an annular ellipse, is a very marked and peculiar topographical feature. Outside of it is an equally continuous encircling ridge or hogback, broken only by the gorges of the streams which drain the interior of the hills. This ridge, popularly known as the "foothills," is formed of the hard Dakota sandstones. This, and the soft beds beneath it, are conformable to each other and to the carboniferous beds, and dip in the same direction, so that the foothills consist everywhere of a monoclinal ridge, dipping away from the Hills and towards the Plains. Outside the "foothills" are a number of small monoclinal ridges, less persistent, but agreeing with them in dipping away from the mountain mass, though at a lower angle. These ridges are of the Upper Cretaceous series. Originally, all these beds of the Cretaceous, Red Bed, and Jurassic formations overlaid the whole area of the Black Hills, and formed the upper layers of the great dome which was the result of the uplifting process, though they were eroded more or less during the process of upheaval.

The original shape of the uplift, supposing that no erosion took place during the process of upheaval (which was, of course, very slow), was that of a nearly flat-topped ovoid. The descent from the tabular summit was steeper on the east and west than on the north and south. On the north, or, more definitely, the northwest, the axis of elevation is prolonged in a low, flat-topped table for fully forty miles beyond the range proper. The maximum height of the uplift, before erosion, was 6,600 feet above its base. The solid contents of the restored mass of uplift are no less than 4,200 cubic miles. Besides the main uplift of the range, there are numerous local volcanic disturbances, catastrophic in character. These, although producing mountains of considerable elevation, are of small comparative importance. As to the geological age of the Hills, Mr. Newton shows from the stratigraphy that the uplift took place between the Cretaceous and the Miocene Tertiary periods. A study of the drainage systems enables him to go still further, and show that the Hills began to rise before the desiccation which succeeded the Cretaceous; that the form of the uplift was changed during its progress, the line of greatest elevation shifting from the western to the eastern portion; and that the flanks were so far buried by Miocene sediments that a new river system (that now in existence) was superimposed when the lake was finally drained.

The volume is well illustrated by lithographs, diagrams, and geological sections. The atlas contains, besides the graphic bird's-eye view referred to, a topographical and a geological map of the Hills, on a scale of four miles to an inch.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, W. T. Our Little Ones. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1 50.
Allen, Prof. W. F. Tacitus's Life of Agricola and Germany. Boston: Ginn & Heath. $1 15.
Arnold, M. Poetry of Byron. New York: Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
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Bartlett, J. The Shakespeare Phrase-Book. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $3.
Beljame, Prof. A. Le Public et les Hommes de Lettres en Angleterre, 1660-1744. Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern.
Bergen, T. G. Register of the Early Settlers of Kings Co., Long Island, N. Y. Bay Ridge, N. Y.: Van Brunt Bergen. $3.
Blunders of a Bashful Man. New York: J. S. Ogilvie & Co. 25 cents.
Boyesen, Prof. H. H. Queen Titania: a Tale. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.
Brennor, O. Speculum Regale: Ein altnorwegischer Dialog. München: Christian Kaiser; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Brine, Mary D. Grandma's Attic Treasures. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.
Butterfield, C. W. History of the Discovery of the Northwest. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $1.
Carrington, Col. H. B. Battle Maps and Charts of the American Revolution. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. $1 25.
Carus, Rev. W. Memorials of the Late Bishop Charles Pettit McIlvaine. New York: T. Whittaker. $3.
Cassell's Book of Sports and Pastimes. New York: Cassell & Co. $3.
Chadwick, Rev. J. W. The Man Jesus. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Chadwick, E., and Boardman, J. Reports on the Estate of Sir Andrew Chadwick. New York: Chas. L. Woodward.
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Cooke, C. W. Life, Writings, and Philosophy of Emerson. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $2.
Cox, Sir G. W. Introduction to the Science of Comparative Mythology and Folklore. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1 75.
De Rupert, A. E. D. Californians and Mormons. New York: J. W. Lovell.
Douglass, Edith. We, Von Arldens. Chicago: Henry A. Sumner & Co.
Draper, L. C. King's Mountain and its Heroes. Cincinnati: Peter G. Thomson. $4.
Dros, G. Bertha's Baby. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1.
Dulles, Rev. J. W. The Ride through Palestine. Philadelphia: Presbyterian Board of Publication.
Ebers, Prof. G. Egypt. Parts 16-20. New York: Cassell & Co. 75 cents each.
Edwards, M. F. Illustrated Red Riding Hood. New York: Nelson & Sons. 75 cents.
Emerson, W. A. Hand-Book of Wood Engraving. 2d ed. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Ewing, Mrs. J. H. Mrs. Overtheway's Remembrances. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 25.
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Littell's Living Age, July-Sept., 1881. Boston: Littell & Co.
Livermore, R. P. Trustees' Hand-book. New York: L. K. Strouse & Co.
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C F Bickford 27 Feb 82

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The Farmers' Loan and Trust Company, Trustee,
By R. G. ROLSTON, President.
NEW YORK, October 15, 1881.

OREGON RAILWAY & NAVI-
GATION COMPANY,
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 3, 1881.

The Week.

THE Senate adjourned on Saturday without confirming Mr. Statham as Postmaster at Lynchburg. Senator Ferry, as chairman of the Committee on Post-offices and Post-roads, was instructed by the Republican caucus on Saturday morning to consult Senator Mahone and invite him to join in a request to the President to recall the nomination. The President, on being asked, refused to do so. This being reported to the Senate, the Republicans succeeded in getting the consideration of the matter passed over, after which an adjournment was carried. It was understood that the President would thereupon immediately appoint Statham. The struggle will therefore have to be renewed in December. The Democrats claim the postponement as a victory, on the ground that though the Administration promise the Readjusters all the patronage in Virginia, they cannot "deliver the goods." Moreover, Senator Hill seized the opportunity of denouncing by resolution the practice of making appointments in the Federal civil service for the purpose of influencing State elections as "dangerous to the perpetuity of our institutions."

The New York *Times* denounces the opposition of the Democrats to Statham's nomination on civil-service reform grounds, and particularly rebukes Senator Hill's protest as hypocritical, inasmuch as the Democrats have been, are, and would be again guilty of using Federal appointments to influence State elections. This may be true—it probably is true; but even if it be true, it does not make the practice any the less objectionable. It was right for President Arthur to dismiss Wilson because he was a defaulter, but it was not right to choose his successor for any other reason than the good of the service. It was an abuse of the appointing power to select him with a view of helping Mahone or any other man to win the State election. The knowledge that he owed his appointment to such a consideration would surely have demoralized Statham and all his subordinates, and set a bad example to every other postmaster in the country. So that whatever the motives of the Democrats in resisting the confirmation—and we do not rate them highly—it is not to be regretted that the Virginians of both parties should see that such arrangements cannot be carried out, and should hear, from some source, that they are injurious to the public service. Let Statham be appointed, if he be the best man for that office, but let him be appointed with the clear understanding that the sole duty of his office is to sort, deliver, and forward letters, cash and issue money orders, and render just and true accounts.

As to the hypocrisy of the Democrats, we are willing that any use should be made of it except one: it ought not to serve as an excuse for Republican reluctance to reform. The more wicked and corrupt the Democrats are, the more needful it is that the Republicans should be good and pure. They say themselves that the Democrats will never set them a good example, and if this be true and they wait for it, the plea so often heard that the Democrats are just as bad has about as much force as the plea that Satan keeps tempting people. No church would listen for one moment to a backslider who said he was going to mend his ways as soon as Satan left off seducing him, but not sooner. One party or other must begin the work of administering the Government on business principles, and the duty undoubtedly falls to the party in power. It may be hard to do it, and may cost salt tears to many a politician, but in our time power brings disagreeable tasks as well as pleasant opportunities.

Judge Folger's appointment as Secretary of the Treasury has been received with general favor as the best thing to be done in view of the failure to secure Mr. Morgan, and as that of a man of integrity and general capacity for affairs. These are the qualifications chiefly needed in the office now, and there is no reason to doubt that he will discharge its duties with credit. As a judge of the Court of Appeals he has enjoyed a good though not a brilliant reputation. In the Legislature he was considered an excellent parliamentarian. There is no obvious connection between all this and his present position, but his appointment is a safe one, and an honest and conservative view of all legal questions which may arise in the Department may be expected of him. There are no great financial problems for him to solve, and if he administers the Treasury with a single eye to the honest collection and disbursement of the revenue, he will satisfy everybody. His views about patronage are, we presume, those of a Stalwart; but the actual administration of the affairs of a Government bureau may convert him, as they were said to have converted Mr. Windom.

Ex-Secretary Windom has during his brief administration of the Treasury Department not only achieved some remarkable financial successes, but he has also turned his experience in the management of a large branch of the civil service to good account. The conclusions he has reached as to methods of appointment are in the main eminently sound, and it is greatly to Mr. Windom's credit that he frankly expresses his changed opinions upon that subject. The plan advocated by him is this: To allot to the States respectively, as the existing law governing appointments in the Treasury Department requires, the number of appointments to which they would be severally entitled in that department; then to appoint a carefully selected committee of three in each State, whose duty it should be to meet once a year at some convenient place in the State, and before whom any one desiring to enter the Government service should have the right to present himself or herself for examination—such examination to be practical, and to relate to the character, experience, and capacity of the applicant, and to the duties of the position to which appointment is desired. The committee should prepare a list, graduated according to merit, of those who pass the examination, and send the papers to the head of the Department at Washington. From this examination, Mr. Windom believes, persons should be selected from those highest on the list, and only be sent for when the State of which they are residents is entitled to appointments. This is the application of the system of competitive examinations, as it has been for some time in force in the Custom-House, to the Treasury Department. It is equally applicable to all the executive departments of the Government. The feature of the pro-rata allotment of appointments to the several States is not an essential, and might under certain circumstances become an embarrassing one. The Government should always be enabled to avail itself for its service of the best capacity the country affords, wherever it may be found. The examination of candidates at convenient places in the different States by commissions appointed for that purpose, or by sub-committees of a general civil-service commission, would be sufficient to give the people of all the States and of every part of the country an even chance. The most essential feature of the plan is that the examinations be open to general competition, and that appointments be made from those highest in the order of merit as shown by the examinations. It is pleasant to learn that Mr. Windom discussed this plan with President Garfield shortly before the fatal second of July, and that the President regarded it with much favor.

About $1,500,000 foreign specie arrived during the week, but the rate for foreign exchange advanced at the close, so that there was no profit in importing gold. In our foreign trade, exports continue to fall off while imports increase. During the last month reported (September) the imports of the whole country were $2,400,000 above those of a year ago, while the exports were $8,800,000 less. The New York banks have strengthened their position by a further contraction of credits and by a gain of $2,700,000 in specie, so that on the average for the week they held about $4,700,000 more reserve than the law requires. The general trade of the country continues large and profitable. Early in the week the trunk lines advanced east-bound freight rates, the first move having been made by the Pennsylvania and the Baltimore and Ohio roads. Towards the close of the week another advance took place, each company acting for itself, and without reference to the points of contention which caused the war last summer. At the Stock Exchange the speculation resulted in higher prices until Monday, when it was announced that the Mechanics' National Bank of Newark had stopped payment, having been robbed by its cashier of about $2,600,000.

This news unsettled confidence and caused lower prices.

The Newark bank failure has really only one lesson, and that is the small impression produced by lessons on the financial mind. We believe it would be impossible to point to a case of bank failure through the fraud of an officer, during the last twenty years, in which the conditions of the fraud differed in any but the slightest degree from those of this last catastrophe. In the first place the bank has to be long established, very prosperous, with large deposits, and has to pay high dividends. These things of course avert suspicion and inquiry, and keep the balances large. Then there has to be a board of wealthy directors, who feel honored by directing the bank, and whose names confirm the public confidence in it. In this country such men are almost always very busy with their own affairs, or have retired from business owing to age and infirmity. In either case they are prevented from giving any attention to the affairs of the bank. In fact, the very qualities which make them the proper persons to superintend its operations give them something else to do, as long as their vigor lasts. Somebody, however, must have the active management of the concern, and this brings on the scene a personage who is now almost as familiar a figure in the field of American finance as the heavy father, or walking gentleman, or double-dyed villain in the theatre. He is a cashier, or sometimes a president, who entered the bank as a poor boy and gradually, by diligence, industry, and faithful attention to business, worked his way up, until the directors got into the way of leaving everything in his hands, and the older ones of regarding him as a son. He is always, too, a man of correct deportment, generally an active church member, and lives quietly. He seldom or never indulges in any display, and furnishes the local fathers with a model for their lazy children. In nine cases out of ten he really is a good fellow, and under ordinary circumstances would end his life blamelessly. But he has not got along very far before he finds himself released from the checks and restraints which the experience of all ages and nations has shown to be necessary for those who have the handling of other people's money. In other words, he finds himself exposed to temptations to which no one ought to expose another man's character and to which no wise man will expose his own. He finds vast sums practically within his exclusive control. He finds that his figures are not examined to discover whether they tally with the facts, and that in many important matters his mere word is taken in lieu of figures, and this in a country where fortunes are made every day by lucky strokes on the Stock Exchange. He finds, too, as in the case before us, that the Government Bank Examiner takes a great deal for granted in the case of a prosperous institution, or, in other words, assumes that the managers of such an institution will not attempt any great fraud.

In the present instance Baldwin, the cashier, has apparently been able to deceive the Examiner for a long series of years as to the amount the bank had lying to its credit at its correspondent's in New York, and only last year he was able to deceive him again by delivering to him with his own hands a forged letter from the person to whom the Examiner had written for a verification of his accounts. So that there is really nothing to be said about the affair except that prosperous as well as shaky institutions have to be managed with the usual business precautions. Any depositor or stockholder who is satisfied if the directors are men of high standing, and does not enquire or know whether they give any personal attention to the affairs of the bank, or whether they leave them to some one person who has grown up under their eye, and in whom "they place the utmost confidence," must when these crashes come bear up like a man, and pocket his losses. He must not seem "quite broken down," or thunderstruck, or run about wildly enquiring how it happened. He knows well enough how it happened, or if curious in such matters, may find most of the details in any old newspaper file.

Mr. Samuel Morley, member of Parliament for Bristol, whom a telegraphic despatch somewhat effusively describes as "one of the greatest philanthropists in the world," has been talking sound economic sense in a place where such talk is conspicuously needed—in the city of Philadelphia. "The marvel to me is," he says, "how your population consents to be so taxed in their daily expenditures as must be the result of your tariff system." "I should hope," he adds, "that some modification of your tariff might be secured"; and further: "I have seen enough to satisfy me that many of your manufactures do not need protection in competition with England." If Mr. Morley can convince the Pennsylvanians that the coddling period of our national life has passed, or ought to have passed, and that the period of large and liberal competition of this country with others should begin, he will accomplish a benevolent work surpassing in importance all the generous deeds which have promoted his wide reputation as a philanthropist.

The news that the identity of the brigand Randazzo has been established is very satisfactory, but it has no bearing whatever on the objections raised by his counsel to the manner in which he was extradited. It is absolutely necessary, unless we are willing that our administration of justice in such cases should fall into general contempt, to have the matter thoroughly sifted at Washington. The arrest made in New Orleans by Mooney, the detective, is perhaps the most peculiar feature of the proceeding. There has recently been published an "opinion" by the District Attorney at New Orleans, informing him that the warrant gave him full authority to make the arrest. Now, what we want to know is whether this is the law or not. Can a United States Commissioner sitting in New York authorize anybody he pleases, without deputizing him as an officer, to arrest any one in any part of the United States who may be accused of an extradition crime? If he can, it is a great outrage, and the law ought to be changed at once, for the simple reason that it violates the elementary principle that arrests must not be made by persons who are not able to compensate the person arrested for any wrong they may commit. Mooney may, for aught we know, be a responsible man; but if he may go about the United States making arrests in this way, any tramp may be sent off on a kidnapping expedition of the same kind. And in cases of doubtful identity it will generally be much easier and more convenient for the extraditing Government to have the man kidnapped by a tramp than arrested by a responsible officer.

The First Comptroller of the Treasury has decided that Guiteau's witnesses cannot be paid by the Government if they reside more than a hundred miles from the District. The effect of this might be practically to cut Guiteau off from his chief ground of defence, and the difficulty can hardly be got over by a change of venue, for the witnesses probably do not reside in any one judicial district or circuit, but are scattered all over the country. On Wednesday his counsel applied for more time to prepare for trial, and were given until November 14; the judge taking occasion to modify his extraordinary decision that the question of jurisdiction must be argued in advance of the trial, by saying that he only meant that he should like this course to be taken. Mr. Corkhill will be assisted on the trial by Judge Porter of this city, which is an assurance that the case will be thoroughly tried. The views of the District Attorney as to the nature of the issue presented to the court seem, to judge by his argument against the postponement, to be somewhat confused. He declared that "what the people were waiting for was not that this man should be found insane," but that "a sane man who assassinated the President should promptly expiate that crime." On the contrary, what the people are waiting for is a fair trial; and if they were not, it would make no difference so far as Mr. Corkhill is concerned. If he will confine himself to doing his utmost to secure a conviction and not trouble himself about "the people" or what they are waiting for, he will be doing his whole duty.

Sitting Bull's last account of himself and his plans, if true, shows that he gets more satisfaction from introspection than most white men. He says, for instance, what very few Caucasians can say, that "he has always had a reason for everything he has done," and that "every act of his life has had an object in view," and that "no man can say he has neglected to think"—a charge which is brought with great success against white men nearly every day. He makes one other assertion which very few of us would venture on, viz., that "if he had no place in the world he would not be here," and that "the fact of his existence entitles him to the exercise of whatever influence he possesses." With us the fact of existence gives of itself so little influence that we never hear of any disputes over attempts to exercise it. Nor is every one satisfied, as Sitting Bull is, "that he was created for a purpose." In fact, great numbers of men are puzzled to know what they were made for, and so are their friends. The precise object of the creation of Democrats, for instance,

is a question which vexes the mind of a great many old-fashioned Republicans. Passing from the discussion of his *raison d'être*, however, to more practical themes, Bull announces his intention to get his Sioux to settle down to farming, and that he is in great haste to see the new President so as to make the necessary arrangements.

Mr. Randall, the late Speaker, was the principal orator at a meeting of the County Democrats on Thursday night to ratify their nominations and the platform of the County Convention, and as he confined himself to Federal questions, we turned to his speech for the latest statement of Democratic doctrine on the more pressing topics of the day. The thing for which he claimed most credit for the Democrats was their gallant struggle in the Forty-sixth Congress for refunding at three per cent. During the whole of this struggle the Republicans, he said, were fighting bitterly for three and a half per cent., and, in order to support themselves, decried the public credit, and said we could not borrow at three and a half. The Democrats, on the other hand, were upholding the honor of the flag by maintaining that our credit was as good as that of England, because our debt was likely soon to be paid, while that of England would never be paid. But then Mr. Randall overlooks the fact that the money market does not see the matter in exactly the same light as the gallant Democracy. The certainty that the interest on a public loan will be punctually paid being equally strong, the credit, measured in the rate of interest, of a country which is not likely to pay off the principal, or not likely to pay it off soon, always stands higher than that of a country which is sure to pay it before long. This may seem funny to the Congressional Democrats, but it is true. The interest charges of the United States are actually made higher by the strong prospect that it will soon be out of debt, and for precisely the same reason that a long Government bond is easier to float than a short one. The people who lend to great states do not feel the sort of desire for short reckonings which is felt by the landlords of Democratic halls and taverns.

We looked in Mr. Randall's speech with some eagerness, also, for an account of the Democratic attitude towards the tariff, and especially "the tariff for revenue only," which the party demanded in the last Presidential canvass. We were rather surprised, therefore, to find him proposing the abolition of all internal-revenue taxes. Foreseeing that the audience would say that this would make it necessary to keep up "a high protective tariff," the only answer he had to make was that "this was a tender subject for a Pennsylvanian to touch," and that "they ought not to be so much against Pennsylvania because she manufactured," because New York "manufactured more than Pennsylvania"; that "there ought not to be any clashing," and "that we have one great motive power behind us, the agricultural interest." "For these reasons," said he, "I believe we should have a three per cent. rate of interest, should revise the tariff, abolish internal-revenue taxes, and the whole machine go along as smoothly as can be." We have failed for our part to extract from this Mr. Randall's opinions or those of the party about protection. He seems to us to be about as clear in his ideas about the tariff as General Hancock was, but not more so, when *Harper's Weekly* made him ask, "Who is Tariff, and why is he for revenue only?" Who is Tariff? we ask Mr. Randall. Why is he "a tender subject for a Pennsylvanian?" Why, if New York manufactures more than Pennsylvania, should we "not be so much against Pennsylvania?" Why should we not "clash?" And whither is "the great motive power behind us" pushing us?

Our prediction that the "no-rent" programme of the Irish Land League would prove a failure has been fully realized. The farmers in all directions are paying their rent, some even paying who have held out for two years. Moreover, the flood of applications to the Land Courts for readjustment—amounting, it is said, already to 30,000 — shows beyond question that all who can pay mean to pay hereafter. The Land League, too, has not only had to abandon the plan of submitting test cases, but is as a power capable of securing widespread obedience, practically extinct. When Parnell and the chiefs get out of jail, they will find their occupation gone and a new régime established. Archbishop McCabe of Dublin has delivered a terrible philippic against the anti-rent manifesto, as a direct attack on property by men most of whom have none. He has not nearly as much influence with the people as Archbishop Croke, but on this point both are agreed. In fact, a more shameless proposal has not in our time been submitted to a civilized people, and it will be a relief to every one who cares for the good name of the Irish race to find that it has fallen flat. Professor Goldwin Smith, in an article in the *Pall Mall Gazette* on the condition of Ireland, which he thoroughly understands—something which unhappily can only be said of few Englishmen—calls once more for some large measure of local self-government as the only way of putting an end to Irish political discontent. As Irish affairs are now administered, much of this discontent is reasonable. The large body of writers, both English and foreign, who free their minds about Ireland every now and then, and say it is not reasonable, are almost all grossly ignorant of the Irish legislative needs, and of the way in which they are and have to be met in the House of Commons. These philosophers are consequently about as well worth listening to as Parnell or Egan. It ought to be understood that the fact of a man's having had his dinner spoiled by an Irish cook does not qualify him to lecture on Irish history.

The order of the League to pay no rent naturally suggested the enquiry whether they intended this to operate as a permanent abolition of rent, and, in fact, of all letting of land, because, if so, it would of course greatly diminish the value of the land bought or stolen by the present tenants. Egan, the secretary, we believe, of the organization, was therefore questioned on this point, and he admitted that such was the true construction of the proclamation. No more land was to be held hereafter in any one person's hands than he could cultivate. Anything over or above this he was to be compelled to sell. That a small collection of needy young men should have seriously supposed themselves capable, by mere proclamation, of effecting a change of this magnitude in the distribution of property in a community of five millions, shows how much of the worst folly of the Paris Communists there is latent everywhere and ready to show itself, whenever any loosening of the social bond gives the shiftless and reckless, and irrational a chance to come to the front and be heard. It suggests, too, a doubt whether many of Mr. Forster's prisoners would not be more appropriately lodged in the lunatic asylum than in Kilmainham jail.

The firmness of Mr. Gladstone's language about the Boers in his Leeds speeches, coupled with the forward movement of the troops, seems to have brought the Volksraad to reason, and it has ratified the Convention, while preparing to avail itself of Mr. Gladstone's promise that some modifications might still be made in it, to adapt it to Boer prejudices. On the one point, however, in which the Boers are most sensitive—their relations to the natives—no concession is likely to be made. The British Government will not relinquish its right to protect the natives both against Boer laws and lawlessness. The Boer farmers live by the Old Testament, and still hold firmly to the old view of the "curse on Ham," which used to do such good service in the slavery days at the South. They also consider themselves as the chosen people, and the Zulus and Caffres as Canaanites, Hittites, Hivites, and the like, so that the colored man has really no chance with them. If he objects to be smitten as a descendant of Ham, they smite him as a person holding the soil unlawfully against a divinely-appointed conqueror and annexationist.

In the Leeds speeches, which appear to have shown as much power as any he ever made, Mr. Gladstone appeared in a new character—that of a magistrate who did not mean to bear the sword in vain. His oratory has usually hitherto been of the expository and argumentative sort, but he has now shown that he can menace and wave the flag even more successfully than Beaconsfield or Salisbury. His threats against Parnell and the Leaguers, and against the Boers, had a volume and weight, and even a mystery, which it is in our day seldom possible to give a threat, and have been in the highest degree successful. His promise to use "the resources of civilization" against them have set the Leaguers nearly wild, because they apparently believe that he was alluding to some kind of shell, or torpedo, or electrical machine. What he did mean was, undoubtedly, simply the organized force of a civilized community which has found that the courts and police are not sufficient to stop murder and robbery. Mr. Chamberlain has made the somewhat indiscreet confession, however, that without the Land League the Government could not have procured the passage of the Land Act last winter—a striking illustration, if true, of "the moral uses of dark things."

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS

DOMESTIC.

In his letter to President Arthur declining the Secretaryship of the Treasury, Mr. Morgan said that his physicians had advised him, on account of his age and poor health, not to accept. On Thursday the President nominated Judge Charles J. Folger of New York to be Secretary of the Treasury and Mr. James to succeed himself as Postmaster-General. Both nominations were promptly confirmed by the Senate. The business men throughout the country seem generally to approve of the appointment of Judge Folger. Great "pressure" has been brought to bear upon Mr. MacVeagh by the President and his friends to persuade him to remain in the Cabinet until the completion of the Star-route prosecutions. Mr. MacVeagh has, however, absolutely refused. He says that the prosecution is in the hands of lawyers of eminent ability, and that his supervision will be entirely unnecessary to secure its successful termination.

It is stated that Mr. Blaine will probably not remain in the Cabinet after the 1st of December. If he does remain beyond that time, it will be in compliance with the President's wish that he should continue in office until his successor is selected.

The special session of the Senate ended on Saturday. The last few days of the session were occupied with a struggle between the Republicans and Democrats over the appointment of Mr. Statham to the post-office at Lynchburg, Va., in the place of the present incumbent, Wilson, who is a defaulter. The Democrats wished, out of antagonism to Senator Mahone, whose protégé Statham was, to have Wilson retained. The whole matter was dropped on Saturday, it being understood that the President would suspend Postmaster Wilson and appoint Statham after the final adjournment of the Senate.

Assistant Postmaster-General Tyner sent his resignation to President Arthur on Wednesday. Mr. Tyner requested that if there were any charges against him implicating him in the Star-route frauds, his resignation should be returned to him and an immediate investigation ordered. He was informed by Postmaster-General James that there were no charges on the files of the Department affecting his official or personal integrity. The resignation was at once accepted by the President.

Colonel Barker, chief of the post-office inspectors, has submitted to the Postmaster-General a report of the operations of his division for the fiscal year. The report states among other things, that 461 persons were arrested during the year for depredations upon the United States mails.

The Second Comptroller of the Treasury has submitted to the Secretary his annual report. It shows that there were 17,935 claims and cases of every kind settled during the last fiscal year, and that the amount allowed thereon aggregated $144,476,554.

The annual report of the Lighthouse Board for the fiscal year ending June 30 has been submitted to the Secretary of the Treasury. It is estimated that the total amount which will be needed for the general service of the lighthouse establishment during the coming year will be as follows: For the establishment itself, $2,248,000; for lighthouses and fog signals, $530,000.

Mr. Windom made some remarks upon civil-service reform on Saturday which have been generally copied by the press. He proposes to allot to the States the number of appointments to which they would be entitled in the Treasury Department, and then to appoint a committee of three in each State whose duty it should be to meet once a year and examine applicants, this committee to prepare a list, graduated according to merit, of those who pass the examination. The persons to fill the vacant places should be selected from those highest on the list, and be sent for only when the State of which they are residents should be entitled to appointments. Mr. Windom says that he proposed this system to President Garfield, who regarded it with much favor.

Secretary Hunt has issued an order calling the attention of officers of the Navy to the regulation forbidding applications for duty through persons of influence. "All such applications must be made directly to the Secretary of the Navy, who is supposed to be the best judge of what duty an officer is entitled to, and if made in any other manner will not be attended to."

There was a disastrous explosion in the navy-yard at Washington on Friday, caused by a rocket taking fire while one of the workmen was charging it. The inner walls of the fulminating-room of the Ordnance Department were demolished, and one workman was killed and two others severely wounded.

Lieutenant Hoxie of the Engineer Corps has submitted a report to the Commissioners of the District of Columbia, in the course of which he considers the subject of the reclamation of the Potomac flats. He says that plans for the new river front were long ago prepared, and should be urged upon the attention of Congress at the coming session; that the sandy flat in front of the city of Washington should be filled sufficiently to change it from marsh to dry land, and that if filled a little above high tide, it could readily be kept dry by surface drains and flood valves.

The trial of Guiteau has again been put off. The trial is now set peremptorily for November 14. The postponement was made at the request of Mr. Robinson, Mr. Scoville's assistant counsel, who represented that the time was too short to enable him properly and adequately to prepare for the trial.

In the Criminal Court at Washington on Thursday an order was passed allowing twenty witnesses to be subpœnaed in behalf of Guiteau, the fees and cost of service to be paid by the Government.

The Western Union Telegraph Company will send all messages on business concerning the Garfield monument at Cleveland to and from the committee free of charge, and the United States and American Express Companies will forward all packages or money collected for the monument-fund free.

Captain Howgate was arraigned in the Criminal Court on Friday to plead to the indictments for forgery found against him by the Grand Jury. He pleaded not guilty, and was formally surrendered by his bondsmen.

President Arthur is reported to be desirous that the Star-route prosecutions be urged with all judicious speed, and is quoted as saying that he dislikes the repeated postponements, and thinks it desirable that the cases be pressed for trial at once, and the ground on which they rest be made evident in one way or another.

The speculative movement in Confederate bonds has continued during the week. It is now stated that the United States Government will take cognizance of the matter, and will notify Great Britain that any moneys on deposit belonging to the late Confederacy are forfeit to the United States, and that these funds, if any exist, must not be paid to redeem Confederate obligations.

Colonel Kelton, the Adjutant-General of the Division of the Pacific, who has just returned from a tour of Arizona, says that all the trouble with the Indians is over, unless the Mexicans drive the fugitive Chiricahuas back over the line, in which event the troops will attend to them. He says that the Indian agents and the military have been working together harmoniously, and he expects that the American and Mexican authorities will also unite in putting down the hostile Indians.

The United States Arctic search steamer *Alliance*, commanded by G. H. Wadleigh, has concluded her search expedition. Captain Wadleigh has made a brief official statement in which he says that he was unable to obtain any tidings of the *Jeannette*.

The wife of the alleged Italian brigand Esposito has admitted his identity by making a declaration before the Board of Health in New Orleans that her husband's name is Giuseppe Esposito Randazzo, *alias* Costanzo.

The Mississippi River had risen at Quincy, Ill., on Sunday to nineteen feet above low-water mark. Traffic on all the railroads running south and west from Quincy, with the exception of the Hannibal and St. Joseph, has been suspended. The water is steadily spreading over the thousands of fertile acres hitherto protected by the embankments, and the loss to the farmers will be very heavy.

The Mississippi River Improvement Convention met in St. Louis on Wednesday, its object being to urge upon Congress the duty and obligation of enacting measures for the improvement of the Mississippi and its navigable tributaries by deepening the channels and removing obstructions. There were five thousand delegates present, representing all the States in the Mississippi Valley. Governor Crittenden was appointed temporary chairman.

A serious accident occurred on the Mississippi River on Thursday night. The steamer *Jennie Gilchrist*, commanded by Captain Gilchrist, left Rock Island, Illinois, to go up the river. A mile above the Chicago, Rock Island, and Pacific Railroad bridge the engineer discovered that the wheel-rod was broken, and, the river being greatly swollen, the steamer drifted rapidly down stream and collided with the bridge. The boiler heads were broken by the collision and the steam scalded and suffocated the passengers. Nine of the passengers and one of the crew were killed. The captain and crew are reported to have been drunk, and to have acted in a very cowardly manner.

The business part of the town of Edgefield, South Carolina, was almost entirely destroyed by fire on Sunday. The fire is supposed to have been of incendiary origin. The total loss is estimated at over $100,000, and the stocks of goods destroyed in the stores were in most instances not insured.

The Mechanics' National Bank of Newark, New Jersey, the foremost banking establishment in the State, was closed on Monday on account of the embezzlement of two million dollars by O. L. Baldwin, the Cashier. Baldwin has made a confession, in which he says that for many years he has been lending the money of the bank without security to the firm of C. Nugent & Co., of Newark, morocco manufacturers. He escaped detection by drawing upon the bank's deposit in a bank of the same name in this city, and then falsifying the account of this deposit on his own books.

The French visitors have been in Newport and Providence, being entertained as guests of the State of Rhode Island. From there they went to Boston.

The Episcopal Church Congress held its final session at Providence on Friday. Bishop Clarke of Rhode Island delivered the closing address. He said he did not think that any previous Congress had added more material and substantial thought to the Church literature, or more to the fund of information on the topics discussed.

FOREIGN.

The German elections of members of the Reichstag took place during the week, and resulted in a complete victory for the opponents of Prince Bismarck. In 368 out of the 397 districts, were chosen 44 Conservatives, 22 Free Conservatives, 100 members of the Centre party, 31 National Liberals, 24 Secessionists, 35 Progressists, 15 Poles, and 17 Protesters and Particularists. The most striking and significant fact brought out by the elections is the great increase in the strength of the Social-Democratic party. Count von

Moltke was defeated at Essen, but he may be returned for Memel. Prince Bismarck's son William has been defeated in Mulhouse, by five thousand votes, by a Liberal. It is stated that the Opposition may prove strong enough to necessitate a dissolution of the Reichstag.

Some Jews in Berlin have instituted proceedings against Dr. Stoecker for the part he has been taking of late in stirring up the people against the Jews. The Public Prosecutor has begun an action against the editor and publisher of the *Reichsherold*, on account of a poem in it approving the persecution of the Jews.

A funeral service in memory of President Garfield was held in Berlin on Sunday. There were many distinguished persons present. Professor Gneist delivered the oration, standing before a colossal bust of the late President.

The elections of members of the National Council of Switzerland show but little change in the position of parties there. Fifty Conservatives and Ultramontanes and ninety-eight Liberals and Radicals have been elected, against forty-five and ninety-three respectively in the former Council. The increase in the population gives the Council ten additional members.

In the Spanish Chamber of Deputies on Saturday Señor Portuondo urged the passage of laws for the government of the press and public meetings in Cuba, which should give the Cubans the same rights as those enjoyed in the mother country. To this the Minister of the Colonies replied that the Government intended to send out on the 10th of November a new press law for Cuba and Porto Rico, and that it would devote its attention to the various promised reforms, but would do nothing to promote autonomy.

The Governor-General of Cuba has issued a circular to the Governors of the various provinces of the island, recommending the protection of the public-school system. From this circular it appears that there are nine hundred and twelve schools in Cuba supported by the state, with an attendance of thirty-four thousand eight hundred and ninety-five children of both sexes. Two hundred of these schools were established by the present Administration.

The *Voz de Cuba* professes to have unquestionable evidence that a large contraband trade in American goods is carried on between New York and Cuba. To this cause it attributes the diminished receipts from customs duties, while there is no decline in trade.

The King and Queen of Italy arrived in Vienna on Thursday. They were met at the station by the Emperor and Crown Prince of Austria. The meeting was described as "most affectionate." The reception of King Humbert in the streets of Vienna is said to have been very enthusiastic.

The French Chambers were reopened on Friday. M. Gambetta was elected provisional President of the Chamber of Deputies by a vote of 317 to 29 in favor of M. Brisson. It is said that Gambetta ran for the Presidency of the Chambers in order to test his strength with the Deputies as a prelude to taking office.

President Grévy has asked M. Gambetta to take office, and the latter has consented. It was agreed that he might assume the Presidency of the Council either with or without a portfolio.

It is expected that M. Gambetta will soon make an important statement regarding his policy, either during debate on an interpellation regarding the Government's course in Tunis or at a meeting of the majority.

In a speech at a banquet at Havre recently, M. Gambetta said that he had been to Germany to study the means by which Bremen, Hamburg, Stettin, and Lübeck had attained their present greatness.

The French column from Susa entered Kairwan on Wednesday without opposition, the insurgents having retreated southward after pillaging the city.

It is stated that there has been an exchange of views between Lord Granville and M. Barthélemy-St.-Hilaire, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, in regard to Mr. Blaine's Panama circular, but that no joint reply is likely to be made.

The London press have severely criticised the circular. The *Times* says that Mr. Blaine's arguments are "certain of a patient and friendly hearing, but that as a piece of logic the circular can hardly be considered by his best friends to be very powerful."

Mr. Chamberlain, President of the Board of Trade, speaking at Liverpool on Wednesday, said: "I cannot reflect without gratification upon the fact that the deep sympathy for America on the death of President Garfield felt throughout the country has been reciprocated by the graceful act and courtesy in saluting the British flag at the centennial celebration of the battle of Yorktown." In another speech at Liverpool Mr. Chamberlain suggested the creation of a council, on the model of the railway commission, representing the whole shipping interest and the great insurance companies. He suggested that the functions of this council should be to advise and assist the Board of Trade.

The International Arbitration and Peace Association in London passed a resolution on Tuesday recording its satisfaction with the saluting of the English flag at Yorktown. Such an incident, the resolution says, is unparalleled in history, and must ever remain of deep international interest. The Association regards the act as a weighty and significant testimony to the eternal oblivion of all animosities resulting from the War of Independence, and as an emphatic expression of the brotherly love existing between England and America.

Municipal elections were held throughout England and Wales on Tuesday. In a great many instances they show important Conservative gains. This is especially noticeable in towns where there are many Irish.

The first decision under the Land Act was given at Monaghan on Tuesday. The Commission, after viewing the holding in the case, reduced the rent by 50 shillings for the next fifteen years.

The power of the Land League seems to be waning. There are now about four hundred Leaguers in prison, and arrests continue. Archbishop McCabe has issued a pastoral denouncing the recent rioting in Dublin and the no-rent manifesto. In regard to the latter, he begins: "A few days ago people were startled from their dream of security by the publication of a manifesto assailing the eternal law of God, and striking at the foundation whereon society rests, namely, the right of property." There are already 7,500 cases before the Land Court, of which 3,600 came in on Saturday.

In replying to an address presented to him at Knowsley Mr. Gladstone denied the report that the Land Act had been the outcome of the Land League. He contrasted the opinions and policy of Daniel O'Connell with those of Parnell. He pointed to the fact that the people who have been urged to pay no rent were coming forward with their money, and that the Land Court was working well.

There have been rumors flying about of late to the effect that Mr. Gladstone was meditating the resignation of the Chancellorship of the Exchequer, and total withdrawal from public life. In answer to a question in regard to his intention in this matter, Mr. Gladstone replied that he had nothing of any kind to add to his public declarations on the subject. By this he is supposed to refer to his speech at Leeds on the 7th of October, in the course of which he said that it was not for him, whose life was drawing to a close, to anticipate the long future they desired for him, but that he would leave the affairs of the country in the hands of men in whom it had confidence.

A troop-ship left Portsmouth on Tuesday with five hundred and twenty men to reinforce various regiments in Ireland. Orders have been received at Athlone to have a flying column in readiness to proceed immediately to any part of Westmeath or Roscommon.

Immediately after the publication in the *Freeman's Journal* of Mr. Parnell's letter deprecating the formation of Tenants' Defense Associations, the Governor of Kilmainham jail was superseded by two new Governors. It is stated as probable that Mr. Parnell will be sentenced to fourteen days' privation of visits for having written the letter in question while in jail.

Mr. Sexton has been released from Kilmainham jail on a medical certificate stating that further confinement would endanger his life.

Heavy snowstorms and severe gales are reported throughout England. In several of the midland counties there are two feet of snow on the ground.

The British steamer *Calliope*, from Odessa to Bremen, has been lost on the Spanish coast. Only one person was saved.

The Rev. George Granville Bradly was formally installed as Dean of Westminster on Tuesday in the presence of a large congregation.

A despatch to the London *Times* from Pietermaritzburg says that the ratification of the convention between England and the Transvaal has caused general satisfaction, but that it is understood that the convention has been signed more with a view to give it a trial than in reliance upon it as a final arrangement. The Volksraad has imposed heavy direct taxes and a duty of 33 per cent. on foreign invoices. Much discontent has been caused at Pretoria by these measures.

M. Novikoff, the Russian Ambassador to Turkey, has consented to a reduction of the interest on the war indemnity, but demands that a settlement of the indemnity shall be effected simultaneously with the arrangement with the Turkish bondholders.

The police at St. Petersburg arrested three Frenchmen on Monday, and seized some compromising documents in their possession. They made a desperate resistance, and fired several shots, wounding one of the policemen. The French Ambassador has reported the affair to his Government.

It is stated that the question of Hebrew emigration to America is a subject of concern to the Russian Government, and that another attempt is to be made to turn the Hebrews into peasant farmers and settle them in the provinces of Kherson and Yekaterinoslav.

A despatch from Constantinople announces that two of the Circassians who robbed and maltreated Mr. Pierce, the American missionary, have been tried and sentenced to five years' penal servitude. Five others who were arrested for connection with this offence have been discharged.

The Egyptian Government has issued circulars to the local European press informing them that they must cease to publish articles calculated to wound national feeling. A similar circular has been issued to the Arab press in regard to articles against foreigners.

The dispute in regard to the silk guilds in Japan still continues. The foreign merchants have addressed a circular to the native producers in the interior, calling upon them to ignore the guild and deal directly with them. The Japanese silk-dealers in Yokohama and Tokio have also issued circulars to the producers, and the replies show that the feeling of the producers is with the guild. The silk market at present is wholly blocked to foreigners. In connection with the new code of laws to be introduced into the Japanese judicature it is proposed to allow foreign as well as Japanese judges to sit as assessors. It is stated that Mr. John O. Bingham, United States Minister at Tokio, has been offered the first appointment.

TUESDAY, November 1, 1881

PRESIDENT ARTHUR ON "PUNISHMENT."

GOVERNOR FOSTER of Ohio reports a conversation with the President which contains some interesting passages. The assurance that he (the President) "has no enemies to punish, and does not intend to be used to punish the enemies of anybody else," is particularly gratifying, though a foreigner who knew nothing of the spoils system would find it incomprehensible. He would imagine on reading it that the President of the United States was armed with some sort of arbitrary power over the lives and fortunes of American citizens which enabled him to "punish," or harass, or mulct any person who offended or annoyed him, although no mention is made of it in the Constitution. It would have to be explained to him that when the President talked of "punishing an enemy" he meant simply an enemy within a certain small class called the civil service. He would, then, imagine that the only enemy a President could have in the civil service was a person who neglected the duty which he was paid to perform, and that "punishment" meant dismissal for incompetency. Here it would have to be explained to him again that, in political parlance, an officer or employee of the Government, however humble his position, became an "enemy" of the Chief Magistrate by exercising his abstract right to vote against the party in power, or by failing to "work" for it in caucuses or primaries, or by having been nominated or recommended for office by a Senator or Representative or politician with whom the President had had a quarrel. So that a civil-servant might become an "enemy" of the President and receive "punishment" without any fault of his own whatever. It would, with the aid of this glossary, be finally made clear to the foreigner, if an intelligent man, that when President Arthur said he had no enemies to punish he meant that he did not intend to dismiss any civil servants of the Government without cause; and that when he said he would not allow himself to be used to punish any one else's enemies, he meant that he would not dismiss a competent officer at the request of some influential politician who bore him a grudge. We are all so used to this lingo that we do not at first sight perceive how strange and mysterious it must seem to an outsider.

To Americans who understand party language the declaration will be very welcome. It is pleasant to know that President Arthur does not intend to deprive a number of poor men of their livelihood because they or their friends have exercised that freedom of political action which he claimed in his letter of acceptance as the birthright of every American citizen, Government officers included; and that he does not mean to be made the instrument of gratifying, through the same means, any grudges which any one else may cherish. The avowed abandonment of this use of the civil service, though it may not seem a very great step in the path of reform, is really, in view of what we have been used to, a very considerable advance.

Nevertheless, when, as Governor Foster further reports, President Arthur "advanced, in the most positive manner, the theory that Senators and members of the House are the best judges of the sentiments of their constituents and of the standing of applicants for office within their boundaries," he virtually surrendered, though he may not have seen it, the very wise and humane ground about "punishment" which he took in the same interview. Senators and Representatives might be good judges of candidates for office if they were disinterested. But they are not disinterested. They have for fifty years been using their recommendations to office as means of "punishing their enemies" and rewarding their personal and political friends. Moreover, by a long-established tradition, the best man for an office, in their nomenclature, does not mean the man who will perform its duties most efficiently, but the man who, while holding it, will render them personally most service. The same reasons, too, which lead them to recommend a man for office whether he is competent or not, lead them to resist his dismissal if he is found incompetent, and also to seek the dismissal of competent men in order to make room for their favorites. We are not here saying things which are controverted. Not only does nobody deny them, but a politician thinks a person who does not know them a simpleton. When, therefore, President Arthur says he means to let Senators and Representatives supply him with the fittest candidates for Government employment, he virtually, though we will not say consciously, cedes to them that power of "punishment" which he repudiates for himself. If there is to be "punishment," however, we confess, for our own part, we should sooner see him, the Sultan of the spoils system, inflict it himself than distribute it among a body of pashas.

Moreover, we do not understand how President Arthur can reconcile his theory of the relation of Senators and Representatives to appointments with the United States Constitution, as interpreted by several Republican platforms, and notably by that of the Cincinnati Convention in 1876. It may be true, as he says, that the Senators and Representatives are the best judges of the fitness of applicants for office, and that it would have been well if the Constitution had given them the selection of candidates. As a matter of fact the Constitution, for reasons which to the framers seemed good, has not done so. It lodges the duty and power and responsibility of selection with the President, leaving to the Senators the duty, power, and responsibility of judging whether the selection is a good one. This arrangement may be unfortunate, but it stands as part of the organic law. Like many other provisions of that law, many of us may disapprove of it and may think we could substitute something better; but is it not the duty of the officers of the law to obey it loyally in the spirit as in the letter, even if they do not see, as others see, or think they see, the enormous evils which have resulted during the last forty years from disregarding it?

AMERICAN POLICY TOWARDS THE ISTHMUS CANAL.

THE sum and substance of Mr. Blaine's letter on the Panama Canal is a protest against any joint guarantee by the European Powers of the neutrality of the Isthmus, coupled with a declaration that the United States means to establish a protectorate there. This, he says, moreover, is not "the development of a new policy or the inauguration of any advanced aggressive steps to be taken by this Government; it is nothing more than the pronounced adherence of the United States to principles long since enunciated by the highest authority of the Government, and now, in the judgment of the President, firmly inwoven as an integral and important part of our national policy." He declares that any such European guarantee "would partake of the nature of an alliance against the United States, and would be regarded by this Government as an indication of unfriendly feeling." He does not say what we should do in case of such an "alliance," and he expressly disclaims all idea of intending a menace or threat to other nations, pointedly referring to the fact that "our armaments, by land and sea, are kept within such limits as to afford no ground for distrust or suspicion." But it is obvious that if the despatch is to have any effect in the way of deterring the European powers from entering into a joint guarantee, the United States must do something more than warn them that its intentions are peaceful; and accordingly we find in that part of the letter which refers to the treaty with Colombia a definite statement that the traditional policy of the country, which Mr. Blaine says he merely states in an explicit form, involves the assumption by the United States of the position of sole guarantor of the neutrality of the canal:

"It is as regards the political control of such a canal, as distinguished from its merely administrative or commercial regulation, that the President feels called upon to speak with directness and with emphasis. During any war in which the United States of America or the United States of Colombia might be a party, the passage of armed vessels of hostile nations through the canal at Panama would be no more admissible than would be the passage of the armed forces of a hostile nation over the railway lines joining the Atlantic and Pacific shores of the United States or of Colombia. And the United States of America will insist upon her right to take all needful precautions against the possibility of the Isthmus transit being in any event used offensively against her interests upon the land or upon the sea."

The first question that suggests itself with regard to this statement of the traditional position of the Government with regard to the Panama Canal is, whether it is true. To ascertain this, it will not do to take the word of the Secretary of State for it. We must examine the only authentic declarations of policy which the United States has made on the subject, and these are to be found in the treaty of 1846 with New Grenada, to which Mr. Blaine refers, and the Clayton-Bulwer treaty of 1850, about which he is entirely silent. Now as to the first of these, there is not in the treaty one word from beginning to end which gives the idea that the United States entered into it with the idea of becoming the sole guarantor of the neutrality of the Isthmus. The treaty with New Grenada (which became the United States of Colombia in 1862) was a general treaty of peace, amity, naviga-

tion, and commerce. It provided (Article XXXV.) that the United States should have on the Isthmus of Panama all the commercial advantages enjoyed by the citizens of New Grenada, this equality to extend to the passengers, merchandise, and correspondence of the United States. The Government of New Grenada guaranteed to the United States a free right of way across the Isthmus, with an absolute equality of tolls, free from all import duties. Other articles provided for a general equality of commercial advantages between the two countries, and against any discrimination with regard to the ships of either or customs duties. Finally, "as a special compensation for the said advantages," and "for the favors they have acquired by the 4th, 5th, and 6th articles of this treaty," the United States guaranteed the neutrality of the Isthmus and the rights of sovereignty and property of New Grenada in the territory.

There is no language to be found in the treaty which gives color to the idea that this guarantee was intended to exclude New Grenada from getting any other guarantees that she could, or to prevent other powers from also promising that the territory should be neutral. The guarantee was simply, as a lawyer would put it, the consideration for which the United States got the right of way and other commercial advantages. But if there were the slightest doubt on this head, the Clayton-Bulwer treaty would remove it, because the Clayton-Bulwer treaty was made four years later. This instrument is not only inconsistent with, but radically opposed to, the idea of a sole guarantee or protectorate. Its first article solemnly states that "the Governments of the United States and Great Britain hereby declare that neither the one nor the other will ever obtain or maintain for itself any exclusive control over the said ship canal"; that neither power "will ever erect or maintain any fortifications commanding the same, or in the vicinity thereof," or "occupy, or fortify, or colonize, or assume or exercise any dominion over . . . any part of Central America." By Art. II. vessels of both countries going through the canal, in case of war between the two countries, are to be exempted from detention or capture. By Article V. the contracting parties engage that they will protect the canal when completed, and guarantee its neutrality. By Article VI. "the contracting parties in this convention engage to invite any state with which both or either have friendly intercourse to enter into stipulations with them similar to those which they have entered into with each other, to the end that all other states may share in the honor and advantage of having contributed to a work of such general interest and importance." By Article VIII. the two Governments solemnly state that "having not only desired, in entering into this convention, to accomplish a particular object, *but also to establish a general principle*," they will extend their protection by treaty to any practicable route across the Isthmus, whether by canal or railway.

Now these are the only authentic declarations of policy ever made by the United States on the subject, and an examination of them makes it perfectly clear that, notwithstanding Mr. Blaine's statements, it is not true that the policy which he announces is "firmly inwoven as an integral and important part of our national policy." He says that it is the intention of the Government to assume the sole protection of the Isthmus, to the exclusion of European powers, when we are under a solemn treaty stipulation not to erect any fortifications or assume any military control over any part of Central America, and when we have an existing treaty for a joint guarantee with England. As a further indication of the permanence which it was intended to give this joint guarantee, it is worth while to observe here that though the treaty (by Article V.) provided for its termination on six months' notice from either party, this was only in case of the failure of the persons undertaking the management of the canal, *when completed*, to regulate the traffic in the spirit of the treaty. The canal has never been dug, and consequently at present the treaty cannot be terminated in any way.

There is no doubt that the policy announced by Mr. Blaine as that of the late Administration is a better policy for the United States to adopt than that declared in the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. Our interest in the canal is going to prove so great that it will be important for us to undertake a protectorate, and, it may be, an exclusive protectorate. This means, of course, war with any power that interferes in any way with the canal. Our position with regard to the Panama Isthmus is very much like that of England with regard to the Isthmus of Suez; and at one time the necessity of securing the political control of that for Great Britain seemed so strong to Lord Palmerston that he obstructed the completion of the canal in order to make sure of it in advance. It was not a joint guarantee of neutrality, however, to which he objected. The value of this protectorate as to our interests would, of course, be neutralized if the European powers were to undertake a joint police duty with us. But we owe it to ourselves, and to our position as a civilized nation, to come out frankly and say that we mean to tear up the Clayton-Bulwer treaty and adopt this new policy. We are bound, also, to explain to England our reasons for considering a change of policy desirable. Even when such a power as Russia withdrew from the engagements of the Treaty of Paris, which were certainly much more onerous upon her commercially than anything contained in the Clayton-Bulwer treaty can ever be upon us, she announced to the world the reasons for her withdrawal, and did not attempt to persuade anybody that there was nothing new in it.

Mr. Blaine's mistake becomes more apparent when we reflect that the sources of information on the subject of the traditional policy of the United States are just as open to foreign Governments as they are to him. If the United States were an autocracy and its foreign policy were evolved from the brain of the President or the Secretary, Mr. Blaine's way of developing a new policy might be very good. But the foreign policy of this country is a matter of written law and treaty, assented to and proclaimed by certain departments of the Government, and this fact is known in Europe just as well as it is here. Consequently Mr. Blaine, in order to write his despatch at all, was obliged to treat the Clayton-Bulwer treaty as non-existent, and if, in reply to his despatch, England or any other foreign Government enquire how his statement of the position of the United States can be reconciled with the provisions of that instrument, he will have no answer to make; and this will not improve the position of this country—it will make it awkward and embarrassing.

THE ELECTIONS IN GERMANY.

The results of the elections to the German Reichstag are not yet sufficiently known to permit an accurate estimate of the relative strength of parties and "factions" in that body. The circumstance that in the constitutional system of Germany the composition of the Administration is usually not affected by parliamentary majorities, has prevented the division of political forces into two great parties contending for the possession of power, as is the case in England. The stake in an election being less than it is in a country where parliamentary government, or government with an elective executive, prevails, people will be apt to attach less importance to the building of large and powerful party organizations, and will therefore be more apt to split upon minor questions of principle and policy. Hence it is that in Germany there are half a dozen or more parties, none of which is strong enough to command a majority of the Reichstag, or to carry a vote except by combination with other parties or factions.

It has therefore been the business of the Government represented by, or we might almost say embodied in, the Imperial Chancellor, Prince Bismarck, to effect such combinations as were necessary to carry its measures through the Reichstag. In his endeavors to construct a reliable majority the Chancellor has resorted to the most startling changes of tactics. At the time when the building up of the empire required that popular spirit which, where the army is drawn from all classes of the people, is so great an aid to military action, Bismarck leaned principally upon the National Liberal party, which, representing the intelligence and aspirations of the middle classes, at that period was the most popular and the strongest. That party demanding ministerial responsibility and constitutional government in the English sense, his dependence upon its support became irksome to Prince Bismarck, who, as a natural-born autocrat, wanted to make the Emperor's Government as free as possible from parliamentary restraints, and to have his own way generally. He therefore gave up his alliance with the National Liberal party—which in the meantime had greatly discredited and weakened itself in popular estimation by its pliability in making concessions of principle to accommodate the Chancellor—and turned his face towards the conservative elements whose views of government were more congenial to his own, and out of which he expected to form a more compact and available majority in the Reichstag.

To effect this he had to change not only his political associations, but also his policy in the larger sense of the term. When he leaned upon the National Liberals he was a free trader; he asserted with emphasis the su-

periority of the State over the Church; he favored reforms in the way of municipal self-government, and so on. With the Conservative alliance came the necessity of winning the favor of the small landed nobility, of the manufacturing interests aspiring to become "monopolies," and of the Catholic Church. The free-trade policy was therefore thrown overboard, and one of protective duties substituted; the system of taxation was kept as much as possible in harmony with the interests of the landholders, and concessions were made to the Catholic Church in order to end the "Kulturkampf" and propitiate the Catholic vote. An effort was even made to bring about a combination which seems to involve a paradox, but has shown itself practicable to a certain extent more than once in the history of the world—viz., a combination between the "prolétariat" and the autocrat. Bismarck's startling measures of "state-socialism," with his project for the support of disabled workingmen at the public expense, pointed that way.

This time the Government seems to have made an unusual effort to carry the elections in the Conservative interest. The absurd and disgraceful agitation against the Jews was permitted to continue for a considerable time without encountering any energetic measures of repression. The official and "inspired" press proclaimed loudly that every vote cast for a Liberal or against a Conservative candidate was a vote against the Emperor. The tone of newspaper articles and speeches on the Conservative side was violent in the extreme. The official influences of the Government were exerted to the utmost limit of legal possibility. One of Bismarck's sons went "on the stump" and was one of the most vehement of campaign speakers. But all this seems to have been in vain. Although it is doubtful what the exact strength of the opponents of the Government in the Reichstag will be, it appears certain that the efforts to elect a reliable Government majority, or the elements out of which such a majority might be formed, have failed completely. One of the most gratifying results is the utter rout of the Jew-baiters. All the prominent leaders of the Opposition have been re-elected in the city of Berlin; and generally at those points where the exertions of the Conservatives backed by the Government were greatest, the defeat is most crushing.

As to the consequences of this event, it may be said that, according to the constitutional system of the German Empire, they will not consist of any change in the *personnel* of the Government. It is a hard blow to Prince Bismarck, and, as he has grown more nervous with advancing years, it may possibly lead to some violent resolutions. But this is by no means as certain as that he will stick to the measures he has mainly at heart, such as the tobacco monopoly, his workingmen's insurance, the limitations of parliamentary power with regard to the appropriations of money, etc., and devise some plan of advancing them again. To this end he may think a speedy dissolution of the new Reichstag necessary, or perhaps for a while try again the effectiveness of that personal charm which so often has aided him in forming political combinations, and may again have to do service in a new change of tactics.

THE VINDICATION OF CEDARSWAMP.

A WELL-KNOWN Boston publishing firm has, it seems, got into trouble by publishing a novel in which the characters not only are drawn from real life, but are given their real names. The novel is not a novel of society, the characters being natives of a small hamlet on Cape Cod called "Cedarswamp." The author is Miss Sally Pratt McLean, and is described by a local authority as an "attractive, handsome blonde, about medium height, as graceful in her way as she is bright and charming in her intellect." Whether it was the brightness and charm of her intellect, or her extreme youth and inexperience, which caused her to introduce into 'Cape Cod Folks' all the most eminent and prominent inhabitants of Cedarswamp, we do not know. But there they all are; and as the book has met with a great success, they have all earned through Miss McLean's novel a fame which their eminence and prominence in Cedarswamp would never have given them elsewhere. They have, as a Boston critic puts it, become "historic persons." This same critic, in a tone which in some parts of our common country would be called decidedly undemocratic, declares that the Cedarswampians take "what may be called the peasant's view" of the matter; the "peasant's view" of the matter being, as every one who is familiar with the American peasantry—or for that matter, the peasantry of any country—knows, to work a little village incident of this sort "for all it is worth."

This view, however, they did not take spontaneously, probably because no such opportunity had ever presented itself in Cedarswamp before. Fortunately there were friends at hand to suggest it to them—benevolent members of the bar, lawyers such as still are to be found in every community, who, when they hear of a crying case of injustice and wrong, do not wait for the formality of a retainer, but call the attention of the injured person to the wrong of which he is the unconscious victim, and stimulate in his sluggish mind that desire for litigation by which alone it can be redressed. Such seems to have been the history of the Cedarswamp case. The "peasantry" were at first inert; but at length they were brought to see that they were neglecting an opportunity such as they might never have again, and letters were written to the publishers protesting against the use thus made of their names, and demanding pecuniary compensation for the injury to their feelings. These were followed by a letter to the publishers signed by the Attorney-General of the State ("in his capacity, however, of a member of the legal fraternity"), which we are sorry to be obliged to state was "couched in such terms as to be considered by the firm unworthy of answer." What the next steps taken were is not stated, but when we hear that the matter has been "recently revived," after what is called "the quiet action of some new parties not directly interested in the affair," by the institution of four suits against the publishers for $30,000 damages, accompanied by the hint that these suits will be followed by similar proceedings on behalf of every character represented in the book, we unquestionably see in the result not merely the effect of the "peasant's view" of the subject, but also of that enlightened legal benevolence which the study and the practice of the law sometimes promote.

It is startling to learn that all this trouble arising from the use of the names of the eminent Cedarswampians at once stimulated the sale of the book, that the entire edition published was eagerly taken up, and that soon not a copy was procurable at any price. Miss McLean became suddenly famous, and the publishers went to work to correct their mistake by changing radically every name in the book, "substituting others of equal length in the plates." By and by this new edition too will be published and no doubt will have a great sale.

As when some energetic prima donna or actress arrives with all her trunks at a great musical or theatrical metropolis, and her quiet apartments are invaded by the burglar, and her truly immense collection of diamonds or dresses is carried off, cynical and suspicious men of the world are always apt to suggest that, like Mr. Dickens's celebrated victim, she "did it herself" with a view to the increase of her notoriety and income, so too of course the cynical and suspicious will imagine that the impending litigation over 'Cape Cod Folks' was foreseen by Miss McLean, or the publishers, or both; that having witnessed the immediate success of novels of London life, such for instance as Lord Beaconsfield's 'Endymion' (which we venture to say, without having an opportunity of comparing the books, is distinctly inferior to 'Cape Cod Folks'), in which real characters, slightly disguised, are supposed to be introduced, it occurred to them that the sale of a book would be still further promoted by having characters with their real names; that the "peasants" and the benevolent lawyers who advise them also foresaw that, though there might be no chance of recovering damages in such a case, the litigation could not but be of great benefit to Cedarswamp and indirectly to the "peasants" who live there; that crowds would be attracted there during the summer, who would come with money in their pockets and spend it freely among the peasantry, desiring to see Cedarswamp and the peasants for themselves; that the publishers foresaw that the sale of the book might be greatly increased by the probable litigation that the use of the names would cause, and that the substitution of fictitious names would not injure it as long as the real names were already known.

We are sorry that civil libel suits for the vindication of character, particularly literary libel suits, should have fallen into such bad repute as to suggest such suspicions as these. But the truth must be spoken. While no hopeful or progressive man will like to think any of them well founded, what we desire here to point out is, that should the cases ever come to trial these suspicions will all be suggested to the jury by the learned and benevolent counsel on both sides, and that the trial, admirably as it no doubt will be conducted, will be much more likely to lead to the pecuniary benefit of everybody connected with it than to the cessation of the practice of putting real characters into books. People who do not take the "peasant view" of the matter will probably see that locking the blonde author and her publishers in jail for a short period, together with a perpetual injunction against the sale of the book, would probably be a far more effectual way of making them feel the sacredness of private character, and the case will probably still further tend to make civil proceedings for its vindication by an award of damages seem ridiculous.

TUESDAYS AT THE FRENCH THEATRE.

PARIS, October 14, 1881.

I REMEMBER the time when the Théâtre-Français was always half empty; when the heroes and heroines of classic tragedy seemed to move on the banks of the Styx; when even the comedies of Molière seemed unreal and wanted life. How different is our French Theatre now! I am one of its most faithful customers, and for years I have always found it full, even in the warmest days of summer. The railways have something to do with this new state of things; wave after wave of provincials and foreigners

rolls perpetually over Paris. Still, there was a time when provincials and foreigners avoided the French Theatre as carefully as the Parisian himself. Paris sets the fashion, which is afterwards followed by the provinces and by all Europe. And why has Paris returned to the Théâtre-Français? Why is it more eager to see a new piece performed there than in any other theatre?

The answer to this involves almost a social question. I must of course do justice first to the admirable management of M. Perrin, the present director of the French Theatre—a gentleman possessing not only a very high culture, in every sense of the word, but very rare administrative faculties. It is not easy to rule over a world of comedians. The comedian is the most sensitive sort of creature, made up of vanity and jealousy; he would not be a comedian if he were not a highly nervous, touchy, emotional, irrational sort of a man. He has no will of his own, except when he deals with his director, and then he becomes very wilful; he plays so many characters that he becomes very fanciful; he feels the world's contempt under its admiration, and he becomes revolutionary, impatient of rule. The greater are his parts, the meaner become his instincts. Talma was *Cæsar* in the evening, and a beggar the next morning (see the 'Memoirs' and 'Letters' of Madame de Rémusat). A quiet, sensible man, fond of repose, would rather go into the lion's den than be thrown among the passions of a troop of comedians.

I must also do justice to the wonderful talent of the troop which has sustained the French Theatre for ten years. I leave out, on purpose, Sarah Bernhardt. She cannot be measured by common rules. She can say: "Moi seule, et c'est assez." She could and would draw multitudes in a desert. She is incomparable, as Rachel was. But since, in a moment of folly, she abandoned the French Theatre, the destinies of the theatre have not changed; the house is every evening as full as if we could hear her silvery voice, watch her harmonious attitudes, and lose ourselves in the admiration of this extraordinary human flower—so ideal, so unreal, so different from vulgar and coarse humanity. The troop of the Français, even after her departure, is self-sufficient; it forms a solid phalanx of talents of the most varied sorts. Behind the greater stars are smaller stars, and behind them there is a sort of nebulosity of perfection carried into the most minute details. The old actors of the Français who play the servants, who open the doors, who bring letters, are absolutely perfect; they are like pictures—they can walk as people did walk in past ages; they move and bear themselves according to the time, to the place. The sensation—it is a sensation more than an impression—which I always experience at the Français is a sort of material comfort, arising from a perfect harmony of all the details, a certain ease, a quiet and perfect conformity between the action and the passion, between the central figures and all their surroundings.

There are, however, deeper reasons for the marvellous prosperity of our histrionic high school. The most serious of these reasons must, in my opinion, be found in our home politics and in the eclipse of French society. France presents at this moment a curious phenomenon: the political primacy is absolutely divorced from the social primacy. It is quite evident that an aristocracy, after having for centuries founded itself on birth, on war, on power, on influence, can be deprived of all its privileges without losing the power of imagination which remains attached for a long time to great names and to great memories. If the English aristocracy were deprived, in the course of time, of all its privileges; if the House of Lords were suppressed; if primogeniture and the law of entail were abolished; if the patronage of the higher classes were suppressed; if the monarchy were changed into a republic; if no names could be found in the House of Commons except names actually unknown—the social primacy would nevertheless remain for a long time in the descendants of the aristocratic classes. There would be found places and houses in London, in the provinces, where conversation would be carried on as it is now, where the objects of interest would remain the same—schools of worldly wisdom, and elegance, and self-restraint; schools for all the qualities, all the real or conventional virtues which now constitute the gentleman. In fact, the gentleman would survive the aristocrat; virtue and intellect would survive power.

I have made an almost absurd supposition for England, but it will better illustrate what I said of the divorce which exists in France between social and political supremacy. There is still here a large and brilliant class which considers itself the first, socially speaking; but it has for a long time been deprived of political power. This class is homogeneous in one sense only, as many revolutions have made distinctions in it. The Legitimists, the Orleanists, the Bonapartists form so many different worlds. You cannot find in Paris what you find in England—a compact society, where, under the frail denominations and distinctions of Conservatives and Liberals, the same ideas and interests prevail. It is very far from the "noble faubourg" to the *salon* of Princess Mathilde; very far even from some purely Legitimist houses to the houses of the rich Orleanists. Society is divided into coteries, and there are in reality very few *salons* of the old type, like that of Madame Récamier or of Madame de Staël. Young people will dance and be married, and there must be dancing-parties; but the social tie is getting more and more loose, and this disposition is extremely favorable to the theatres.

M. Perrin has instituted weekly representations, at which the places are let for the winter season. In the absence of all worldly gayeties, the French Theatre becomes in this way momentarily a kind of *salon;* people agree to meet there; they see each other every Tuesday evening; every box becomes a little centre. This fashionable Tuesday audience is much dreaded by the artists, as it is not demonstrative. Our best theatrical critic, M. Sarcey, who writes the dramatic *feuilleton* of the *Temps*, has attacked it very bitterly. He finds it dull and almost stupid; he complains of its absurdities and its manias. But the absurdities and even manias of society are accompanied by peculiar qualities. Society—that is to say, French society—cannot bear exaggeration, ranting, screaming; it abhors vulgarity in words, and even more in manners; it likes simplicity, what we call *naturel;* it forces the actresses to behave like ladies, and the actors like gentlemen. If there were no other public, there would be some danger that the Théâtre-Français might become a little insipid; but there are seven days in the week, and each day brings its tide of foreigners, provincials or meridionals, who laugh loudly and cheer with enthusiasm. Season tickets have only been tried twice at the French Theatre—in Talma's time and at the present moment. Experience has been favorable to them. The system which makes a public of permanent judges, coincides with the remarkable financial prosperity of the Theatre. The most curious characteristic of the present public is its eclecticism. No literary system now dominates: we are neither Classic nor Romantic; we can enjoy equally Racine and Victor Hugo, "Andromaque" and "Hernani"; we can even enjoy "Œdipus Tyrannus," which is now having an extraordinary success. We go from Molière to Alfred de Musset, from Musset to Alexandre Dumas, from him to Pailleron. We enjoy the "Monde où l'on s'ennuie" as keenly as we do the "Mariage de Figaro." It would not be very easy to explain the reason of this curious indifference, or rather optimism; I cannot remember a time in our literary history when it was so complete. It seems as if every spectator had become a mere mirror; we want perceptions, sensations, be they what they may. The French Theatre has found in this disposition the means of giving great variety to its *répertoire*.

Correspondence.

THE IDEA OF GARFIELD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to say a few words by way of reply to the communication in the *Nation* for Oct. 13, entitled "The Idea of Garfield." One of the most difficult things that the mind has to contend with, in arriving at a correct conclusion, is the strong bias given to it by what we might term the egotism of conception. By this I simply mean that delirious joy by which a certain class of minds, with a marked tendency to introspective and self-centred thought, find themselves overtaken when they have suddenly and accidentally come upon what they suppose to be the solution of a much-mooted question. I fancy that I perceive a touch of this in "W. W. T." His article is stamped with all that excessive zeal and ardor to prove, that marks the special advocate of an idea. I would not for a moment question the integrity or sincerity of his motive; but it is quite evident that he comes to his task with a theory to demonstrate, and that this theory has taken possession of his mind to the exclusion of all things else. Not content with maintaining that President Garfield had the general interests of his party and the country at heart, he endeavors, by a very elaborate and chess-board process of reasoning, to establish that the President constituted himself the special guardian of civil-service reform, and that he set out, with cold calculation and all the wiliness of his nature (!), to undermine Conkling and drive him from the political arena. Of course Conkling *supposed* that he was resigning from his own free will, but that was all a hideous mistake; he was the victim of a most artfully-contrived conspiracy. All this your correspondent asks us to believe without qualification or allowance. But it is too mathematically correct, too abstractly logical, to adapt itself to an ordinary chain of circumstances. As a specimen of intellectual dexterity in the arrangement of facts, so as to force a desired conclusion, it is admirable. It reminds one of those marvellous feats of ratiocination that Poe used to indulge in—unravelling the mysteries and deciphering the cryptograms of his own making.

Deception, scheming, and calculation, however, are not traits of character that the public have been accustomed to associate with the name of Garfield; and that he should accept the services of Roscoe Conkling in a political campaign; that twice during that campaign he should recognize him by no less an act than an invitation to the hospitality of his own roof; and then that, having attained the Presidency, partly through the efforts of Conkling, he should set about with craftiness, "deliberateness of purpose," and an Iago-like callidity, to crush

him—is more than Garfield's most implacable enemy would assert. The simple truth is, that the writer, in his zeal to prove his point, has proved too much. But, since he has raised the question, let us calmly and dispassionately review the most prominent nominations made by the President, and see if we can ascertain from them what his exact relations to civil-service reform were; for this is the only method by which we can judge men, and certainly no one can object to facts and the truths which they establish, if the facts are not distorted nor presented in a captious or churlish spirit. And first comes Stanley Matthews. When his name was sent in by Hayes the better portion of the press opposed the nomination, and it was afterwards conceded that the Senate had practically rejected him by allowing his name to lie over without taking action upon it. But one of the first acts of the new President was to return the name of Matthews to the Senate. He was finally confirmed by a bare majority of one, and then only by the aid of Democratic votes, receiving but an insignificant number from his own party. According to the general method of judging of appointments, the nomination of Wm. E. Chandler would be attributed to the influence of James G. Blaine, of whom he is a warm friend and admirer. We will not plead this, however, but look merely at his political character. It is no secret that Attorney-General MacVeagh, one of the most conspicuous civil-service reformers in the country, threatened to resign his position in the Cabinet if Chandler should be confirmed; and George F. Edmunds, the leading Republican in the U. S. Senate, rose from his seat in that body, and in a speech in which he denounced Chandler as the prince of wire-pullers, lobbyists, and of political legerdemain, stated positively that he would resign the chairmanship of his committee if the name of Chandler should even be *reported* to the Senate for confirmation. It is needless to say he was rejected.

But the name which was indirectly the means of stirring the political cauldron to its depths as it had never been stirred before, by a nomination at least, is that of Robertson, Collector of the Port of New York. Here, again, if we were to apply the principles generally used in judging of appointments, we should have to say that Robertson's appointment was a reward for political services. And why? Because he was one of Blaine's most prominent advocates in the Chicago Convention, and it was largely due to the defection in New York, of which he was the leader, that the nomination of an anti-Grant man was made possible. But would Robertson's nomination have been in accordance with the principles of civil-service reform, aside from any political consideration that may have been contained in it? I think not, and for this very simple reason, that there was not a particle of cause for the removal of Merritt. His term of office was but half out, he had given excellent satisfaction, and the great body of New York merchants protested against his removal, as did also Postmaster-General James, another noted civil-service reformer. But the defenders of this nomination say: "Merritt was not injured, for he received another appointment; Robertson was honest, and Garfield was pure." Granted. But the objection of civil-service reformers has been, not that each individual who was appointed in accordance with the principles of the spoils system was a thief and a knave, but that the method of appointment itself is corrupting and pernicious. Admit that men like Garfield need not be bound by any rules or regulations in their appointments, because they are pure, and you will be compelled to grant the same privilege to others who may be less careful in exercising it.

What I have said concerning these appointments is not intended in any way as a defence or an apology for Conkling, nor in derogation of the character of Garfield, but simply what I conceive to be the true state of the facts. I agree with "W. W. T." that "a nation needs models." But what it needs as much, if not more, is a correct conception of the lives and acts of its public men; for their lives and acts go largely to make up the nation's moral history. As a nation we cannot look facts too plainly in the face; we cannot afford to allow our sympathies and our sense of gratitude to mislead us in the estimate of our public men; we cannot afford to establish false standards, to quibble with truth, or to juggle with virtue. James A. Garfield had his faults, as all men before him have had theirs, but they were chiefly of a negative and not of a positive character. While many of his appointments were not in accordance with the principles of civil-service reform, yet it is more reasonable to suppose that these were made because he found it difficult to break with the party leaders, and to escape from the importunity of friends, than that they were made for the purposes of self-aggrandizement and to obtain power. Garfield, being of a very generous disposition, would find it peculiarly difficult to deny his friends. He intended and desired to do all things for the best, but he was "too full o' the milk of human kindness to catch the nearest way." L. C. H.

Iowa City, Iowa, Oct. 24, 1881.

A HIGH SCHOOL AND ITS MORAL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have taught in a high school two months. In that time I have made several discoveries—I mean they were discoveries to *me*. I came out of college last June, knowing that I was to fill this position. I had no "experience" nor "methods" when I entered "the work"; I had done some thinking, and had a few notions about teaching. The chief one was that if I made the studies interesting, other matters would right themselves. I worked hard, and succeeded in getting thoroughly enthusiastic myself. I found, however, that my classes were by no means unanimous in *their* enthusiasm. I was puzzled; I did not consider myself wholly to blame; for there were a number who had been listless at first who were most animated now. I went to old teachers who had had "wide experience." I stated as clearly as I could my trouble, and asked for an explanation. With a smile that made me feel as if they had patted me upon the head and addressed me as "Sissy," I was told that I should soon "get used to that—all teachers did"; "there were some children that could never be interested in anything"; after I had had more "experience" I should learn to accept this as an unavoidable evil. I was sceptical; I tried a little harder to be entertaining. My History class were studying about Egypt. It was dry for me, very stupid to them. Lessons dragged. We began to read aloud from Ebers's 'Egyptian Princess.' We had only half an hour a day for this, but it produced a marked change in the majority of the class. They were not suffered to take the book outside, and I found that the text-book lessons were recited with an astonishing velocity, so that a few minutes might be secured for the 'Princess.' However, there were several of the class who sat dreamy-eyed and passive, smiling in polite amazement when the rest of us became excited over our reading.

I have also a Natural Philosophy class. One day we learned that "nature abhors a vacuum." I thought of the minds of some of my nonchalant scholars; I concluded that nature must abhor a mental as well as a physical vacuum. Still believing that these young people were interested in something, I set myself to find out what that something might be. One of my notions was that the way I used to write compositions was all wrong. Like most children, my subjects, if not abstract nouns, were reversed and revised quotations from cyclopædias and histories, cradled in a few moralizing ideas abstracted from my mother or big sister. I spent much time talking with my scholars out of school-hours, and, as I like things that boys and girls like—such as jig-saws, base-ball, china-painting, and the *St. Nicholas*—I soon found what was nearest the hearts of many of my boys and girls, and I made them write of these things.

I was still baffled by the same *dolce-far-niente* scholars. Light was poured in upon my dim understanding one day in the shape of a pink-tinted, gilt-edged, perfumed note breathing words of love from a girl of fifteen to a boy of seventeen. I was no longer mystified. How could a girl of fifteen have any room for the pyramids of Egypt when her mind was overflowing with an absorbing passion? Had we not advanced a step further in physics, and learned that no two bodies can occupy the same space at the same time? I took observations, and convinced myself that here was one source of my trouble. I thought: "If this matter begins in the high school, I must find some way to nip it in the bud." I began to investigate. The Grammar grades seemed familiar with the "old, old story"; it did not appear to be a new thing in the Intermediate departments. I had occasion to leave the building one noon earlier than usual. The Primary school had just been dismissed. A group of small boys, averaging seven or eight years of age, were leaving several small girls. One youth of six, holding up a scrap of paper covered with a child's scrawling attempts at printing, called out, "Say, what 'd you give for your *love-letter?*" A blushing maiden of *five* turned around and in somewhat indistinct accents expressed her displeasure. At the same moment another young gallant rushed up, tore the letter from the hand of the first boy, administering a vigorous kick, and valiantly enquired if "he'd bother 'his girl' any more?" Two other small girls were walking lovingly side by side. One was overheard to remark: "Whose *your* beau? Mine is," etc.

Now I do not believe that this "childish nonsense" is harmless, and that girls and boys get "over it." I know that it will do no good for me to enter the lists against my high-school Cupid; but won't somebody with a wiser head than mine try to convince the fathers and mothers that our public schools—of which we are justly proud—are nourishing an evil that it does seem to me is one great cause for a great part of the useless lives and loose morals in the country? I mean the primary grades as at present managed in many schools. I have taken some pains to get statistics, and in the majority of the public schools I find that the most crowded departments are the primaries, frequently averaging sixty children from five to nine years of age. It is plain no teacher has time to find out each child's character. It is no new idea that one "knowing" child can instruct a dozen innocent children in matters concerning which they should remain in perfect ignorance until instructed by their mothers. I could give dozens of conversations that I have heard among the children themselves that shocked me, and, I cannot but think, would surprise these babies' parents were they to become aware of what their little children were talking about.

If our lowest grades were turned into kindergartens, with a carefully-chosen teacher for every fifteen or twenty children, who were with

these children constantly until they were safe in their respective homes; who played with them, studied with them, watched their talk, and, more important still, found out what the little ones thought about, would not that do something towards making the matter right? Of course it would make the school-tax larger, for larger salaries would be required for such fine work. But if there must be retrenchment anywhere, abolish or lower the grade of the high school, I think, rather than spoil the children. Let the "old" teachers of "wide experience" go into the lower grades, and let us girls fresh from college teach where any mistakes we may make will not cause irreparable harm.—Respectfully, L. M. F.

Owosso, Mich., Oct. 26, 1881.

MUNICIPAL ECONOMY IN PRUSSIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I should like to call the attention of some of the writers for the *Nation*, or of any students of finance among your readers, to a publication of the Royal Statistical Bureau at Berlin. It is entitled 'Beiträge zur Finanzstatistik der Gemeinden in Preussen.' It was prepared by L. Herrfurth, a privy councillor, and contains a great mass of interesting information in regard to the municipal economy of Prussian cities and towns. Among other matters, it presents in tabular form, for the year 1876, the income and expenditure of all Prussian towns of 10,000 inhabitants or more, carefully itemizing the various accounts. One table shows clearly the enormous increase in expenditure of the various municipal governments from 1869 to 1876. It reveals a truly American rate of progress, and proves that the increasing extravagance of American cities during the years 1865–1873 was fully paralleled a few years later by European cities. The sums raised by taxation in thirty-two cities of the above class were as follows:

In the year 1849	9,088,335	marks.
" 1860	26,787,870	"
" 1876	49,064,851	"

The expenditure of Berlin grew from 2,774,928 marks in 1843 to 11,935,644 marks in 1869, and to 20,117,586 marks in 1876. An immense increase in the amount devoted to education is noticeable in nearly all cases. Only forty-one municipalities, however, support free schools for all classes. In many places the income from school fees forms a large part of the sum expended for education. The following table shows the amount expended by the cities and towns in the above class (during the year 1876) for the various purposes mentioned:

1. For police	12,371,000	marks.
2. " water, gas, streets, etc.	18,217,000	"
3. " care of poor, public health, etc.	5,775,000	"
4. " education	32,027,000	"
5. " municipal debts (sinking fund, etc.)	19,350,000	"

The sources of income are quite as interesting. The whole Prussian system of municipal finance can be studied to advantage by those who are aiming to improve our own. Although their actual system is far from satisfying either their theorists or practical men, yet it possesses many features which we might adopt. A general and vigorous discussion is now going on in Germany in reference to municipal taxation, and it is well worth our while to heed it. I hope some contributor to the *Nation* will undertake to give us a summary of the main points and authorities in the discussion.—Respectfully yours,

E. J. James.

Normal, Ill., Oct. 23, 1881.

Notes.

A. D. F. Randolph & Co. have in press an autobiographical sketch by the Rev. Titus Coan, entitled 'Life in Hawaii.' Mr. Coan has been stationed at Hilo since the year 1835, and his recollections cover a varied experience as well as a long one, including that of two visits to the Marquesas Islands, with some new facts relating to the *tabu* system. His account of the Hawaiian volcanoes, which are a sort of pastoral charge of his, inasmuch as Kilauea lies within his district, is brought down to the eruption of the present year.——G. P. Putnam's Sons add to former announcements the following works: 'Opium Smoking in America and China,' by Dr. W. H. Kane; 'The American Citizen's Manual'; the "popular poem," 'Your Mission,' in an edition illustrated by Ellen H. Gates; 'A Text-book of Kant,' by J. H. Sterling; 'The New Infidelity,' by A. R. Grote; 'The Art of Voice-Production,' by A. A. Pattou; 'The Science and Practice of Medicine,' by Prof. Alonzo B. Palmer; and a series entitled "Science Ladders."——Fords, Howard & Hulbert will publish in a single volume the Rev. Henry Ward Beecher's 'Yale Lectures on Preaching' for the years 1873–4–5. Mr. Beecher, who, as his successor says, has done "so much to turn religion in Protestant America from a fear into a hope and a love," has just relinquished his editorial relation to the *Christian Union* in favor of the Rev. Lyman Abbott, who has long "had the whole practical management of the paper."——Thomas Whittaker is about to publish a third edition of Bishop Littlejohn's 'Conciones ad Clerum,' with a very full table of contents epitomizing each *concio*; and a new edition of Dr. Shelton's 'Rector of St. Bardolph's,' now out of print.——A new edition of Walt Whitman's 'Leaves of Grass,' with additions and a portrait, will shortly be issued by J. R. Osgood & Co.——Estes & Lauriat, Boston, indicate by a first catalogue of old books their intention to open a new department in their business.——Chatto & Windus, London, announce 'Prince Saroni's Wife' and other stories (3 vols.) by Mr. Julian Hawthorne, and English editions of Mr. Wheeler's 'Familiar Allusions' and Mark Twain's 'Prince and Pauper,' neither of which has yet appeared here.——The current issue of *Le Livre*, noticing Rudolph & Klemm's (Zurich) "English Library," to consist of the best works in English and American literature, says the following beginning has been made: Mark Twain's 'Sketches,' Scott's 'Lay of the Last Minstrel,' Goldsmith's 'She Stoops to Conquer,' and Marlowe's 'Faust,' which can at least be called a chronological collocation and gradation. *Le Livre* also states that Turgeneff has written tales for children against the coming New Year's.——Catalogue No. 77 of Otto Harrassowitz, of Leipzig, is wholly devoted to Shakspere and his times. Its 270 numbers are all, or nearly all, from the library of the late R. Gericke, of Leipzig. From a third to one-half of the volumes are in English. A glance down the pages of this catalogue reminds us that Freiligrath translated the Sonnets of Shakspere into German, and Herr Bodenstedt paraphrased "Venus and Adonis." A line in Greek text catches the eye, and informs us that a translation of "Hamlet" was published at Athens in 1858.——*Art and Letters*, a new monthly illustrated magazine of fine art and light literature, has been started by Remington & Co., the London publishers of *L'Art*, from which publication the illustrations of *Art and Letters* are to be taken. The October number contains brief essays on "J. F. Millet," "Modern Caricature," "Venetian Lace-Making," and "Frederick Walker," and half a dozen full-page engravings and a dozen smaller cuts, with here and there an initial or a tail-piece. *Art and Letters* is about the same size as *L'Art*, and the monthly part contains thirty-two pages, with an inserted engraving printed on heavier paper. The appearance of the new periodical is promising, and its material aspects—type, paper, press-work, etc.—are delightful.——Koolman's 'Wörterbuch der Ostfriesischen Sprache' (Norden: Braams) reaches the word *Lomig* with its thirteenth part. In regard to the deliberate appearance of this thorough work, we may use the East-Frisian proverb, "Bäter lât as hêl ten," or in plainer English, "Better late than never." The present instalment, by the way, is rather less suggestive of kinship with our mother-tongue, and its proverbial store smaller, than customary. "Live and let live" has the Teutonic guise of "Man mut läfen un läfen laten." A quaint saying is "Laten is gôd tegen 't hangen," *i. e.*, Hands off is good against hanging (for theft).

—The Century Co. have brought out a volume of 'Selected Proofs' from the first and second portfolios of illustrations reproduced from *Scribner's Monthly* and *St. Nicholas*. They therefore stand in no need of praise, but as the present collection is designed for more general purchase, it will be well to say that there are, counting a tail-piece, 58 engravings in all; that about 23 of these are portraits, and that 20 are from the graver of Mr. T. Cole—a sufficient evidence that the popularity of subject which has determined the editor's choice does not imply a low degree of the art. Indeed, the portraits of Poe, Modjeska, the Countess Potocka, and Savonarola, and the kindred subject of a Russian nun, are likely to remain classic specimens of the art of wood-cutting. Mr. Kruell's Walt Whitman is not behind these. It is pleasant to meet again Vedder's "Young Marsyas," Dubois's "Charity," Whistler's Mother, Homer Martin's "Walden Pond," and Thayer's sunny "Autumn Afternoon in the Berkshire Hills" (all by Cole); Martin's "Whittier's Birthplace" (F. S. King); and the "Swedish Queen Mother" (W. Closson), to mention no others.——John P. Soule, Boston, sends us a new game of "Artists and their Masterpieces," certainly a great improvement on the rather dull exchange of authors and their works. There are two sets of photographs mounted and neatly boxed, cabinet size, after five of the principal works of each of the following artists: Fra Angelico, Da Vinci, Bellini, Michael Angelo, Titian, Raphael, Correggio, Andrea Del Sarto, Paolo Veronese, and Guido Reni. Each card bears a list of the five to be "called," and one gives also the artist's name, city, and life-span. The photographs vary in merit according to their being taken more or less directly from the original canvas. To choose from Michael Angelo was particularly difficult, and every admirer would have something to criticise in anybody's selection of five specimens. The game will accomplish its end of enlarging art knowledge and forming taste.——Mr. Pach, 841 Broadway, has published two photographic souvenirs of the late national tragedy—a portrait from life of President Garfield, whose only fault is an excess of smoothness, and a view of the Francklyn cottage at Elberon.——When Messrs. Ginn & Heath, Boston, published the 'Elements of the Differential Calculus,' by Prof. W. E. Byerly, of Harvard, the *Nation* expressed the opinion that the work treated the elements of the integral calculus to a sufficient extent to have justified the author in making some mention of the fact upon his title-page. The appearance, from the press of the same publishers, of a separate treatise by the same author on the 'Elements of the Integral Calculus,' sufficiently accounts for

the omission. The two volumes form a very complete treatise on the calculus. Those who have studied the differential calculus in Prof. Byerly's first volume will of course find it greatly to their advantage to study the integral calculus in his second.——John R. Anderson & Co., New York and Chicago, publish a new edition of Roget's 'Thesaurus,' wholly reset, and edited with much intelligence by the late author's son. The system of cross references has been greatly enlarged, and the index so improved as to save one who consults it from turning to the text in, it may be, the majority of cases.

—The Dante Society, of Cambridge, Mass., are now ready to begin printing the hitherto inedited Latin comment on the "Divine Comedy," composed by Benvenuto da Imola a little more than fifty years after the poet's death, and therefore possessing exceptional value in the long list of commentaries. An exact copy has been made from the MS. now in the Laurenzian Library at Florence, and the work is expected to make three handsome octavo volumes of five hundred pages each, at a price of five dollars per volume, payable on delivery. If the requisite number of subscribers be obtained, the Society's hope is to issue the first volume before the end of 1882. Names may be sent in to Mr. John Woodbury, secretary, or to Mr. Justin Winsor, librarian of Harvard University; from Europe, to Trübner & Co., London.

—The very extensive Oriental and linguistic library of the late eminent Professor Benfey, of Göttingen, is for sale; and, in conformity with wishes expressed by himself, his family would especially rejoice to see it purchased as a whole by some institution in America. The opportunity is one to be taken advantage of, the collection having been pronounced by a competent authority to be "of rare completeness." Particulars may be learned of the family.

— Hardly any form of literary productiveness would seem more thankless than a genealogical dictionary. It has no allurements for continuous reading; it baffles the reviewer; it brings no profit to the pocket of the compiler—certainly none that will bear a moment's comparison with the toil, and generally money, bestowed upon it; in the nature of the case public gratitude for it is a posthumous reward. Most of these considerations hold good in the case of Savage's Dictionary, the Bible of the New England genealogist; all of them are pertinent to the late Mr. Teunis G. Bergen's 'Register, in alphabetical order, of the Early Settlers of Kings County, Long Island, N. Y., from its First Settlement by Europeans to 1700' (Bay Ridge, L. I.: Van Brunt Bergen. 8vo, pp. 452). The indefatigable compiler unhappily passed away in the midst of his labors before the volume was quite through the press. His 'Register' is an uncompromising roll of pioneers, of course mainly Dutch, sparsely lighted up with facts serving either to distinguish the individual or to illustrate the primitive times. There are, for example, few as picturesque figures as Nicholas Albertsen, suspected to be the one of Flatbush who "made his mark to documents in 1689," and who at all events was well marked himself, being "sentenced in 1658, for deserting his ship and betrothed bride after publication of banns, to have his head shaved, [his body] flogged, ears bored, and to work two years with the negroes." Thomas Gridy (or Greedy), from Devonshire, England, although one of the first settlers of Gravesend in 1646, and allotted a plantation-lot, was "publicly whipped and banished in the same year for theft." Per contra, Lady Deborah, widow of Sir Henry Mody (or Moody), "to avoid persecution in Massachusetts or New England, left said locality and came to New Netherlands, settling in 1643 in Gravesend among the more tolerant Hollanders," but was at once visited by a Puritan Providence in the shape of Indians, who in October drove her and her settlers off. One Abraham, of the great tribe of Jansen, but a mulatto, of Brooklyn, was summoned in March, 1658, "to appear before the council for abusing Sheriff Tonneman while collecting Dr. Polhemus's salary, and fined 12 gl. ($4.80), his excuse of not understanding the Dutch language being viewed as frivolous." In 1644 Huybert Jansen, with others, "was found guilty of cutting Peter Wolpherson (Van Couenhoven's) wainscot with their cutlases, for which he was sentenced to ride the wooden horse for three hours." Female apprenticeships were not uncommon, like that of John Grissell's daughter-in-law, Hanna Banan, whose two and a half years of service were to be requited "with two suits of 'comely and decent clothes,' and a heifer with calf, or one with a calf by her side." John Scudder's mill-pond in Bushwick was in 1668 "supposed to be the cause of the fever and ague prevailing in the vicinity, and as a preventive its dam was ordered by the court to be cut to let out the water." Under Op Dyck is an account of the early state of Coney Island, then consisting of three separate sand strips, known respectively from west to east as Coney I., Fire I., and Gisbert's I. (*i. e.*, Gisbert Op Dyck) or, later, Johnson's I. The Vans in this 'Register' fill sixty-one pages, and their descendants alone ought to ensure the success of the publication. The Vanderbilt family is of course conspicuous. It only remains to say that this work must forever be the prime general authority for the multitude of relationships involved in the author's researches, which no successor is at all likely to have the opportunity to repeat or to rival.

—Charm of style is perhaps the feature that one is least frequently called upon to praise in American medical literature. It is not that the difficulty inheres in the subject. A hundred writers, from Hippocrates and Vesalius to Sir Thomas Watson, might be adduced to show that nearly every branch of medical literature has been treated at once scientifically and with rhetorical grace. Professor Henry M. Lyman's book 'Artificial Anæsthesia and Anæsthetics' (New York: William Wood & Co.) does not profess to be more than a concise résumé, historical, physiological, and practical, of what is known upon the subject; but it is a lucid and complete survey, and has its classic trait in a felicitous manner which recalls Watson's clear arrangement and winning style, and West's or Anstie's vividness. Helmholtz has recently made his protest against the disfavor shown by his younger colleagues in scientific pursuits towards the art of form and presentation in their writings. That disfavor is a fashion which will have its day; but it would be curious to enquire how it originated, whether in race jealousies, which tinge even the dry light of science, or through an inescapable natural selection, pressing more sharply than ever the disjunction of the literary and the scientific habit of thought. But if, on the other hand, clearness, order, and vividness of style afford a presumption of the same qualities in the writer's intellectual processes, we shall be inclined to take sides with Professor Helmholtz, and to commend the method which Professor Lyman has followed in his useful manual. His publishers have given it a not undeserved compliment by adding it to their series of "Standard Medical Authors."

—Mr. Grove recently published in London papers a letter, of which a synopsis was given in these columns, expressing his belief in the probable existence of a tenth symphony by Schubert, and appealing to the proper authorities in Vienna to investigate the matter. Herr C. F. Pohl, librarian of the "Gesellschaft der Musikfreunde," has now sent to the *Neue Freie Presse* an answer to Mr. Grove's epistle, in which he expresses his firm conviction that a tenth symphony by Schubert does not exist, and that the dates and facts alluded to by Mr. Grove refer to the great symphony in C major. In the first place, if a tenth symphony had been written and presented to the Musik-Verein, the scrupulous punctuality of Baron von Knorr, the director of the society, would have ensured its being registered in 1826 in the catalogue of the archives. Then, again, Schubert could not have failed to mention this symphony to some one of his friends; but nothing was ever heard of it by either Sonnleithner, the sisters Fröhlich, Baron Schönstein, Bauernfeld, Spann, or his own brother Ferdinand. That the dates on MSS. are sometimes deceptive is proved among other things by the fact that Mozart, who died in 1791, wrote the date of 1792 on his Requiem. The great symphony in C major was entered in the catalogue of the archives in 1828, and if in 1838 Schumann found the score of this work at Ferdinand Schubert's, it must have been either a copy or else Schubert had sent it to be copied. When the association to which Herr Pohl belongs moved into their present new building the whole archives were examined and rearranged, and as they were consulted by Mr. Grove in their new arrangement, Dr. Pohl expresses surprise that he should have indulged in such hasty surmises, in disparagement of the directors of the musical society in question. Dr. Pohl begs those papers which noticed Mr. Grove's letter also to give a place to his reply.

—Those who went to Booth's Theatre on Monday evening expecting a tame performance from Signor Rossi must have been most agreeably disappointed. The interest excited by his *Othello*, while not very marked during the first act, grew steadily as the play went on, and by the time he had reached the great scene with *Iago* the audience had become fairly enthusiastic. He has to contend with the memory of a great rival in Salvini, and at every turn in the play, every intonation of voice, every gesture, every reading of the text, every piece of "business," a comparison was unavoidable. It must be said that he stood the test remarkably well. As an illustration of what may be done with an entirely unpoetical conception of the part his acting was perhaps even greater than Salvini's. The inherent difficulty in any representation of *Othello* is that an actor of refinement is apt to make us forget that he was a Moor, while an actor of strong tragic force makes us think of a negro. Signor Rossi's acting is open to the latter criticism. His *Othello* is a bluff, hearty, good-humored African, driven to rage and murder by suspicion and jealousy. Taking this view of the character, his acting must be pronounced very fine. The love passages were disfigured, to any devotee of Shakspere, by the sensual character of the passion displayed, yet all this is in thorough harmony with the other characteristics of *Othello*. We insist nowadays on a refined *Othello*, because we are refined ourselves and dislike displays of the "primary" feelings; and in the pursuit of refinement we have made *Othello* into a character somewhat different from what Shakspere had in mind. Of all Shakspere's tragedies, *Othello* has always seemed to us most emphatically a pure story told in a dramatic form. It is hard to see what any character in it "illustrates." *Iago* is a type of the revengeful, plotting Italian of the period, and *Othello* can hardly be said to bring home to us any important truth with regard to life, because he is by his temperament doomed from the

outset as the victim of his pretended friend. It is a pathetic and simple plot, which Shakspere made use of because he saw its dramatic possibilities We doubt very much if he ever thought of the Moor as a particularly refined lover, and we can imagine him liking Signor Rossi in the part very well. There is no question that the Italian actor knows very much more about Moors than the author of the play ever did, and would probably give Shakspere "points" with regard to Mauresque dressing, character, and general make-up. To justify the slight feeling of dissatisfaction with, his conception of the part which we confess to having felt, we must fall back on what is probably the settled conviction of all English and American critics—that no one can really understand Shakspere who has not English blood in his veins; and this because the *sentiment* of all the plays is at bottom English, no matter where the scene is laid or of what nationality the characters are.

—If the compendious 'Deutsche Geschichte'—now publishing by Velhagen & Klasing, Leipzig (New York: L. W. Schmidt), under the editorial direction of L. Stacke—had no other merit, that of a genius for illustrations on somebody's part must be accorded it. Fairly we might conclude, the publishers', remembering the analogous 'Deutsche Literaturgeschichte' of Robert Koenig, which has reached ten editions of nearly 40,000 copies. Parts III. and IV. of the former work have just appeared, covering the period from 1207 to the thick of the Thirty Years' War in 1631, when Magdeburg fell before Tilly. It is difficult to give an idea of the pictorial wealth of these chapters and the light they shed on manners, costumes, the arts of war and peace, superstitions, judicial processes, &c., &c. Innumerable camps and battle-fields, executions, torture, the judgment of God (Queen Kunigunde walking on hot ploughshares), Huss going to and at the stake, a game of the fifteenth century like blind-man's buff, a barbecue; the first Imperial seal, showing a distinct Gothic form (in the throne of the effigy); the first representation of Turkish warriors; the earliest printed church-political manifesto (from Faust and Schöffer's press); a fac-simile of a letter of indulgence (Gutenberg's imprint); the oldest preserved private dwelling in Germany—such are some of the subjects of the abundant engravings, mostly after contemporaneous prints and documents, of this interesting history. We must add, however, sundry initial letters in color, copies of illuminated MSS., and above all the long artistic array of portraits and character pieces after Dürer, H. Burgmaier, H. S. Beham, H. Holbein, L. Cranach, and Jost Ammann, which make this almost a history of German design. Publishers the world over should take notice of the fact that not a single illustration thus far has been trivial or imaginative, and that the announcement of five more instalments is consequently anything but formidable to the subscribers to the 'Deutsche Geschichte.'

—Kristofer Janson, the Norwegian poet, dramatist, novelist, and orator, landed in New York on the 7th of October, having come to this country for the purpose of visiting the Scandinavian settlements in the Northwest, and of extending his acquaintance, begun on his former visit in the winter of 1879-80, with the practical results of American institutions. Like Björnson, who was here a year ago, he is a republican in politics, and in religion he may be styled a Unitarian of the Channing school. To American readers he is chiefly known as an occasional contributor to *Scribner's Magazine*, and as the author of the 'Spell-bound Fiddler,' published by S. C. Griggs & Co. in Chicago. Mr. Janson was born May 5, 1841, in Bergen, Norway. His father being United States Consul in his native town, from childhood he took an interest in America. After completing a course in the Bergen Latin School, he entered the University of Norway and graduated in the theological department in 1865. While a student he became interested in the movement instituted by the eminent linguist, Ivan Aasen, to revive the Norse tongue, and create out of the dialects a national language in place of the Danish, which had been introduced during the four hundred years of Danish rule; and since his first novel was published, in 1866, he has maintained a position as the foremost advocate of this movement. Mr. Janson is one of the four poets in Norway (the other three are Björnson, Ibsen, and Lie) who receive an annual salary from the Storthing or Parliament as a recognition of their talents. This salary he has drawn since the publication of his historical romance 'Fraa Dansketidi' (Danish Days) in 1875. For many years he has been a teacher in the so-called people's high schools in Norway, a kind of educational institution similar to those established by Grundtvig in Denmark for the purpose of awakening among the grown-up sons and daughters of the peasants an interest in their country's history and literature. He has travelled extensively in northern, western, and southern Europe and in Iceland, and has published several books of observations on foreign countries. His stories are partly in the same vein as Björnson's, and partly historical. As an orator, also, Janson is very popular.

—'Die Semiten und ihre Bedeutung für die Kulturgeschichte' is the title of a pamphlet containing the first lecture of a course on the Semitic races and languages, delivered in 1878 at the University of Munich by Fritz Hommel, and now just published (Leipzig: O. Schulze; New York: Westermann). The author believes that the subject he has chosen has been unduly neglected, and that the comparative method applied to its study will produce as valuable results as in the case of the Indo-Germanic philology. Renan's work on the Semitic tongues deservedly aroused great interest at the time of its publication in 1855; but much of it has been superannuated by the Assyrian cuneiform discoveries of recent years, which have raised doubts on many questions that were considered definitively settled. The very term Semitic is now admitted to be a misnomer. After enumerating the nations and languages which are designated as Semitic, and fixing the geographical limits of the Semitic birthplace, the author surrenders considerable space to a warm vindication of the Semitic race—so warm, indeed, that he finds it necessary to mention that he is not of Jewish blood, nor actuated by any feeling of friendliness for the Jews of to-day, although, on the other hand, he disavows all sympathy with the anti-Semitic crusade. For the past four thousand years, he says, the stream of history has been formed by the confluence of two streams, the Semitic and the Indo-Germanic, compared with which all other tributaries are but as rivulets. If we ask what elements the Semitic race have contributed to our existing civilization, the answer will be that in the sphere of government, in art, science, and philosophy they have been far outstripped by their Indo-Germanic rivals; that they have done a great deal for industrial and material culture; but that their crowning merit rests in the service which they have rendered to religion. If they had done nothing else than present the world with monotheism, which was the indispensable forerunner of Christianity, and which has everywhere driven out the Indo-Germanic gods and mythologies, they would possess a lasting claim to the gratitude of mankind. And even in those qualities in which they are relatively inferior they have displayed a degree of excellence that is remarkable when we consider the early period at which it was developed. It must not be forgotten that we possess monuments of Semitic literature and art dating back to times which, as far as the Indo-Germanic race is concerned, are prehistoric; and that the latter is, in many respects, but the heir of the earlier civilization. The author gives a glowing account of the achievements of the various Semitic peoples; of the high degree of culture of the Babylonians; of the conquests of the Assyrians; of the widespread commerce of the Phœnicians, to whom the world owes the alphabet and the art of writing; of the services to civilization rendered in the Middle Ages by the Arabs, to whom we owe our system of numerals. The lecture is not, however, by any means a mere rhapsody; it gives signs of solid learning throughout, and is accompanied, in an appendix, by a philologic excursus on the peculiarities of structure of the Semitic languages.

THE EARLY LIFE OF LAMARTINE.

Mémoires inédits de Lamartine, 1790–1815. Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern. 1881.

THIS autobiography comprises the first twenty-five years of Lamartine's life, and therefore presents a picture of the growth of his mind and character at a very interesting period. We have his childhood, his school-days, his love affairs, his first entrance into manhood. Whether the picture is pleasing or not to the reader will depend almost entirely on whether he is of a sentimental turn. M. de Ronchaud, who writes the preface, has apparently found it rather difficult to reproduce the impression made upon his mind by the memoirs. He says that those who never knew Lamartine intimately will make the acquaintance through them of "un Lamartine familier": "a country gentleman, cultivating his fields and vineyards, as he has described his father doing before him; preserving, through the vicissitudes and glories and struggles of his life, his attachment to his native soil, his love of home, the sentiments and affections of his youth. It is the very substance of his nature which appears living in these memoirs." We must say that, while the last statement is undoubtedly correct, the substance of Lamartine's nature as we see it in these pages is a somewhat different sort of substance from that which M. de Ronchaud finds it. The substance of Lamartine's nature, if it is possible to express it in a single phrase, is sentimental, and we may almost say theatrical; and it is only by admitting this at the start that this curious volume of reminiscences can be appreciated.

It is impossible to suppress a pang of regret at knowing that any man who has made a great mark in literature is going to have his private life raked through by a biographer. In what he has said, and the impression he has made upon us, we have the most valuable memorial of him that can exist, and the chances are greatly against the knowledge of his private life adding anything to the dignity of his memory or the value of his permanent contribution to the literary possessions of the world. Of course it is idle to protest against publicity of this sort; the public curiosity on the subject is too keen to permit long the suppression of any important information that may be accessible on such subjects. It may be suspected, too, that there lurks in every human heart a jealousy as well as an admiration of all forms of greatness, which leads to a strong desire to know the private lives of great men, in order that our vanity may be soothed by dis-

covering that, notwithstanding their apparent grandeur, they were after all full of human weakness and sinfulness. The publicity given to the private details of their lives must in many cases be unfair to literary men, because the public never sufficiently cares to discriminate accurately the line which separates criticism of character from purely literary criticism. We have seen within the past year a great literary reputation almost destroyed by such a publication. Yet no one can say that Carlyle's 'French Revolution' and 'Sartor Resartus' are not just as valuable now as they were before we knew that Carlyle was meanly envious of the rich and great. The excesses of Byron's life do not deprive the magnificent poetry of parts of 'Childe Harold' of its value, any more than the virtues of Wordsworth will ever make many of his ballads seem anything but dull and uninteresting. The shade of Shakspere is all the mightier for our knowing so little of the man himself. If the debate over the authorship of Homer could be suddenly settled by the discovery of his life and correspondence, is it probable that the 'Iliad' or the 'Odyssey' would be quite the same poems to us that they have hitherto been?

Next to the absolute destruction of the records of a literary man's life, the best course for him to pursue is undoubtedly to give the public his own account of his private life. He knows the facts better than any one else, and he can put the best face upon them. He can explain what needs explanation and suppress what needs suppression; he can, if he has skill, make the book so attractive in itself that, whether the picture be accurate or not, it will be accepted. Whether Lamartine was led into the compilation of his reminiscences by such considerations as these, we do not know; but the picture he draws of his early life is composed with so much skill and delicacy of touch that the task of analysis seems almost cruel. Are we bound to analyze it at all? Lamartine was a poet, and his prose is the prose of a poet. Why should we trouble ourselves to enquire further as to its sincerity or accuracy?

"We live," he begins, "in our thoughts; in memory we live a second time; it is for this reason that I have at last decided to write my memoirs. I do it, not for the sake of vanity, like that inspired lunatic J. J. Rousseau, nor for humility's sake, like that heavenly madman St. Augustine. I believe myself neither the best nor the worst of men, but simply what God made me—a man of common and changeable character, cast into the world by Providence a little above ordinary human kind, perfected by my family—a family virtuous, pure, and noble with that nobility which does not glorify itself, but whose influence ever increases; led astray afterwards, though never bad at heart, but plunged into a frivolous and corrupt society, the unhealthy touch of which makes the soul shudder; then brought back and ripened by age to do as well as might be my work here below—for honor, remembering my father; for piety, my mother; growing old with resignation; submitting myself to the judgment of men, while awaiting with confidence that of my Creator. This is all. May He pardon me! I only ask of Him justice, for His justice is itself forgiveness."

Our translation is inadequate to convey the verbal niceties of this prelude in the original, but sufficiently gives its spirit. And what is it—humility or egotism, vanity or modesty, pious self-abnegation or self-glorification? The key to this problem is contained in the rest of the book.

In one of the opening chapters of the volume Lamartine gives a résumé of his entire life, in the course of which he makes the rather amusing statement that he single-handed "improvised the Republic" of 1848. Whether this is strictly true or not, his life was in great part that of a public man. As early as 1820 he was attaché at Naples. In 1824 he was secretary of the French Embassy at Florence, where from 1826 to 1829 he was *chargé d'affaires*. In 1833 he was elected a member of the Chamber of Deputies. In the Revolution of 1848 he certainly took a leading part; he was Minister of Foreign Affairs under the Provisional Government, and in the elections for the National Assembly received a majority of votes in ten departments, and towards the close of that year (1848) he was a candidate for the Presidency. Thus the better part of his mature life was spent in a political atmosphere. The reader, therefore, naturally turns to this volume to discover the intellectual sources of his interest in public affairs, the ideas or theories which lay behind his political career. The search, however, is hopeless, for the thing made most plain by his memoirs is that Lamartine never was at any period of his life a man of thought. The political ideas of his childhood and youth, which were strictly conservative, were inherited. Those which he took up when he "improvised" the Republic of 1848 were entirely akin to his mental and moral constitution; and that they should have failed to make any lasting impression upon his country is not remarkable. These memoirs, of course, belong to what seems now an almost antique time, and the present period of the world is more reflective and more critical than that of Lamartine's youth. Still, even in Lamartine's youth there were French boys who thought, and there were other French boys who merely felt. Our author clearly belonged to the latter class. There is no sign in this book of his ever having possessed any critical intellectual force, but there is plenty of evidence that at a very early date he was, like a true poet, keenly sensitive to impressions, to surroundings, to the beautiful in life and art.

His description of his childhood is on this account very pleasant reading. It carries us back to the old country life of France in the last century. His grandfather, a soldier during his youth, but now a retired country gentleman, with large estates in various parts of France, owning a forest in one department, vineyards in another, a ruined castle in a third, had his principal seat at Monceau, where life during the summer must have been carried on upon an almost magnificent scale; for we hear of terraces, of gardens, of clusters of vine-dressers' houses, plantations of silk-worms, a little private theatre for comedy, large *salons* always full of guests, and a stable full of horses for both masters and visitors. In his old age, however, the retired captain preferred the quiet of Macon, where, with his wife and children, he weathered the storm of the Revolution. Wealthy people had reasons for not making much display in those days. In the evening a few old friends, relatives, and quiet abbés used to make their appearance and silently sit down at the card-tables for a game of Boston or a rubber of whist; but the play, as became a time of revolution and disaster, was very low; and when it was over, each one, lighting his paper lantern, crept noiselessly home to bed, in mortal dread of rousing the suspicions or jealousy of the neighbors. The Hôtel Lamartine and all the other possessions of the family, in due course of time, would have gone to the eldest son; and we find the heart of the head of the family saddened at the thought that his other children must under the new laws share equally with him. His wife, too, felt that the division would be no better than robbery. All three generations live together as one family till the death of the grandparents, when the division of the estate takes place among their children. "The abstraction of equality," Lamartine says, "prevails with difficulty over nature," and in the Lamartine family the old traditions were much too strong for the law. His father refused absolutely to profit by it, and "thus he remained poor and much beloved by the rest of the family." Among them a division was made, but we find the family estate at Macon preserved for common use during the winters. Next we have an interesting description of the emigration of the poorer branch of the family to Milly—a long procession of ox-carts, Lamartine's mother being in the first, with two little children between her knees, and a third at the breast; his father walking in huntsman's costume, a gun in one hand, occasionally helping the cart out of a rut with the other. After this there is a charming description of the new life of the family at Milly, which was evidently a very different affair from that of the Hôtel Lamartine. But whatever the faults of Lamartine, a mean love of money and position was not among them. He looks back upon the simple life of his childhood with a pure affection. His attachment to his family is, perhaps, of all the various emotions expressed in this volume, the most sincere, and it is expressed with that delicacy of sentiment which gives so much of his prose an essentially poetical character.

Childhood over, a description of his life at a French boarding-school follows, of which the most interesting episode is a free-fight between the head master and one of the boys, who has refused to go down on his knees in the presence of the school and beg pardon of one of the professors for some trifling fault. A terrible scene ensues, in which the instructor is tumbled over on to the floor; the boy tears out a good part of the master's hair; the servants appear, armed with various deadly kitchen utensils, to rescue the master; and they finally succeed, after a fearful struggle, in ejecting the rebellious scholar, half dead, into the street, where he is left without any further attention being paid to him. This scene filled little Lamartine with horror, and he resolved to run away. An opportunity soon presented itself when the school was permitted to indulge in a curious holiday sport. This consisted in hanging a live goose in the air with its head down, and in trying, blindfolded, to cut the head off with a sabre. The youthful Lamartine, disgusted with the cruelty of the game, enabled a friend of his, by a preconcerted signal, to strike the head master instead of the goose, and then, seizing the occasion, he delivered an address to this companion and his brother, which, considering his age to have been eleven years, is as finished an oration on the education of youth as we remember to have met with. The orator and his audience now took their departure, but were almost immediately recaptured.

His miseries at this school were finally ended by his being taken away and placed with some Jesuits, where he seems to have been very happy. His education over, his love affairs begin; and this part of the book is a curious revelation of character. We have already referred to the elevation of sentiment so noticeable in Lamartine with regard to money. It is the same, in theory at least, with regard to love. Love with him is a romantic and absorbing passion, the only perfectly pure and unselfish emotion the heart can know, and such at the outset we should think the attachment between Mademoiselle Henriette P. and a gentleman to whom he modestly refers as "the charming young man from Milly" must have been. They were both very young, very innocent, and one of them at least was very sentimental. The curious part of the affair is the way in which it dies out. His family was opposed to a marriage, and persuaded him to set off on his travels. "I left Mademoiselle P.," he says quietly, "for a few months only, with the certainty of finding her always faithful, while I never doubted that I

should bring back to her a heart for ever devoted." This is pretty much the last we hear with reference to Henriette, with the exception of a brief and business-like correspondence between a member of her family and himself, which terminates in his surrender of all claims, and her almost immediate marriage to another and more wealthy suitor. Then we have some very prettily-expressed regret at the sudden ending of this youthful dream of happiness. It is apparent, however, that what really ended it was the fact that the author liked travelling in Italy better than Mademoiselle Henriette's society, and that he had completely forgotten about her the moment he had got out of France. He had, indeed, had one or two love-affairs before receiving the letter of enquiry from her relative, and, instead of going home when he might, he insisted on continuing his travels. This is all very natural, perhaps; but it is told with a naïveté that only a thorough-paced sentimentalist could carry off. We see through the shallowness of the whole thing, but we forgive it, because it is done with such delicacy, such simplicity. It is really a story of desertion; but then it is a story charmingly told. A prettier story still is that of Graziella, the poor fisherman's daughter, the beginning of which is given in these pages, with her touching love-letter: "Già che sei partito non posso più restar. Non ti rivedrò mai: la Damizella." He calls Graziella his "first love," but this is clearly a mistake.

Sainte-Beuve is reported to have said, on being asked which he preferred—Lamartine, Chateaubriand, or Victor Hugo—"Charlatan pour charlatan, j'aime mieux Lamartine," and there is a good deal to justify the classification in the volume before us. All three writers belong to the romantic school, and it was a school which never hesitated to juggle with words or with sentiments. One reason why they are all so untranslatable is that any translation reads like a travesty. These memoirs in English would probably go far to damn Lamartine irrevocably with English readers, while in French they have a certain naturalness. But it is hardly fair to call it the book of a charlatan. A charlatan must perform his tricks consciously; Lamartine is never consciously an impostor. He has a profound appreciation of everything that is noble and elevated and refined. He likes to hear himself talk about it. He revels in the facility of expression which this keen appreciation gives him. Consequently, he lives in an atmosphere as different from that of ordinary every-day life as a painter or a musician does. He must not be judged by intellectual or moral tests, but by those of style, of expression, of imagination.

THE GOSPEL OF ÆSTHETICISM.

Lares and Penates; or, The Background of Life. By Mrs. Caddy, author of 'Household Organization' and 'Artist and Amateur.' London: Chatto & Windus.

It is well known that there exists in England a small sect of persons who propose—Christianity having thus far failed in the purpose of its existence—to regenerate mankind by means of the new gospel of Æstheticism. Where the example and the exhortations of prophets and apostles have been fruitless, they trust to the soft, persuasive influences of blue china to lead the erring soul to the practice of virtue. What the Sermon on the Mount can no longer accomplish upon the hard hearts of the present generation, a house furnished with a scrupulous regard for artistic sensibilities may be trusted to do. The fundamental principle of the new gospel appears to be similar to that of the old adage about a hair of the dog that bit one. Hitherto preachers and moralists have counselled those who desired to ascend into the regions of the higher life against the pomps and vanities of this wicked world—the desire of the eyes and the pride of life. The preachers of the gospel of Æstheticism reverse this process. It is by means of and through the desire of the eyes and the pride of life that they hope to elevate fallen mankind to those serene heights whereon they themselves walk as gods. Artistic culture, according to these teachers, is the final end and purpose of man's existence, and the careful education of "the taste" the means by which he may hope to achieve it. The great high-priests and interpreters of the new faith are the men and women who have succeeded most perfectly in the building and furnishing of houses according to the principles of a delicate and luxurious æstheticism. A color that wounds the artistic eye, a piece of furniture that does not harmonize with its surroundings—these replace, among the votaries of this new creed, the worm which dieth not and the fire that is not quenched. They walk sorrowfully in a world that is filled with ugliness, and among men and women who have no adequate sense, and too often no sense at all, of the depraving influences of "the Ugly." But there is here and there an oasis in the desert. Amid "the waste of column and of coping," there are, here and there in London, houses which realize the æsthetic ideal, and where the wearied spirit of the forlorn and outraged æsthete may find rest and refreshment.

The book before us describes some of these exceptional residences. Mrs. Caddy is indeed an æsthete of the æsthetes—the most devout believer in the saving influences of upholstery that we remember to have ever encountered in the walks of literature. Her feelings are, in truth, not unfrequently too much for her; so that when the furniture is specially good she is apt, in attempting to describe it, to become incoherent and unintelligible. Her book opens with a sort of invocation to or description of "Taste," from which we learn that "taste" is "the surface of science"; also that it is "a thing of growth," and "a plant that must be pruned and root-pruned, or it will suck the life-juices." Fine taste, however, "is best taught by examples," and especially, it would appear, by means of houses. According to Mrs. Caddy,

"One house will display its own beauty; another will retire as a background to a well-chosen collection; one is devoted to easy leisure; another is Venice or Rome in miniature. One owner will have laid out his wealth in the happiest investment—fine art, the poetry of work; a second will have nothing, yet possess all things, through his perception of the harmony underlying all objects of God's creation, and the melody that floats on its surface."

The reader of this extraordinary paragraph feels himself a good deal "mixed" before he gets to the end. He started with houses—that was clear—and, apparently, it is about houses that the lady is talking all along; but what have houses to do with "the harmony underlying all objects of God's creation, and the melody that floats upon its surface"? These things are, we presume, parables the meaning of which is hidden from the grosser sense of an unæsthetic world, which, seeing, does not see, and, hearing, does not understand.

Among the houses described by Mrs. Caddy as realizing, in different ways, the ideal of æstheticism, are those belonging respectively to Lady Marian Alford, Sir Frederick Leighton, the President of the Royal Academy of Arts, and Mr. Alma Tadema, the well-known artist. These mansions are all described with much enthusiasm and considerable unintelligibility. "Gell's descriptions of Pompeiian houses," Mrs. Caddy tells us, "are at once my example and my despair; for he is aided by exquisite illustrations, and our curiosity about gems of antique art is aroused, with many fine passions and latent powers." One cannot but regret that Mrs. Caddy gives no further account of "the many fine passions and latent powers" which Gell's descriptions are so effective to enkindle, because it would be worth while to invest even a considerable sum of money in the purchase of Gell, if he could be securely relied on for even one "fine passion." "*Many* fine passions and latent feelings" is so very large an order that it awakens distrust of the capacity of Gell. Mrs. Caddy, too, is obviously not as other people are; and it is only too possible that Gell can arouse "fine passions" in her artistic breast which he could not awaken in the normally-constituted human being.

But let us proceed to Mrs. Caddy's descriptions. It must be acknowledged that, though deprived of the assistance of "Gell's exquisite illustrations," she has acquitted herself very well. She has struck out a line of her own—at least, we never remember to have seen a house described after the manner which we suppose is natural to Mrs. Caddy. Of Lady Marian Alford's house we are told:

"The chairs are chairs, and not lounges; the pleasure spread before one here demands too much activity from the mind to be compatible with sloth, and yet it does not importune by a persistent claim on the attention; it is a cordial, rather than the medicinal draught too many of our dogmatic houses resemble. This is no burden; it is rather a bunch of roses that we carry."

This passage would have delighted Dr. Blimber, who, as we learn from the pages of 'Dombey and Son,' "liked a metaphor." "A dogmatic house resembling a medicinal draught" would be worth crossing the Atlantic to see. Mrs. Caddy, it would seem, has to take a good deal of medicine in the shape of these "dogmatic houses." Of Sir Frederick Leighton's house we are told that it appeals

"mainly to a certain class of intellectual faculties—namely, the perceptive; and even here it speaks only to already cultivated admirers. Here are neither children, animals, nor musical instruments. Perhaps it is enough that one should drink in melody through the eyes. This house is an admirable grouping in still life; . . . a background to the life of persons of full-grown mind, with whom the mouth is used for conversation, not for song, and only necessarily for food. Such people value wine for its glow as they would a ruby. Persons of this order of intellect (unless highly self-disciplined) welcome their peers; they would also welcome the angels; but others are less valued for themselves than for certain picturesque qualities which may lift them above the gross of mankind in general."

Here, again, we must complain of becoming very much "mixed." We start with a house which has the peculiar property of "appealing to the perceptive faculty." Houses of this kind, we are told, are chiefly built by "full-grown persons," who use their mouths for conversation, "and only necessarily for food." People who apply their mouths to the discharge of these unnatural functions "welcome their peers, and also angels," but are remarkable for giving only the cold shoulder to "the general gross of mankind." These mysteries are too deep for us. We give them up, and pass on to Mr. Alma Tadema's house. This house reminded Mrs. Caddy

"of Rome, where the pervading feeling is classical, and yet one meets with many styles; as a symphony has several movements—from the grand and pompous march, the plaintive *adagio* or sweet *andante*, to the buoyant *scherzo* or whirl of the *presto*. . . . . I felt at once in this house the spirit of Rome, the soul of the an-

tique ; a classicism fit for human needs, for soul and body ; a classicism free from the paltry narrowness which will divide a honeysuckle pattern rigorously in half, and invert it to make it fit on a corner, and hug itself with joy that now no less classical weed can grow there the right way up."

There is only one passage in polite literature which we can compare to this concluding burst about "the honeysuckle." It is the close of Sam Weller's valentine, and informs "Mary" that her likeness "was took on my hart in much quicker time and brighter colors than ever a likeness was took by the profeel macheen, altho it *doe* finish a portrait, and put the frame and glass on completely with a hook at the end to hang it up by, and all in two minutes and a quarter." There is a great deal more to the same unintelligible purport in Mrs. Caddy's book as the passages we have extracted, but this is not to be wondered at. The inevitable result of attempting to establish a nonsensical thesis is that a great deal of nonsense has to be talked in the endeavor.

GIPSIES AND THEIR WAYS.

In Gipsy Tents. By Francis Hindes Groome. Second edition. Edinburgh : Wm. P. Nimmo & Co. 1881.

It is natural that curiosity should invest a class of people which, though found in the midst of almost all civilized nations, chooses to isolate itself to a great extent, and, as if from uncontrollable heredity, persists in adherence to a mode of life essentially nomadic. For it is thus that the Gipsies, on the slightest observation, lend themselves to be characterized ; and, until a comparatively recent period, if we add to this characterization the half-proved surmise of their Hindu extraction, and the general persuasion of their propensity to light-fingeredness, there was little else to say of this strange and interesting tribe.

Now, however, the ignorance of past times regarding them is, in good measure, dispelled. Research has discovered that the designations which have been given to them in various parts of Europe can pretend to no historic foundation. As little are the Gipsies by descent Egyptians, or Tartars, or Bohemians—to mention a few of the many names which have been imposed on them—as "Romans" ; the term *Rómano*, by which they call themselves, having apparent reference to New Rome, or Constantinople, in the neighborhood of which they may have made a prolonged halt in the course of their migration westward. Inasmuch as the radical element of their purer dialect is obviously allied to some mediæval Hindu language, it is placed beyond a doubt that they originated from India. Yet the time at which they bade farewell to their old home is not likely ever to be ascertained better than very vaguely. As to their first presence in Europe, Dr. Miklosich, at least to his own satisfaction, finds traces of it as far back as A.D. 810. It is determined, at all events, as a fact that more or fewer of them were domiciled as slaves in Wallachia in 1372. They emerge into sight in other European countries not long after, or in 1417.

The fashion of arrogating regal and nobiliary titles, which everywhere obtains among the Gipsies, is a peculiarity of long establishment with them. Every one has heard of Gipsy kings and queens ; but the Gipsies of old did not stop at the simple division of themselves into royalets and subjects. In 1445 an emblazoned monument was erected at Steinbach in honor, according to the inscription on it, of "the high-born lord, Lord Panuel, Duke in Little Egypt, and Lord of Hirschhorn in the same land." Another similar monument at Pforzheim, dated in 1498, commemorated "the high-born Lord Johann, Earl of Little Egypt." Intermediately, in 1453, still another, at Bautma, marked the resting-place of a second Gipsy of the same assumed rank, "the noble Earl Peter of Kleinschild." Nor were the titles of Gipsies attested by epitaphs alone. In 1505 James IV. of Scotland formally commended to a brother sovereign, him of Denmark, one "Anthony Gawin, Earl of Little Egypt" ; and in 1540 his successor granted letters, under the great seal, to "oure lovit Johnne Faw, Lord and Erle of Litill Egipt." In connection with the inscriptions spoken of above, it is pertinent to note the scrupulous solicitude manifested by Gipsies, in spite of the latitudinarian complexion of their practical Christianity, to be buried in consecrated ground, and also to have their children baptized at church with due formalities.

Considering that, as has been remarked, the high titular pretensions of Gipsies were in former ages allowed in divers quarters, we have the less cause for wonder in learning that these wanderers were, here and there, the recipients, at the hands of our forerunners, of notice which would now be reckoned somewhat eccentric, to say the least. Some time between 1513 and 1524, as we are told on good authority, Thomas, Earl of Surrey, bestowed sumptuous hospitality on a party of "Gypsions," at Tendring Hall, in Suffolk. A few years later it was not beneath the dignity of a Scotch king, James V., to attend a Gipsy dance at Holyrood House. But, perhaps not without justification, the reputableness of Gipsies, in Great Britain as elsewhere, early declined, and is still far from being wholly rehabilitated. The mere fact of being "Egyptians," or even of consorting with them, was long accounted felony, and was rigorously treated as such, especially in Scotland. In 1577 eight Gipsies suffered death at Aylesbury ; in 1592 five were hanged at Durham ; shortly before the Restoration thirteen were executed at Bury St. Edmunds ; and this melancholy list might be greatly extended. The delinquencies of these poor creatures, so far as can be made out, were, if anything at all, by no means of the gravest.

If full credit be due to the claims which have been advanced for the Gipsies by one and another of their more enthusiastic and exacting advocates, the world is indebted to them "for having introduced metallurgy, playing-cards, saddlery, Protestantism, folk-tales, Magyar music, glass-making, and fast-and-loose ; for having produced Solario, John Bunyan, and the 'Tinclarian Doctor,'" etc., etc. As regards their influence in the sphere of speech, besides that they have left a distinct imprint on the slang of our mother-tongue, it is contended that they imported the parent of the Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese *basto*, "pack-saddle" ; and that of the modern Greek τζαγγάρης, "shoemaker."

For reasons which are not far to seek, the Gipsies are a race remarkable for robust health and for length of life. There are, indeed, many instances satisfactorily certified—some of which are particularized in the volume before us—of their having attained to great longevity. By one of these instances (and it is not the most extraordinary that might be adduced) were suggested, besides an epitaph of befitting seriousness, the vigorous lines of the Rev. Legh Richmond, rector of Turvey, in Bedfordshire :

> "Here lies Jim, the wandering Gipsy,
> Who was sometimes sober, yet oftener tipsy ;
> But with the world he seemed to thrive,
> For he lived to the age of a hundred and five."

Details like the bulk of the foregoing chequer, in abundance, the work with which we are occupied, but yet do not constitute its chief staple. Of Mr. Groome's most complete competence to discourse on the literature to which, as a subject of investigation, the Gipsies have given birth, there is indisputable evidence in his learned contribution to the new edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' That literature, now grown to the dimensions of a small library, and requiring for its adequate appraisal a knowledge of all the leading languages of Europe, he there affords proof that he has mastered in its entirety. But his acquaintance with his clients, under whatever aspect, is in no wise simply that of a scholarly and critical compiler. With the Gipsies of actual life he is, in all likelihood, more familiar, from personal intercourse with them, than any other person, whether of bygone or of modern times, not himself of their fraternity. Hence it is that, what with kindly warmth of interest, a gift of keen observation, and striking executive ability as a reporter, he has succeeded in portraying his humble friends with a freshness and a vividness which distinguish no other book of which they have as yet formed the topic. If Gipsies are reserved and suspicious, they are so, as it is made out pretty clearly, mainly because they are accustomed to be suspected. To Mr. Groome they are open enough ; and, as human beings, they could hardly be otherwise to one who has acquired such an intimacy with their dialect as to have enriched its store of verse with renderings of Burns's "Jolly Beggars" and Goethe's "King of Thule." If only as a well-timed and effective antidote to Mr. George Smith's too disparaging 'Gipsy Life,' 'In Gipsy Tents' may be recommended with all confidence. On other grounds, however, it is a production of sterling worth, and from beginning to end is unflaggingly instructive and engaging.

Gipsies, vouched for as genuine by their brethren and kinsmen abroad, are scattered over the United States in hundreds, if not in thousands. We have them among us from Great Britain, Germany, Hungary, and Spain, and probably from other countries as well ; yet our information concerning them is barely better than a blank. Who shall say that Mr. Groome would not be rewarded for his trouble if he were to come over here, look them up, explore their antecedents, and depict them ? No one, assuredly, could approach them in a more conciliatory spirit, or do them more intelligent, discriminating, and sympathetic justice.

A POPULAR HISTORY OF SWITZERLAND.

Switzerland. By Harriet D. S. Mackensie. Boston : D. Lothrop & Co.

To narrate the important events of modern history in such a way as really to interest the public is a task of which no writer need feel ashamed, yet nearly all "popular" histories are worthless, because history is a branch of knowledge upon which every one feels at liberty to write, whatever may be his disqualifications of knowledge or of temper. The history of Switzerland is especially instructive to all interested in the political, social, and religious questions of our own day, for that country has been a free field for experiments of all kinds. But writers of popular histories have been so blinded by the garish light of certain apocryphal but melodramatic events, or else, like the present writer, so indifferent to the unvarnished truth, that such knowledge as can be obtained from their works is little better than none at all.

The volume before us is very prettily printed and bound, and is rendered still more attractive by one hundred agreeable views of Swiss scenes. The style, moreover, is very good ; but the author's qualifications for writing history may be inferred from the following extract, in which the italics are ours :

"In these days of change all the old historical landmarks known to other generations are liable

to be taken up and put down in other places, or even to be removed altogether. We are not allowed *to love the Stuarts* and hate Henry VIII. with the simplicity of fifty years ago, while the wave of progress has threatened to sweep William Tell away entirely. But many people are still found who will be disposed to share the feelings of the Waldstätten on this point. When *Haller* published his doubts as to the story of the apple, in 1760, they immediately burned *the whole* edition of his book, so that a copy can *scarcely* now be found. As to Tell's existence, one would suppose it sufficiently vouched for by the presence of a hundred people who had known him in life, at the dedication of the memorial chapel, only thirty years after his death. *The details of the story do not signify so much.*"

The real "William Tell" is so familiar as to obviate the necessity of re-examining the question of his origin and growth, but it is worth while to point out the dishonesty of this way of writing. *If* one hundred people, who had known him, met to do him honor only thirty years after his death, there can of course be no doubts as to his existence. Then, if the details are immaterial, the cross-examination of any witness who tells a plausible story is equally so. Tell's adventure is alleged to have happened in 1307, and though we have several chronicles, written in the intervening period, which contain comprehensive descriptions of the battle of Morgarten, the first allusion to Tell's act or person occurs one hundred and sixty years later; while the story, in its present symmetrical form, we owe to the inventive genius of Johannes von Müller. How, therefore, can we know of a meeting of Tell's admirers thirty years after his death? To point out all the misstatements we have found would far exceed our space, but we may say here that not Von Haller, but the pastor Freudenberger, wrote the book the edition of which was burned in Uri in 1760.

The entire mediæval period is treated in the same manner. The mythical Arnold of Winckelried figures as large as life, and general mistakes like the following are frequent: "The bishop had the right of supremacy in the city [Geneva], which had been granted long before by the *French kings*." Servetus, to whom, however heretical his opinions were in Calvin's eyes, no one can deny the name of being a fervent Christian, is termed an atheist. Of Leventina, it is said that "it passed from the rule of the Italian *Visconti* to that of Uri"; for Visconti read Sforza. Of Neuchâtel, it is said that having, before 1707, been subject to the *Habsburgs* (really the House of Orange, to the last representative of which the then King of Prussia was the heir-at-law), it then became a Prussian province; which is as if we were to say that Hanover was an English province previous to 1837, or that Norway is a Swedish province, or Luxemburg a Dutch. Apparently, whenever the author makes a special effort to be accurate, she makes a gratuitous blunder. Thus she calls the Geneva politician James Fazy, *Jacques*. Fazy was christened Jean Jacob, but called himself, and was universally known, by the name, not of Jacques, but of James. The purely Swiss names of "Toggenburgs and Bonstettens" are enumerated (p. 125) as "Austrian nobility." But perhaps the most amusing blunder is where the author speaks (p. 440) of German revolutionists raising the "black and yellow" (Austrian) colors—the first step in such enterprises having been the display of the old imperial standard, whose colors, black, red, and gold, were deemed as typical of liberty and unity as the Austrian were of separation and oppression. Another instance of perverse inaccuracy is too important to be passed over: "In 1862, the restoration of the valley of Dappes to the canton of Vaud, which had been robbed of it by the first Napoleon in 1804, went far to pacify the republic. Soon afterwards there was again a risk of misunderstanding at the time of Mazzini's attempt on the Emperor's life." Now, instead of Dappes having been held by France, 1805 (not 4) to 1862, it was so held only till 1814, and, in 1862, instead of being restored to Switzerland, the latter was forced to hand over a portion of what it already possessed to France. As to Mazzini, what was at the time merely a suspicion (and probably an insincere suspicion) on the part of the French Government, to support which there has never been a particle of evidence, is here given as an unquestioned fact.

How careless is Miss Mackensie's treatment not of details, but of general events, may be illustrated by her account of the troubles in Zug, 1729-36, "the question in dispute being whether a *monopoly* in Burgundian salt should still be allowed, or whether salt should be imported also from the *Tyrol*. After many years of trouble the Burgundian salt won the day, and from that time reigned exclusively in the cookery of Zug." The non-popular account of this affair is that in 1691, Zug troops being then in French pay, Austria forbade Zug's importing salt from Swabia; whereupon the French allowed the exportation of Burgundian salt below the market price. As to the constitution, nothing is said of the revision of 1874, or of the unique and highly-instructive peculiarities of Swiss public law. Occasionally, too, we think some of the details given must be due to the author's imagination. Thus, in describing Swiss affairs during the war of 1870, we are told that the Swiss soldiers, as they marched, sang the German national song, the "Wacht am Rhein"; and that when Bourbaki's soldiers "crossed the line every man laid down his arms, until the swords, bayonets, and *yataghans* were heaped up like a hill." We are familiar with soldiers stacking their arms upon surrender, and with throwing them away in flight, but we never before heard of a demoralized army preserving discipline exactly to the point of raising a monument of yataghans. In conclusion, we may say that the author not only has not thought out for herself any rational explanation of the events described, but shows no signs of having grasped those of the writers with whose works she may be supposed to be acquainted.

The proof-reading and index are more than worthy of the text. In the latter we find Doubts of William Tell entered under D; College of Geneva, under C; half the names of persons under their given names; two saints under S; and Linden, a party-name, entered as a place. Of apparent misprints, we notice Haslithal *Valley*, Berne minister, Hohenzollerens, Nuremburg, Chenaur (throughout) for Chenaux, Urs (throughout) for Orso, Furno for Forni, Eidsgenossen, Inspruch, Caronge, Chal[b]lais, Fancigny. Siegwart-Müller, whenever mentioned, is given only the first half of his name, and so on. We may seem to have given to a work of small pretensions altogether more attention than it deserves; but it is time a protest should be made against the "popular" histories with which we are overrun. In the present case, too, the appearance of such a work is doubly to be regretted, because there is (in English, if we except the translation of Zschokke) no respectable Swiss history to which the public may be referred.

In the Brush; or, Old-Time Social, Political, and Religious Life in the Southwest. By Rev. Hamilton W. Pierson, D. D., with illustrations by W. L. Sheppard. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881. 12mo, pp. 321.

Not long ago we noticed a little work on 'Pioneer Life in the West,' by the Rev. J. B. Walker, and now we have scarcely less interesting reminiscences by a brother minister, relating to a section which, though vaguely denominated "the Southwest," we gather to be chiefly the hill country of Kentucky and Tennessee. The two volumes are almost identical in shape and size, and so externally as well as internally have a fit companionship on the same shelf. The "old-time," however, of 'In the Brush,' does not antedate 1843, when Dr. Pierson went South as a Tract Society inspector; and most of the scenes and adventures he describes probably occurred in the period 1853-58, when he was an itinerant agent of the American Bible Society. The reasons for his nearly absolute reticence as to names, localities, and dates can be readily imagined and appreciated, but the value of his narrative is not a little impaired by this precaution. Take it altogether, however, the work commends itself as that of a writer of more than ordinary literary dexterity, graphic power, and sense of humor. It preserves and exemplifies a large number of Southern Americanisms, and shows in a great variety of lights the life of the rude people whose minds he was to prepare for the colporteur, bringing Bibles to sell or at all events to give away. We have never seen a clearer or more picturesque account of a barbecue than that given on pp. 92-94. Weddings and "basket-meetings" and "candidatings," the torchlight funerals of slaves, the every-day and the extraordinary hospitality of the lords of hog and hominy and the single-room log-cabin, tell of a civilization only partly shattered by the civil war, and doubtless still lingering in its larger traits.

The truthfulness of the following passage will receive instant recognition (p. 78):

"Perhaps some statement in explanation of this 'rough' but abounding hospitality of the people in the Brush is demanded in justice to those persons and places whose hospitality would seem to suffer in the contrast. I might enumerate many circumstances connected with life in a wild, unsettled country that will occur to most readers as the cause of this abounding hospitality; but it seems to me that the chief reason is the fact that meat, bread, and all their provisions, excepting groceries, cost them so very little. They estimate what they can use scarcely more than the water taken from their springs. Beef, pork, and bread cost them almost nothing. Their cattle run at large, and their free range includes thousands of acres of unoccupied lands. They grow and increase in this manner with but little attention or care. The hogs find their food in the woods the greater part of the year, and in the fall they fatten upon the nuts or 'mast.' . . . With this unusually abundant supply of food, which, on account of the bad roads and the distance from market, has but little pecuniary value; with houses and accommodations such as I have described; with but few books, newspapers, and other kinds of reading; with a dearth of the excitements and amusements of the outside world, it is not so strange or wonderful that they are eager for pleasures and enjoyments that involve these dis plays of hospitality."

The glimpses of Southern political customs are among the most amusing in the book, and we should be glad to dwell on them. "There is a fine crowd here, and I am going to make a speech," said a candidate, with a keen eye to business opportunities, at the close of one of Dr. Pierson's meetings, which he had already interrupted. The intruder was hustled from the room and clapt in jail, but was chivalrously bailed out by his opponent and was elected the next day. Still gayer is the account of the youthful rival of the Hon. Lynn Boyd, Speaker of the House of Representatives from 1851 to 1855, who retained his place by "the 'still hunt' method of electioneering," until aspirants for his place got not only weary but gray. The etiquette of the canvass required that any candidate who called a meeting in the district should notify all the others, that they might have a chance to attend and present their own

claims. Our young scapegrace, in a district without railroads, purchased a fleet horse and duly published his list of appointments, "but made these appointments so far apart—some eighty miles or more—that it was impossible for his venerable opponent to ride the distance. He had complied with the 'letter of the law,' but it was one of those cases where 'the letter killeth.' . . . In this manner he canvassed the district alone. He made his speeches, and had no one to answer them," and of course "'made the political race.'"

The irrepressible negro cuts but a small figure in these pages. Dr. Pierson's task of providing every white family with a Bible was possible on the sole condition that the book was not placed in the hands of slaves. He knew it as his employers knew it; but that the blacks should get their knowledge of the Scriptures only at second and third hand does not seem to have troubled him, and it would not be strange if in his eyes the fact that the most illiterate white in his circuit had no Bible in his house, was of vastly greater concern than the brute condition of the whole black population. It is inferrible from an incidental remark on page 311 that in the effort to force the Tract Society to publish tracts on slavery he would have taken sides with those who resisted. He does relate at some length, and without his usual secretiveness, the remarkable career of a Kentucky slaveholder who, in his will, gave freedom to his children by his colored mistress (his only wife), and provided for their prosperity by ruthlessly ordering his other slaves to be sold in New Orleans, and with "exceeding cruelty" (we quote Dr. Pierson), "not in families, but each one alone." This is said to have "horrified even his pro-slavery neighbors." Dr. Pierson was a very acceptable visitor at this man's house, and learned from him his terrible feelings at the thought of the fate of his daughters in slavery. We might have expected the minister to recommend emancipating them at once, but he does not seem to have done so. He did, however, furnish the greatest consolation by "the sweet message, 'The blood of Jesus Christ cleanseth from *all* sin.'"

A large part of Dr. Pierson's reminiscences of course connect themselves with the religious condition or rather destitution of the people among whom he rode and slept and labored so many years. He has some very forcible remarks (p. 238) on the native illiterate preaching, of which he thinks verbatim reports would greatly favor an educated ministry, and some such he gives, of the drollest sort. What strikes the candid reader, however, is that while the "preaching" (*i. e.*, the expounding) of Scripture texts by those unable to read them intelligibly to themselves or to others wounds our author's susceptibilities, the religious "experiences" of their still more illiterate parishioners, converted by these means, seem to him to have a peculiar value—higher, one would think, than the religious convictions of the cultivated. Compare pp. 250, 251, for example, with pages 110-112.

We had marked but did not cite from Mr. Walker's 'Pioneer Life,' the curious printer's error—"homo soit que mal y pense"; but this is easily surpassed by the following verses in Dr. Pierson's generally well-printed volume (p. 289):

> "Bemi soit bien [Dieu] qui chaque jour
> Nous comble de ses biens,
> Et dont s'inconvenable [l'inconcevable] amour
> A rompu nos liens."

Or do the Haytian negroes enjoy the privilege of an illiterate hymnology?

Japanese Episodes. By Edward H. House. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1 vol. sq. 12mo, pp. 247.

THE author of this dainty little book is a veteran journalist, some of whose best work has been done among that one Asiatic people which is the pet of all good Americans. The friend and companion of Hildreth, who, at the time of Perry's expedition, wrote the still invaluable compend of 'Japan as it Was and Is,' Mr. House became early interested in the Japanese. After our civil war, in which he was one of the first and best of the correspondents in the field, he served on the staff of the *Tribune* for several years; but, unable to resist the charms of the newly-opened island empire, he went to Japan in 1870. There, while a brilliant and successful teacher in the Government schools, he was also a diligent student of the fascinating antiquities of old Nippon. He was the first to propound the theory of the identity of the great conqueror Genghis Khan with the Japanese hero Yoshitsuné—a theory since wrought out so plausibly by Suyematz, one of his pupils, in a work printed in London. As a correspondent his pen was not idle, and his letters, which pricked the bubble of American snobbishness at the unsophisticated court of the Mikado, which exposed the true nature of the Macao coolie traffic as exemplified by the Peruvian vessel *Maria Luz*, which, more than any other cause, secured the recall of Mr. De Long, and which laid bare the true character and quality of the employees sent from Washington to Tokio at myriad-dollar salaries, and which, finally, illustrated the Japanese occupation of Formosa, are worthy of remembrance as among the achievements of American journalism. From 1877 to 1880, Mr. House edited the Tokio *Times*, which, with all its shortcomings, was the freshest and most vigorous newspaper printed in English in Japan. In his recent ventures in amateur diplomacy, notably in his personal abuse of the British Minister, his free lance seems as often to lunge at a windmill as at the real enemy.

From among his many contributions to periodical literature Mr. House has selected these four episodes, which, though reprinted from *Harper*, *Atlantic*, and the Tokio *Times*, are carefully re-edited and paragraphed. In them, even those who have been offended with his violence as a looker-on in trans-Pacific politics will be charmed with his lively fancy, playful humor, and kaleidoscopic vocabulary. He seems carefully to have studied the play of that emotion which the Japanese call *ero* and the Greeks *eros*, and so writes fluently and with sympathetic imagination of the love in humble life of Little Fountain and Mountain Bird, in the episode of "Little Fountain of Sakanoshita." To be sure, our American abroad seems to see everything as under the spell of moonlight; and others, whether missionary or worldling, who look at the same objects in the light of common day, are apt to think that Mr. House loves to gild plain gold with an Etruscan film and to dye simple violets to a deeper purple. We have seen in native houses a silk scroll-painting, which represented a Japanese goddess who, dissatisfied with the hues of earth-born flowers, came down from heaven and painted them anew from her own palette. "To Fuziyama and Back" tells in fresh style of a trip now old and ordinary, not to say commonplace. "A Japanese Statesman at Home" takes one inside a native household during festal times, and we see both the bright lights and deep shadows of the social life of a people who are still cursed with polygamy, and a religion that looks upon all women as soulless kittens or passive drudges. The decently veiled description of perfectly nude females on page 194—"a brief suggestion of halls of antique statuary"—tells its own tale of a nation that has suffered for centuries from debauchery, the result of which is seen in the pigmy physique of the men, and in the fact that most of the earnest Japanese students abroad return home to die of consumption. Hirosawa, the statesman-host, was one of those earnest spirits who led the revolution of 1868 to successful issue, and then, like Okubo, sank under the assassin's dirk. "A Day in a Japanese Theatre" is told as the former dramatic critic of the *Tribune* might be supposed to tell it, and is the most readable, informing, and amusing description of the Japanese theatre which we have yet read. On the whole, this little book will serve to direct attention anew to the kindly nature of the Japanese people, and to suggest an insight into their humble private life. It is certainly a good offset to the bird's-eye view given in 'Unbeaten Tracks in Japan.'

Loci e libro veritatum. Passages Selected from Gascoigne's Theological Dictionary, Illustrating the Condition of Church and State, 1403-1458. With an Introduction by James E. Thorold Rogers, M.P. Oxford: At the Clarendon Press. 1881. 4to, pp. xc. and 254.

WHAT abundant aids the scientific student of history finds at his disposition to-day which a generation ago did not exist! At that time the only period for which it was possible for him to go to original authorities was ancient history; and in those days of exclusively classical culture it was not the least of the benefits of that culture that the boy, in reading Cicero, Cæsar, and Thucydides, was learning history at first hand. It was the only school for training in historical methods, and it cannot be doubted that, while the precision of expression and delicacy of appreciation cultivated by linguistic study formed the best preparation for the examination of historical documents, the historical sense was quickened and cultivated by close contact with writings which rank as historical authorities of the highest order.

The student of the present day is not confined to the authors of classical antiquity for his acquaintance with original authorities in history, although the Latin language still forms the best medium for the use of authorities. The student who cannot use Latin has but meagre materials at his command for any but the most recent periods. But he is now rather embarrassed by the abundance than the paucity of the works of original authority placed before him. It is true the chronicles and letters of the Middle Ages do not rank with Cæsar and Cicero as works of literature; but we venture to say that few will pronounce them less interesting, their interest largely consisting in their nearness and direct connection with us.

The extracts from what we may call the Common-Place Book of Thomas Gascoigne, edited by Mr. Rogers, do not belong to the most entertaining documents of this class. Even although the editor has sifted out the especially theological portions, and the pages given here contain a number of characteristic anecdotes and incidents, yet it will be consulted, not so much for interesting narration as for the light it throws upon "the darkest period in the social and political history of England." All of us have felt, no doubt, that the Wars of the Roses were a puzzle—a relentless civil war, laying England waste during the life of a generation, with very distinct and calamitous results, while the causes of it were obscure and seemed inadequate. It is just this dark period that the book before us serves to enlighten. Its author died in 1458, three years after the first battle of St. Albans. He tells us, therefore, very little about the events of the war, but, what is of far more importance, a great deal about the troublesome times that led to it—the social discontent, culminating in Jack Cade's rebellion, the corruption and misgovernment of Suffolk and Somerset, the important parliamentary proceedings of 1455, and the mis-

management of the war in France, with the surrender of Anjou to the Queen's father, and the loss of all the rest of the English possessions except Calais. Surely, here was enough, in the presence of an imbecile King and an able statesman who had a better title to the throne, to account for a civil war which made a disputed succession its pretext, but found its support in the deep-seated discontent of the people.

Mr. Rogers is admittedly the best-informed authority upon the social history of the later Middle Ages, which is, we suppose, his favorite field of investigation; nor is his knowledge of the political history of this period by any means inadequate. His introduction, of ninety pages, is a valuable commentary upon the book, and an excellent guide to the study of the reigns of Henry V. and Henry VI. The picture of the times presented as well by him as by Gascoigne leaves no room to wonder at either of the convulsions that followed—the War of the Roses and the Protestant Reformation.

Mr. Rogers's description of the character of Henry V. is well worth reading (p. xxi.):

"Henry seems to have entered on the French war partly with the view of recovering at least that which had been lost by the rupture of the peace of Bretigny, but quite as much with the object of chastising the frightful scandals of the French court and of French society. The language in which he announces and justifies his purposes is like that of a Puritan commander in the early days of the Civil War, as if he were one who was sent by God to chastise the guilty. Severely orthodox, scrupulously just, a model of private virtue, of dauntless heroism, of consummate military skill, and favored by unexampled good fortune, he united all the qualities which the English admire but have hardly ever witnessed together in their most popular kings. . . . His army, well drilled and invincible, was, so far as the King could make it, as secure in its own discipline, as confident in the genius of its general, and as pious, as Cromwell's Ironsides, but as severe in the hour of battle and of victory."

The Exploration of the World. By Jules Verne. The Great Explorers of the Nineteenth Century. Translated from the French. With fifty one original drawings by Léon Benett, and fifty-seven fac-similes from early MSS., and maps by Matthis and Morieu. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1881. 8vo, pp. xv, 378.

THIS is the third and concluding volume of Jules Verne's account of the great travellers, "from the time of Hanno and Herodotus down to that of Livingstone and Stanley." The date he fixes upon as the time when "the shape of the earth is now known, the task of the explorers is done," is 1840, when "the whole coast-line of North America was now accurately laid down." But the arbitrariness of this limit will be appreciated when we recall the fact that precisely in 1840 Livingstone first sailed for Africa, so that this work stops just short of those who now are, and without doubt in the future will be, regarded as "the great explorers of the nineteenth century." And it is surprising, to say the least, to find that the task of the explorers is at an end while the physical geography of the greater part of Africa and Australia is still unknown, and Central Asia, China, Japan, Borneo, and New Guinea are to a great extent unexplored. The opening chapter is devoted to a general summary of the travels in the first decade of the century, and though the second is headed "The Exploration and Colonization of Africa," it is mostly confined to the journeys of Denham and Clapperton, Caillié, and the Landers upon the west coast. Following this are a few pages on India and America, concluding the first part. The second part narrates the voyages round the world and the polar expeditions, in which, as is natural, by far the largest space is given to the French navigators, Freycinet, Bougainville, and D'Urville.

The work is not without value, though it adds nothing to the reputation acquired by the author as a geographical romancer. In great part it is hardly more than a dry compilation of names, dates, and figures, while the account of the voyages, which are narrated at great length, has, with few exceptions, singularly little life and vivacity. We have noted many inaccuracies of statement and occasionally a blunder, which may, however, have been the fault of the translator. For instance, the height of Chumulari is given at 30,000 feet, and, immediately after, it is said, that "Webb climbed the Niti-Ghaut, the loftiest peak in the world, the height of which he fixed at 16,814 feet." "Peak" should, of course, be *pass*, but even then the statement is incorrect, as there are a number of passes more than 18,000 feet above the sea level. On the same page is this statement in reference to Fraser's travels in the same region: "He visited the source of the Jumna, and, at a height of more than 25,000 feet, he found numerous villages picturesquely perched on slopes carpeted with snow." As a matter of fact, human habitations are rarely to be found, even on the northern or Tibetan slope, above a level of 12,000 feet. The names both of persons and places are frequently spelled incorrectly and in different ways in the course of a few pages. Now and then a well-known name is almost lost under some strange form, as Azcongater for Eziongeber. Of the maps, too, we are sorry to be unable to speak with praise. Not only are they coarse in execution, but they are also of little worth to the reader. The map of Egypt does not give Alexandria, while that of English India gives only the northern half of the peninsula. There is also on most of them a mixture of French and English names, which must sadly confuse those who consult them. On the map of Victoria at the South Pole the ocean is called the "Arctic." The want of an index aggravates all the other deficiencies, in view of which we can hardly help suspecting a commercial use of the author's name in connection with this compendium.

Household Hints. By Emma W. Babcock. [Appletons' Home Books.] New York.

EACH of the "Household Hints," which have appeared from time to time in the columns of the *Evening Post*, is good of its kind. "Miscellaneous" the table of contents calls them, but the trouble is they are so miscellaneous that it would be difficult to arrange any coherent housekeeping from them. What is wisdom to her who has no servant, or but one, is folly for her who has three or five. The mother to whom it is useful to know how "to restore faded blue stockings" is not likely to bring up "her daughter as a hot-house plant," imminent as that danger appears to be to the author's mind. The Germans advertise frankly books "zur höheren und bürgerlichen Kochkunst," and our own cook-books sometimes discriminate as to the expense of different dishes. It would be well to carry the same distinction into all departments of housekeeping, and to group hints according to the housekeeper's point of view. One further and wider difference underlies the whole subject: housekeeping and doing housework are two separate things. That some women have to do both at once is no reason for confounding them. That any woman, wife, mother, daughter, sister, to whom is given the privilege of making a home, should keep house, may be held as a duty; but how much housework she should do, or whether she should do any at all, is a question which immediate circumstances alone can decide. There are women, who are admirable housekeepers, whom it would be a great waste of precious material to set to doing housework. Such a woman could find better ways to eke out a slender income, and not neglect home either.

One-half of the book is devoted to cooking recipes. A new cook-book is always welcome. There are households in which it is thought good economy to cook the last book through for the sake of perhaps finding a new muffin for breakfast. These recipes seem in the main sensible and appetizing; but what will the orthodox, the old believers in open fires for roasting, say to a remark like this: "An easy and, so far as I can see, unobjectionable way is first to steam the turkey until it is tender; then brown it slowly in the oven, basting it often"?

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Armstrong's Primer of United States History. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. 70 cents.
Boscobel: a Tale. New York: W. B. Smith & Co. $1.
Bulkley, Dr. L. D. Eczema and its Management. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.
Cambridge Trifles. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Champlin, J. D., jr. Young Folks' History of the War for the Union. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $2 75.
Dall, Mrs. C. H. My First Holiday. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 50.
Eidlitz, L. The Nature and Function of Art, more especially of Architecture. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. $4.
Gallagher, W. D. Miami Woods, and Other Poems. Cincinnati: Robt. Clarke & Co. $2.
Greg, P. Ivy: Cousin and Bride. New York: Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Hodgdon, Josephine E. Holmes Leaflets. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 60 cents.
Howorth, H. H. History of the Mongols, from the 9th to the 19th Century. 3 vols. London: Longmans.
Lorimer, Rev. G. C. Isms, Old and New. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1 50.
Macquoid, T. and K. Pictures and Legends from Normandy and Brittany. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2 50.
Milner, G. Country Pleasures. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 50.
Murray, D. C. A Life's Atonement. New York: Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Plympton, A. G. The Glad Year Round for Boys and Girls. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $2 50.
Pierson, Rev. H. W. In the Brush: Old-Time Social, Political, and Religious Life in the Southwest. New York: D. Appleton & Co.
Poets' Tributes to Garfield. Cambridge: Moses King. 25 cents.
Poole, Capt. D. C. Among the Sioux of Dakota. New York: D. Van Nostrand.
Private Secretary: a Tale. New York: Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Putzger, F. W. Historischer Schul-Atlas. New York: L. B. Thomas. $1.
Putzgel, C., and Bähr, H. A. Commercial Precedents: from the *Journal of Commerce*. Hartford: Am. Pub. Co. $3.
Rae, W. F. Newfoundland to Manitoba. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 25.
Robinson, Mrs. H. H. Massachusetts in the Woman-Suffrage Movement. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 25.
Robinson, W. The Wild Garden. New York: Scribner & Welford.
Roe, E. P. Without a Home: a Tale. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $1 50.
Roget, P. M. Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases. New ed. New York: John B. Anderson & Co.
Rossetti, D. G. Ballads and Sonnets. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Roubaud, Prof. F. French and English Dictionary. 115th thousand. New York: Cassell & Co. $1 50.
Schaff, Rev. P. International Revision Commentary on the New Testament. Vol. II. St. Mark. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.
Scudder, H. E. The Children's Book. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3 50.
Semler, H. Die wahre Bedeutung und die wirklichen Ursachen der nord-amerikanischen Concurrenz in der landwirthschaftlichen Production. Wismar.
Shapcott, R. Autobiography of Mark Rutherford. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Shaw, Flora L. Hector: a Story. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Shedd, Mrs. J. A. Famous Painters and Paintings. 3d ed. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $3.
Sidney, Margaret. Five Little Peppers, and How They Grew. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1 50.
Smith, W. A First Greek Course. 12th ed. New York: Harper & Bros.
Smith, Goldwin. Lectures and Essays. New York: Macmillan & Co. $2 25.
Stacke, L. Deutsche Geschichte. Parts III., iv. New York: L. W. Schmidt.
St. Nicholas, November, 1880, to October, 1881. 2 vols. New York: The Century Co.
Stockton, F. R. Tales Out of School. Roundabout Rambles. New ed. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1 50 each.
Symington, A. J. Biographical Sketch of William Wordsworth. 2 vols. Boston: Roberts Bros.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 10, 1881.

The Week.

THE result of the elections is, on the whole, what most people expected. Not only is it "an off-year," but the proverbial apathy of an off-year has been aggravated by the absorption of the public mind during the past summer in the late President's illness and by the prevailing suspense about the course of the new Administration. The vote has been very light everywhere, every party excepting John Kelly's bringing but a small proportion of its forces to the polls. Kelly's "cohorts," however, seem to hold their own in all weathers and in all years, which is the more surprising as he has now no offices to reward them with, and there was really more coal and flour to be got by joining one of the rival "halls." The controversy between him and the *Herald* continues to be carried on with furious bitterness, but that paper does not inflict on him the extreme editorial penalty of "ordering his name out of the paper." This retribution has, however, apparently overtaken Mr. W. W. Astor, along with other misfortunes, for he is only spoken of as "the Republican candidate," while his opponent's name is given in full. Scenes like these are well calculated to shake the stoutest nerves. Next to the permanence of Kelly's strength, the most remarkable feature of the election in this city was the defeat of two of the young men of wealth who made their début in political life by becoming slaves of the Machine. They and all like them have now been made aware that though the Machine can give nominations, it cannot always make the nomination valuable, and that to succeed "inside politics" it is also necessary to stand well with the voters outside politics.

The report of the Commissioner of Pensions, only an abstract of which is before us, will remind the people very forcibly of the foolish demagogy which inflicted upon the country the Arrears-of-Pensions Act. Before the passage of that act the pension roll and the sum necessary for the payment of pensions were slowly going down. When the Arrears Bill was under discussion, its advocates, in their speeches in Congress assured the public that the total amount required to satisfy all claims for arrears would certainly not exceed thirty millions and might fall below twenty-five. At the Treasury Department it was estimated that the required amount would be all of one hundred and fifty millions. The Commissioner of Pensions thought that it would run up to three hundred millions; but after the first half-year's practical experience of the operation of the act he amended his estimate to the effect that the public expenditure directly and indirectly caused by it in the shape of arrears proper, of a rapid increase in the number of new pension claims, honest and fraudulent, stimulated by the larger prizes to be obtained, and of the consequent increase of the pension roll involving arrears and annual payments, would in the course of years reach a total of about six hundred millions. We fear this estimate is not very far from the truth. At present the annual expenditures of the Pension Office, as the Commissioner shows, have run up from twenty-nine millions, the sum required before the passage of the Arrears Act, to $49,723,967. The amount paid out during the year as "first payments" to new pensioners is reported as $23,628,177—a large sum, considering the fact that the civil war closed sixteen years ago.

Treasurer Gilfillan's report is probably the most extraordinary document ever presented to a political community. There is a surplus revenue this year of over $100,000,000, and the revenue increased $27,000,000 over that of last year. Over $90,000,000 was spent in reducing the public debt. The stock of gold and silver in the Treasury has risen to $269,000,000, the amount of gold having increased over $39,000,000 since last year, and that of silver over $16,000,000. Putting aside the greenbacks, the demand liabilities of the Treasury fall below its assets by over $146,000,000. The fund for the redemption of the greenbacks is kept at about 40 per cent. of their total amount, which is $362,539 65. No public financier has ever had such a story to tell. No other nation ever got its finances into such a comfortable condition except by robbery. To the friends of the tariff, however, there is something awful in it. The Protectionists have a philosophy of society, just as the slaveholders had one, which makes a high tariff one of the normal wants of each political community, just as clothes are one of the normal wants of the civilized man. This philosophy has never, since it triumphed in 1861, had to face the public on its own merits. It has always had behind it, as the pro-slavery philosophy had, a good backing in the shape of seeming political necessity, as well as undoubted pecuniary profits for a large class. But the enormous rise of the revenue and the near approach of the disappearance of the debt will speedily compel the tariff men to make good their claims without the aid of seeming necessity. They will have to show the country that it ought to submit to be taxed for their benefit simply and solely without any mixture in it of political need. This will be a terrible job. They will have to bring to the task all the similes and allegories they have in store, and will have, moreover, to abandon that old story about helping infant manufactures. The fondest parents are apt to get tired of spending money on stretching apparatus for an infant who cannot show that in ten years he has added one genuine inch to his stature.

The public debt was diminished during the month of October $13,321,458, which makes the decrease since June 30—the beginning of the current fiscal year—$55,064,345, or at the rate of $165,000,000 per year. The statement of the assets and liabilities of the Treasury shows that the Treasury at the end of October owned $167,785,609 gold coin and bullion, against $169,122,024 at the beginning of the month; that the amount of silver owned at the end of the month was $37,146,870, against $42,447,784 at the beginning. It is notable that at the end of October there were outstanding $66,327,670 silver certificates, against a total of standard silver dollars in the Treasury of $66,576,378, so that the limit of the issue of silver certificates on the present stock of silver dollars has about been reached.

Notwithstanding the arrival of $1,490,000 foreign gold and the disbursement by the Treasury of about $3,000,000 of November interest, the surplus reserve of the New York banks was reduced during the week $1,600,000, or to $3,104,675. The foreign-specie arrivals since August 1 have been $22,832,941, against $45,325,652 a year ago. The rates for foreign exchange do not warrant fresh gold imports, but if the declining tendency of the prices of breadstuffs continues, it will not be long before this class of exports will furnish exchange enough to lower rates once more to the gold-importing point. There has been no advance in the London rate for money. The Paris settlements from which trouble was apprehended have passed without causing any serious disturbance, and there are rather more securities going to Europe than are coming back from there. The general trade of the country continues very large, and the indications are that it is profitable. The tonnage of the railroads was never larger than at present. No further steps have been openly taken towards a settlement of the differences between the trunk lines, but whether these are formally settled or not, rates during the winter months promise to be considerably higher than now, although without a formal agreement between the trunk lines there is no guarantee of a long continuance of profitable rates. Prices advanced during the week at the Stock Exchange, where business ran almost entirely on specialties, each of which is controlled by a clique.

The *Public* of last week had an important article on "Prices since Resumption." Tables of comparative prices of forty-three articles of commerce, being those of most common use, and constituting three-fourths of all the traffic of the country, are given for the years 1878, 1879, 1880, and 1881. Assuming that the prices of the year 1860 represented the normal standard or true par of exchange between commodities and gold, and representing this condition by the figure 100, the *Public* finds that average prices on the first of November, 1878, were at 81.40, or about nineteen per cent. below the nominal standard; that in 1879 they were at 98.93, in 1880, at 103.08, and at the present time (November, 1881) at 111.02. Going back to the years before and after the panic of 1873, the *Public* finds the following range of average prices as compared with the standard of 100, gold values being used in all cases:

1866	131.00	1872	122.00
1867	138.00	1873	113.00
1868	140.00	1874	115.00
1869	116.00	1875	107.00
1870	118.00	1876	100.00
1871	120.00		

Making some allowance for imperfect data, these figures are believed by the *Public* to be approximately correct, and they seem to tally with the observed fluctuations of trade. The tables would be improved by adding to the list of prices examined those of labor, real estate, and transportation. Their value consists in the fact that a marked and continued rise of general prices above the normal standard is always the forerunner of a commercial crisis. It appears that prices anterior to the crisis of 1873 reached the maximum of 140.00 in the year 1868, and that they were considerably above 100 for a period of ten years before 1873, although in the last-mentioned year they were only two per cent. above the present average.

The only question presented to Judge Cox for decision by the argument now going on in the Star-route cases is, whether a conspiracy to defraud is an "infamous crime," in the technical sense of the word. The Constitution requires that the prosecution of "a capital or otherwise infamous crime" shall be by "presentment or indictment of a grand jury," except in certain specified cases. Of course, in the ordinary sense of the word the crime is infamous; but it by no means follows that it is so as a matter of law. The reason why the cases were begun by information was that the statute of limitations barred an indictment. There is great force in Mr. Bliss's suggestion to the court that if the question involved appears to it to be doubtful, the information ought to be sustained and the question carried up. It should be observed, too, that all the talk about proceedings by information being despotic and anti-American is absurd. If the framers of the Constitution had meant to prevent all crimes from being tried by information, they would have said so in so many words. "Liberty" is in just as much danger from the trial of a non-infamous crime without the intervention of a grand jury as of an infamous one. In fact, it would probably not hurt Liberty a bit if all prosecutions were begun in this way.

We have not hitherto advanced any private theory of our own in regard to the speculation in Confederate bonds, simply for the reason that we have been so much interested in watching the development of theories on the subject by our contemporaries. These have, as our readers are aware, been very numerous. The first theory advanced was that the speculation was based upon the effect which the Mahone movement in Virginia was likely to have upon the financial policy of the Republicans. The process by which a fondness for repudiation in Virginia was going to lead to a desire to pay a debt the assumption of which is prohibited by the Constitution, was never very clear to us. It was advanced by the *World* with that apparent seriousness which it so often makes use of for the purpose of disguising its overflowing humor; but the chance of recovery by the means suggested in the *World* seems now to be at least as likely to be good as any which has made its appearance since, and it deserves to be taken into consideration among the other theories. The second was the deposit theory, which in its original form bore a curiously close resemblance to the deposit theory of the American heir to vast estates in England. As we pointed out the other day, the deposit which awaits the arrival of the American heir is always lying in the Bank of England, and its payment is in some way dependent upon an opinion of the Lord Chancellor which can never be found in the regular series of reports. In exactly the same way these Confederate deposits were found to be in the Bank of England, and Lord Hatherley, who was Lord Chancellor a few years ago, was stated to have delivered an opinion. These statements were fortified by a reference to a correspondence between the State Department and the British Government, in which the United States laid claim to these deposits, but was driven off because, in order to prove its title, it would have to admit the legal existence of the Confederate Government and apply for these funds as its "executor," which of course Mr. Fish would not do for any money. There was in this theory a certain vagueness as to the amount of money in the Bank of England to the credit of the holders of Confederate bonds, but it was generally conceded that it was either $800,000 or else $17,000,000, and whichever it was, it clearly did not belong to the Bank.

General Marcus Wright, however, who has long been charged with the custody of the Confederate archives, pronounces wholly baseless the belief that there is a Confederate deposit somewhere in England which has produced the recent speculation in Confederate bonds. Indeed, there seems to be little or no question that the whole affair is a sort of experiment on public credulity made either by one stock operator or by a syndicate. If by eagerly offering a dollar for a $1,000 bond the speculator can persuade outsiders to give two dollars a piece for his stock of them, he has of course made one of the little strokes which are tried successfully or unsuccessfully in Wall street every day. It is the old mock auction in a new form. The belief that the Confederacy left treasure hidden somewhere in Europe will probably survive, however, for fifty years, and reappear every now and then in some sort of "flurry." It is like the belief in Captain Kidd's treasures and in the unclaimed English estates belonging to American men. Such beliefs, indeed, are survivals of the olden time, when there were no banks, and people buried their savings, and are among the most ancient and poetic weaknesses of the race.

The Minnesota House of Representatives has passed a bill to adjust the State's railroad-bond debt at fifty cents on a dollar, and if the Senate concurs in an amendment which authorizes the issue of bonds for the purpose at less than five per cent., provided there is a market for them at the reduced rate, the bill will become a law. We should suppose that buyers would be rather shy of the bonds at any rate. Who can say that when they become due the State will not "readjust" them also at fifty cents on a dollar? The holders of the partly repudiated bonds may take the new ones upon the ground that "half a loaf is better than no bread"; but the credit of a great State cannot be maintained by taking a niggardly advantage of the proverb.

There is nothing more interesting in connection with the present struggle between Chili and Peru than the great contributions which have been made through it to public law. This is really not surprising, because there are now at least four existing governments in the country, and, as all jurists know, the amount of public law in any part of the world is directly proportioned to the number of governments in it. First, there is the Government of Don Patricio Lynch, the Chilian admiral, who has declared martial law throughout all the territory of Peru occupied by Chilian troops. Second, there is the Government of Don F. Garcia Calderon, a description of whose authority is best given in his own words in a letter to Admiral Lynch—that he is "occupying without troops" a "zone." The headquarters of the Government of Don Nicholas de Pierola are believed to have been "in the saddle" hitherto, but it is now said that Arequipa, the "earthquake city," has abandoned his fortunes and gone over to Calderon, who will no doubt proceed to occupy it without troops. The fourth Government is that carried on by Mr. Hurlbut, our Minister, by postal communication with the various other governments. Lynch's Government, being based on the Chilian guns, is a military government; Calderon's is a republic, Pierola's a dictatorship, and the Hurlbut Government does not come under any known political head, but is, according to his own account, based on certain principles of international law which would, if applied in good faith by the other governments, furnish a means of settling all their disputes amicably.

With this excellent end in view he has announced it as a principle of the code of international law administered by him that war indemnities must "be either agreed upon by the parties, or determined by disinterested arbitration." This has now been supplemented by a letter from Don F. Garcia Calderon, in which he gives the views of his Government on the subject of martial law. He admits that Admiral Lynch may by martial law prevent his "practising acts of hostility," but insists that all other operations he has still a perfect right to carry on. It follows from this that the Admiral has no right "to take possession of the Treasury," or "to sequestrate the funds which the Government possesses in the Bank of London," or "to demand the surrender of the offices under my administration." Admiral Lynch, it will be remembered, declared martial law for the purpose among others of stopping the operations of the Treasury, which consisted in the manufacture of paper money. It is obvious that if the Calderon Government's view of the limitations of martial law were correct, he could, by merely keeping the Treasury running, pay any war indemnity the Admiral might ask, while, as the money is worthless, the resulting advantages to Chili would not be

great. Admiral Lynch therefore objects to this theory of martial law, and insists on the old view that martial law means the will of the officer who declares and maintains it. Pierola has not recently manifested any interest in these questions, but is believed to be devoting considerable attention to the view taken by international law of the subject of highway robbery and murder. The latest story from the scene of negotiations is that some publicist is forging documents purporting to come from the Hurlbut Government, for the purpose of giving the impression that the United States is going to intervene. This does not seem at all necessary at present.

The Land Court in Ireland has made its first decision, making a reduction of nearly thirty-three per cent. in the rent of the farm. This will probably still further increase the number of applications from tenants. In fact, they are now coming in so rapidly as to threaten to overwhelm the court with business, and make so much postponement necessary as greatly to diminish the immediate value of the act. It is said to be the policy of the Land League to encourage applications for the very purpose of producing a block and disgusting the tenants with the delay. The Ministry is in the meantime suffering somewhat from the Irish vote in the large English towns, in four or five of which the Conservatives have made heavy gains at the municipal elections. This, however, will not account for all their gains; but there are usually so many local issues in municipal elections that they are not sure indications of the drift of popular sentiment on imperial questions

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The Irish Land League has issued another manifesto, which is more rational and coherent than any which have gone before. It confines itself, *apropos* of the approaching hundredth anniversary of the establishment of Irish legislative independence by Flood and Grattan and the Volunteers, to dwelling, though with the usual heat and extravagance, upon the wrong and damage involved in the administration of Irish affairs mainly by Englishmen and Scotchmen, and in the legislation on Irish affairs by a Parliament made up in the main of Englishmen and Scotchmen. It comes very near hitting the bull's-eye by declaring that if the government of Ireland were what it ought to be, Parnell would be Prime Minister (for Ireland) instead of being in jail. This is not the exact truth, but it comes very near it. If the government were what it ought to be, the highest place in Irish politics would not be reached by persons as reckless, incoherent, and unscrupulous as Parnell, but the person obtaining the position Parnell occupies in popular confidence would be, not Prime Minister, but Irish Secretary. If the League would come down to the region in which rational men live and work, and push this argument in the language of sober business, they would soon bring about a change which would satisfy not only the material but sentimental wants of the Irish people. As long as they rave and rant, and call names like escaped lunatics, they not only close the ears of Englishmen, but justify their deafness in the eyes of the civilized world. The reductions which the Land Courts are making in the rent are in the meantime filling the landlords and mortgagees of Irish estates with consternation. There are very few encumbered properties which will bear them and leave anything at all for the life-tenant.

Wendell Phillips has, in a letter declining an invitation to go to Ireland to lecture, made a very important contribution to the long-standing controversy about the nature of rent. But we need hardly say that he agrees neither with Ricardo, Mill, Carey, nor any of the other prominent writers on this subject. They all assume that the owner of the land has something to say in fixing the amount of the rent, and that his demand will be influenced in some degree by the producing power of the soil, and the price of produce in the nearest market by the competition of farmers. According to Mr. Phillips, however, the owner has no more to do with the matter than the man in the moon, nor is it affected by competition for the land, or by the price of produce. The tenant fixes the rent himself. "Honest rent is the surplus left after the tenant has lived in comfort—material, intellectual, personal, and social comfort." Under this rule Ireland, Mr. Phillips says, "owes no rent," which is perfectly true. But he might have added that no rent is due under this rule in any country in the world. The tenant must of course decide when he feels comfortable, materially, intellectually, personally, and socially, and no tenant has any surplus left after providing himself with what he thinks necessary for his comfort. The richest land supplies no such surplus, and never will, because, as the ages roll by, people's ideas of comfort expand. Comfort in its large sense abhors a surplus (just as nature abhors a vacuum) if the comfortable man has to pay it to somebody else. No one is ever comfortable enough to have something over for such a very uninteresting person as a landlord. Consequently Mr. Phillips's definition, which is one of his very best, if generally accepted, will render tenants the very important service of reducing the species of property known as the fee-simple of land to a mere claim on the occupier for as much of his money as he does not care to keep for himself. He leaves untouched the very serious question, whether if the land does not supply the tenant with comfort the landlord is not bound to do so out of his own pocket.

In Germany there is evidently much excitement among the "Conservatives" and in Government circles about the elections. The greatness of their disappointment appears more strikingly from the way in which they express it than from the number of seats gained by their opponents. When the *Kreuz-Zeitung*, the organ of the feudal Conservatives and of the stiff old bureaucracy, exclaims that the continued success of the Progressists and Secessionists—that is, of those who seceded from the National Liberal party — means something very much like the end of the world, it is evident that they confess themselves very seriously defeated. But the alarm seems almost comical considering the fact that the same Progressists and Secessionists are very loyal subjects and dutiful citizens, who only want constitutional government with some real responsibility in it, and that most of them would be glad to co-operate with Prince Bismarck if he were less autocratic in his ways and would reasonably co-operate with them. The "covert satisfaction" expressed by the French papers at the result of the elections in Alsace-Lorraine, which is looked upon as an evidence of French sympathies, is a little premature. Germany assimilates new accessions of population slowly but surely. The Prussian province on the left bank of the Rhine was added to the Kingdom of Prussia in 1815. French sympathies lingered there for thirty years after the incorporation of that territory with the Prussian monarchy. For a long time, even within the memory of middle-aged men, the very name of Prussian was hated there and used as a particularly offensive epithet. It continued to be so more or less until the revolutionary movements of 1848 turned the thoughts of men into different channels. Now the German population on the left bank of the Rhine is perhaps more intensely national in feeling than any other in Germany. Alsace and Lorraine will probably pass through the same process. Any great event which takes in the minds of the population the place of the memories of the last war will greatly facilitate that transition.

Prince Bismarck is still evidently a good deal puzzled as to the course he is to take in view of the result of the elections. It is, to be sure, still possible to pursue the course he pursued before 1866, and totally disregard the majority in the Reichstag, but it would be by no means easy. Times have changed since 1866. The Emperor is older, Bismarck himself is older, and the German people are more experienced in politics. Parliamentary government, too, has gained in strength all over Europe, and Germany has less to fear. An article in the Berlin *Post*, a strongly Conservative paper though not an organ of the Chancellor, sketches the difficulties of the situation in an article which is exciting a good deal of attention. It assumes that an attempt will have to be made to govern through a working majority; that no such majority can be formed by the Progressists, and that the materials for it can only be found among the Centre party and the Clericals; that at the head of such a majority Prince Bismarck could not possibly put himself, and that, therefore, somebody else will have to take his place. It is much easier to talk of some such person, however, than to find him. Bismarck has a position which cannot be resigned or laid aside, at least as long as the present Emperor lives. It is not likely that the old gentleman would ever place any reliance on any other adviser, or in fact consult any other adviser; and in Germany the monarch still not only reigns, but governs. He has large undefined powers, which it would be highly embarrassing to the Minister to have exercised, not under his guidance, but under that of a non-official counsellor behind the throne.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

ELECTIONS were held in twelve States on Tuesday. The campaigns preceding the elections have been unusually quiet in all the States with the exception of Virginia. It is impossible as we go to press to obtain any accurate account of the results.

President Arthur has fixed upon Thursday, November 24, as a day of national thanksgiving and prayer.

United States Treasurer Gilfillan has issued his annual report for the fiscal year which ended June 30. It states that the receipts of the Government show an increase over those for 1880 from every source. In comparing the condition of the Treasury on September 30, 1881, with its condition on the same day of last year, the most striking changes are the increase in the gold coin and bullion and standard silver dollars on hand, and in the silver certificates outstanding. The amount of United States currency outstanding at the close of the year was $362,539,437 65. During the year fifty-four national banks were organized and twenty went into voluntary liquidation, leaving 2,136 doing business at the close of the year.

General Sherman has submitted his annual report on the army. He complains that the army is not strong enough in point of numbers, and that this results in overtaxing its strength. He says that it would be more economical to have a larger force, since this would avoid the drain upon the men's powers and the waste in the matter of supplies and transportation.

General William B. Hazen, Chief Signal Officer, has presented to the Secretary of War his annual report of the operations of the Signal Corps for the year. It states that the year "has been distinguished by additional progress and decided improvements." These points are treated in detail in the report. Some of the most important are the establishment of a permanent school of instruction at Fort Myer, Virginia, the preparation for the press of special bulletins containing weather information of public interest; the forecast of weather and of hot or cold waves for periods exceeding twenty-four hours; the forecast of northers for the interior plateau; the extension of the special warnings to the different agricultural interests of the country; the publication in quarto form of special professional papers; the offering of prizes for essays of great merit on meteorological subjects, and the general extension of the signal-service system in all parts of the country.

The Naval Advisory Board which has been engaged for some time in discussing the subject of the reorganization of the navy, has submitted a report to the Secretary of the Navy, from which it seems that we have now only twenty-one ships of war which are either efficient or worth repairing, and that in order to put the navy upon a proper footing it will be necessary to build at once forty-one ships of various classes. The report states it to be the opinion of the Board that it is best to have a navy of swift iron cruisers and to delay for the present the building of ironclads. The fact that the construction of this latter class of vessels has been rapidly changing of late renders it advisable to delay making any decision upon them until the navy is provided with ships of a class more fitted for ordinary service.

The total reductions in the Star-route service since Postmaster-General James began operations amount to about $1,575,000 per annum.

The hearing in relation to the information filed by the Government in the Prescott and Santa Fé Star-route case was begun on Thursday morning before Judge Cox in the Criminal Court at Washington. The defendants undertook to show that the method of proceeding by information, which was adopted by the Government on account of the action of the Statute of Limitations, instead of by Grand Jury indictment, was illegal and ought not to be allowed. Mr. Wilson opened for the defendants. He was followed on Friday by Mr. Bliss, who addressed the Court for the Government. Mr. Bliss made an able argument, showing that the method of proceeding on the part of the Government in this instance was well sustained by authorities. Mr. Ingersoll and Mr. Chandler continued the argument for the defence on Saturday and Monday.

General John W. Foster, of Indiana, has resigned the Russian Mission. He has been engaged in the diplomatic service of the United States for the past nine years.

The Hon. Lionel Sackville-West, the new British Minister to the United States, arrived in Philadelphia on Friday. He was received by the reception committee and the Mayor of Philadelphia, and was offered the hospitality of the city.

It is probable that something will soon be done about an international-copyright treaty between this country and England. Sir Leonard Tilly has gone to Washington from Canada on business in connection with this question, and has the sanction of the Canadian Government to protect its interests. The British Colonial Office has informed the Canadian Government that Mr. West, the new Minister from England to this country, would enter into negotiations with the United States in regard to the matter.

Several of the leading London newspapers have declared that there is no money in the Bank of England or elsewhere available for the payment of the Confederate bonds. It is also stated in Washington that the State Department has had no correspondence, and does not contemplate having any, with the English Government in reference to the reported balance remaining in the English banks to the credit of the Confederate States.

Bank Examiner Shelley has completed his examination of the affairs of the Mechanics Bank of Newark, and has forwarded his report to the Comptroller of the Currency. By this report the deficiency in the bank accounts is shown to be $2,411,000 45. It is now alleged that Nugent, the Newark morocco dealer, has been the dupe of Baldwin, the cashier of the bank, the latter having obtained control of Nugent's business after the panic of 1873, and having since used the funds of the Mechanics' Bank in carrying it on.

It is the opinion at the Bureau of the Comptroller of the Currency that the Newark bank will certainly pay its depositors sixty per cent., and that it is quite probable that it may pay in full.

An article which appeared originally in the Washington *Star*, and which was afterwards reproduced in the press throughout the country, purporting to be a description of what took place at the first Cabinet meeting after the Yorktown celebration, is authoritatively stated to be absolutely without foundation. The article in question described President Arthur as accusing Attorney-General MacVeagh of neglect of his duties in his conduct in regard to the Star-route frauds and the prosecution of Guiteau.

William Brown, a cabinet-maker in Washington, has testified before the committee appointed by Secretary Windom to investigate the methods of disbursing the contingent funds of the Treasury Department, that he did certain work upon the house and stables of Secretary Sherman in 1878 and 1879, for which he was paid out of Treasury funds. Mr. Sherman's friends say that the charges will "not only be met but refuted," but as yet no adequate explanation has been given. This affidavit of Brown's is part of the suppressed testimony in regard to the Treasury frauds. Mr. Pitney, the so-called "custodian" of the Treasury building, who was discharged on account of the revelations made before the investigating committee, says that he has been "sacrificed to screen his superior officers," and that he "possesses documentary and other evidence which will clear him, and place the responsibility for irregularities where it properly belongs."

The Medical Society of the District of Columbia appointed a committee some time ago to investigate the statements which have been made in regard to the unhealthfulness of Washington. The committee have had a meeting at which all the members testified to the general healthfulness of the District as shown by their own practice. A circular letter is to be sent to every practising physician in the District, and a report is to be drawn up based upon the information contained in the replies to the circular.

The official report of the Connecticut State Board of Health has been published and shows, among other things, a considerable increase of malarial diseases in that State. An interesting chapter on this subject is also to be found in the Massachusetts State Board of Health's newly issued report.

The lower house of the Legislature of Washington Territory has passed a bill giving the right of suffrage to women. Although a similar bill was defeated in the upper house some time ago, it is thought that it will come up in another shape and pass.

The trial of Lieutenant Flipper has begun. He is arraigned on two charges—namely, embezzlement and false statements. The defence spent Monday in a cross-examination of Colonel Shafter, who testified that before Flipper was relieved from the Commissary Department he thought him perfectly honest and of good habits, and if money had been stolen, he thought it had been stolen by some one else.

Last week was the most successful thus far of the Atlanta Exposition, the number of visitors having been forty per cent. greater than during any previous week. There is no doubt that the Exposition is a success, and that it will do a great deal of good to the South.

The long-pending controversy in regard to the priority of invention of the telephone has reached the stage of argument before the Examiner of Interferences in the Patent Office. There are five parties to the contest, including Messrs. Edison and Bell.

There was another steamboat disaster on the Mississippi on Friday night. The passenger packet *War Eagle* was carried by the force of the current against the Keokuk and Hamilton bridge, at Keokuk, Iowa. The officers of the steamboat behaved gallantly, and only two lives were lost. The steamer, however, was badly injured, and the bridge was damaged to the amount of $150,000.

On Saturday night the New York Chamber of Commerce gave a dinner to the French and German delegates to the Yorktown Centennial. There were about two hundred and fifty guests present. On Monday night a grand ball was given in honor of the delegates. They subsequently "disbanded." Some of them left for Europe on Wednesday, while others are to prolong their stay in order to see a little more of the country.

The members of the Ninth Regiment of Massachusetts are said to have behaved in a very disorderly manner in Richmond on their way to and from the Yorktown celebration, and a committee has been sent from Massachusetts to investigate the charges against them.

FOREIGN.

M. Brisson has been elected President of the French Chamber of Deputies by a large majority over the Legitimist and Bonapartist candidates.

Questions in regard to the Government's policy in Tunis were brought forward in the French Chamber of Deputies on Saturday. Premier Ferry, defending the policy of the Government, indignantly repelled the "calumnies" against M. Roustan, the French Minister to Tunis, and said that the Tunisian expedition had originated from the necessity of

protecting the Algerian frontier. He declared a French protectorate over the country to be inevitable, and denied the charge that the expedition had caused France to lose alliances or had disorganized the army. In conclusion, he urged the Chamber to do nothing that might compromise the interests of the army or of France. The debate has been feeble and uninteresting. No new facts of any importance were brought out. One of the members of the Opposition accused the Minister of War of having disorganized the army and falsified the official sanitary statistics.

The insurgents are said to have retreated from the vicinity of Kairwan in two bodies, one towards the coast, and the other into the province of Djerid. Their rapid movements make an attempt to surround them extremely difficult.

General Étienne has been appointed Provisional Governor of Susa and Kairwan.

A London despatch states that an army of 25,000 French volunteers will be formed for the purpose of occupying Tunis. Each volunteer will receive 1,500 francs, half of which is to be paid on his engagement and half at the close of his term of service, which is to be five years. Twenty-five hectares of land in Algeria will be allotted to him.

It is reported from Turin that negotiations are actively proceeding for the absolute cession to France of all the territory north of the river Medjerda.

It is stated that communications have been exchanged between France and England relative to the steps which are to be taken in case of a fresh military outbreak in Egypt. It is said that the leaders of the recent demonstration in Egypt are aware that any further action will lead to Anglo-French intervention, and that they are anxious to provide for their own safety.

The *Bulletin du Canal* has published an article, which is supposed to be an expression of the views of M. de Lesseps, upon Secretary Blaine's circular in regard to the Panama Canal. The article says that the just interests of the United States are already provided for in the terms of the concession by Colombia to the Panama Canal Company, and that, therefore, it is entirely unnecessary for America to trouble herself in the matter.

The conferences between the English and French Commissioners on the commercial treaty between the two countries have terminated. It is stated that the points upon which no arrangement has yet been reached will be settled through the ordinary diplomatic channels. It is not known as yet what conclusion was come to in the conferences, but it is thought that a definitive agreement will soon be concluded.

In Germany all political parties are actively pushing the claims of their respective candidates in those districts where a second ballot is necessary. Up to this time a majority of these second elections have fallen to the Liberals. The ministerial newspapers have expressed themselves very bitterly in regard to the result of the elections. One of them, the *Kreuz-Zeitung*, says that the continued success of the Progressists and Secessionists means "Finis Germaniæ."

Prince Bismarck is reported to have declared his opposition to the anti-Semitic movement which has played such a large part in the recent German elections, and to have said that he would never entertain any proposal to curtail the constitutional rights of the Jews.

There has been a split in the Democratic party in Spain. A number of prominent men, including Señor Martos, have withdrawn from the party and will probably unite with Castelar. This defection has greatly weakened the Democratic or Revolutionary party, as it is sometimes called, and will have the effect of strengthening the present reigning dynasty and providing an additional guarantee of peaceful progress for Spain.

The debate in the Spanish Cortes upon the address in reply to the speech from the throne has been concluded. The Government won a decisive victory.

In the Spanish Chamber of Deputies, on Tuesday, Premier Sagasta, in replying to Señor Robledo, declared that the Cabinet would remain true to the Liberal programme. He said it preferred a monarchy like that founded by Victor Emmanuel to one on the Neapolitan model.

The Conservatives in Havana have sent a congratulatory despatch to the Minister of the Colonies at Madrid, thanking him for repudiating, in a recent speech in the Chamber of Deputies, the proposition of autonomy for Cuba.

The Budget Committee of the Spanish Cortes has approved the Ministerial Conversion Scheme, and has granted Señor Comacho, the Minister of Finance, authority to enter upon negotiations with the bondholders.

The recent visit of King Humbert to the Emperor Francis Joseph has given rise in European diplomatic circles to many comments and speculations as to its signification. The representatives of Italy and Austria have been empowered to give the various governments to which they are accredited "identical and most satisfactory assurances in regard to the interview."

Disturbances continue in Ireland, but the successful working of the Land Act is gradually creating a better feeling among the people. The land courts are receiving a large amount of business. The court which sits at Belfast has caused consternation among the landlords by reducing the rental on two estates by one-third. It has also laid down the principle that improvements on estates shall be presumed to have been made by the tenant unless the landlord can prove the contrary, disregarding even express contracts between the landlord and tenant by which the improvements became the landlord's property. The result is that such improvements will not be considered as part of the capital upon which the landlord is entitled to receive rent. Justice O'Hagan has defined fair rent as such a rent as will enable the tenant to live and thrive. It is said that the Land League, finding that it is unable to prevent tenants from resorting to the land courts, is now encouraging litigation with the object of causing a complete block in its operations through an excessive amount of business. Miss Parnell, wishing to test the legality of the proceedings of the Ladies' Land League, publicly announced in the newspapers of Wednesday that a meeting of the League would be held on that day. No attempt was made to interfere with the meeting.

There will probably be many appeals from the decision of the Sub-Commissioners under the Land Act to the Central Court at Dublin. Many of the landlords apprehend that if the present system of sweeping reduction is carried out, their property will be confiscated to a large extent and many of them ruined.

On account of the great expense necessitated, it is said that there will be only three more Sub-Commissioners under the Land Act for the present. Nine additional Commissioners have been appointed for one year only, the Government believing that by the expiration of that time the undue pressure of the work will have been removed.

The Right Hon. Hugh Law, Attorney-General for Ireland, has been appointed to succeed Lord O'Hagan as Lord Chancellor of Ireland. William M. Johnson, Member of Parliament for Mallow and Solicitor-General for Ireland, will succeed Mr. Law as Attorney-General.

The London *Times* has replied to the arguments of the Fair Traders by printing a long statement showing that the increase in the trade of Great Britain has been greater than that of the United States. The *Times* estimates the loss to America through the decline of her shipping at £16,000,000 a year. The article states that the increase of American exports is principally in such articles as grain, to which she gives no protection.

A gigantic strike is said to be imminent in the Staffordshire potteries in England. All the men connected with operative associations have resolved to cease work on Thursday next unless an increase of wages is granted. The strike will affect 50,000 employees. At a meeting on Monday the employers pledged themselves to refuse an advance.

The trial of Arthur Lefroy for the murder of Mr. Gold in a Brighton Railway carriage, which has excited very great interest in England, came to a close on Tuesday. The prisoner was found guilty and sentenced to be hanged.

It is stated that the city government of Venice has determined to fill up the smaller canals and convert them into streets. In addition to this the gondolas are threatened with extinction, owing to a recent concession to a steamboat company on the Grand Canal.

The King of Greece has dissolved the Chamber of Representatives. The general elections for the new Chamber, in which the provinces recently added to the kingdom will participate, will take place on the 1st of January.

The Grand Cordon of the Order of the Redeemer has been conferred by the King upon Mr. Reed, formerly American Minister at Athens, in recognition of the eminent services he has rendered to Greece.

A statue of Lord Byron has been unveiled at Missolonghi, where he died. The ceremony was attended with great popular enthusiasm.

Affairs seem to be growing more and more gloomy in Russia. Riots are feared in consequence of the increasing dearness of provisions, and circulars are being distributed charging the Czar with being the cause of all the trouble.

The correspondent of the London *Daily Telegraph* at Constantinople states that the Russians will shortly occupy Merv, and that one of the chiefs of the Tekkes has arrived at Merv to negotiate on behalf of Russia for the submission of all the Turkomans.

A despatch from Buenos Ayres, by way of London, states that the United States Minister at Santiago had informed the Chilian Government that the United States would not interfere in the negotiations for a treaty of peace with Peru.

Señor Altemerano, Mayor of Valparaiso, has been appointed Civil Governor of the Peruvian territory now occupied by the Chilians. A Santiago newspaper says that the rumor increases in strength that the Chilian Government intends to prolong indefinitely the occupation of Peru and to organize its administration on a firmer footing than at present. A civil government is to be substituted for the present military one, but it will be sustained by a military force sufficient to crush all armed resistance. It is stated that every effort has been made in Peru to create a belief in the public mind that the United States contemplates an armed intervention on behalf of the Calderon government, and General Hurlbut's letters have been widely circulated.

The Mexican Senate has approved the law abrogating the authority of the President to grant railway concessions. He is still authorized, however, to alter existing concessions and to transfer those that may become forfeited.

Great indignation has been caused among the native and foreign merchants in Panama by the resolution of the State Government to increase their taxes twenty-five per cent. The taxes are to be assessed arbitrarily, and are based upon the amount of business which each merchant is supposed to have transacted.

TUESDAY, November 8, 1881.

IS THE CAUCUS PERFECT?

MR. ADIN THAYER, a prominent and very respectable politician of Massachusetts, has been reading a paper to the Massachusetts Club on "The Caucus System," which pleased his fellow-members so much that they have printed it for publication in pamphlet form. The caucus has of late years been so much denounced by reformers, and so many of the ills of the body politic are ascribed to its working, that a formal defence of it by a respectable politician can hardly fail to be interesting reading. We have read Mr. Thayer's pamphlet attentively. He discusses in eloquent language the failure of all republics preceding ours, but believes, nevertheless, that ours will succeed, and meets the talk of "educated simpletons of the inadequacy of republican institutions," by telling them that "he hears it with unutterable disgust"—a frame of mind, let us observe, in which an adversary's arguments are hardly likely to receive due consideration. That the talk of "the educated simpletons," however, makes some impression on him, we are led to infer from his admission a little further on, that, in view of the numerous failures of republics both in ancient and modern times, "surely we ought to indulge in no overweening confidence in the success of our own experiment; that no weak optimism should lead us to relax that vigilance which is forever the price of liberty." In fact, on a calm view of the situation, he says he should be inclined to despair, along with the "educated simpletons," if it were not for the existence of "certain institutions, which are to a great extent peculiar to this country"—namely, "the common school, the free press, the town-meeting, and the caucus," the latter term including the political convention. He confines his defence, however, to the caucus, the influence of the others, he says, being "fully appreciated," and therefore needing no defence.

The caucus, he tells us, was invented by Sam Adams, in consequence of his having found the press and the town meeting "insufficient for his purpose of establishing liberty regulated by law." The experiment has, Mr. Thayer continues, "been tried and has proved an abundant success." Nevertheless, it evidently has not proved such an overwhelming success as to silence all cavillers, for it appears that in spite of its having received "the approval of Hancock, and Otis, and Warren, and the Adamses," it is made by "some of our doctrinaires" the object of "flippant denunciations." This is not all, however. "Thousands yes, hundreds of thousands of intelligent men," Mr. Thayer says, "to-day pride themselves on their indifference to politics; and the number is constantly increasing." In other words, they do not attend the caucus or respect it. "There is danger," Mr. Thayer truly remarks, "in the situation." He also admits that if the Massachusetts judges were to attend the caucus, "a morbid and sickly sentimentality would declaim against dragging the judicial ermine in the mire of politics." He uses the clergymen as an illustration in the same way; shows that it was the refusal of the property-holders, "the conscience, the wealth, and the intellect" of New York, to attend the caucus, which made possible the robberies of the Tweed Ring, and that even in Massachusetts a "portion of her culture and scholarship derides the caucus." He sums up by saying that "the continued neglect of the caucus will work the ruin of the republic, for it means in the end the ruin of all real interest in public affairs," and he enforces this dismal prediction by pointing to the fate which overtook Greece and Rome.

Now, we are far more hopeful about the republic than Mr. Thayer is, although he evidently thinks himself a great optimist. We do not believe, as he evidently does, that its fate is at all dependent on the preservation of the caucus in its present shape. He is one of that class of active politicians, in our day, who have taken so large a part in creating the existing machinery of party management, and have acquired so much skill in using it—we do not say this by way of depreciation—that they have, being mostly past middle life, come to look upon it as the last step in political progress and the last word in political philosophy. From the account he gives of Sam Adams, the inventor of the caucus, one would suppose that the union of liberty and law had not been thought of before his time. But the fact is that Sam Adams, like nearly all men of his day, inherited his fundamental political ideas, and he invented the caucus for the use of a people already free and used to self-government. The race had been steadily advancing, politically as well as in other ways, from the time of the Heptarchy up to Sam Adams's time. The greatest political invention of the modern world, representative legislatures, was hit upon centuries before Sam Adams was born. This in no way detracts from his merits either as a thinker or statesman. It simply denies him the credit which Mr. Thayer claims for him, and to which no man except Moses or Mohammed is entitled—the credit of having invented something in politics which it is not possible to improve and not safe to discard. There is no such thing. There never will be any such thing. Political machinery has been improving ever since cannibals made the regulation that the victim's head should always be kept for the chief. It will continue to improve to the end, by being adapted to the changing needs of society. Kings, parliaments, municipal governments, codes of law, rules of procedure, the organization of courts, all change. Within our own time the greatest change made since the introduction of representation has occurred in the establishment of universal suffrage. There is not a State in the Union, or in Europe, which is not to-day trying new experiments in its political organization and in its legislation, with the view of meeting new political wants and diseases. There is no more justification for or more possibility of stagnation or repose in the political art than in the mechanic arts. The inventor of candles was a good man and a useful man, but reverence for his memory does not forbid us to try gas and electricity. So also the caucus was a good thing, as Sam Adams established it, for the needs of the society into which he introduced it. Mr. Thayer now admits that it does not give satisfaction; that a very large class, and a very valuable one in some ways, and whose arguments he meets with epithets, distrust it, and refuse to use it, and that in consequence of this refusal the Government runs some risk of falling wholly into the hands of the ignorant and corrupt. In every other field of human activity the state of things which Mr. Thayer describes would suggest improvements calculated to remedy the revealed defects. In all branches of art, inventors and manufacturers, when they find the public will not use their machine or implement, try to find out what it is the public wants, and make such changes as are necessary to meet the want. They do not take the stump and begin to denounce the public for not liking what was good enough for their great-grandfathers in the last century. But in politics men who have once mastered the arts by which voters are managed in any given year, apparently find no difficulty in persuading themselves that their last little device is one of the eternal forces of nature, to which it is the duty of man to adapt himself as he adapts himself to the climate, or to the law of gravitation.

Now, we are among the number of those who believe the caucus was a good thing when Sam Adams invented it; that it is a good thing in many parts of the country to-day just as he left it; that to the altered condition of society in many parts of the country, and particularly the great cities, it is now wholly unsuited; that it needs, as a method of nominating candidates, serious changes; that these changes must and will be made before long, under the great law of progress which was in operation one thousand years before the Massachusetts Club turned its attention to politics, and will save the human race one thousand years after the Club has been forgotten; that those who demand such changes are not all "simpletons" or "flippant doctrinaires," and that neither Mr. Thayer nor anybody else can avert them by calling names. The narrowness of his experience in the matter is curiously illustrated by the fact that under his definition of the right of bolting, which even he reserves for himself under certain circumstances, he would not be permitted to take part in any Republican caucus in this city.

In short, the caucus, like government in general, was made for man, and not man for the caucus. Moreover, American society, like all human society, is made up of various elements, and the best system of party nominations is that in which it is easiest for the most intelligent, and the laziest and most indifferent to take part. The eager, and interested, and patriotic, and rough-and-ready will participate in the working of any system. What is needed is a system in which the most refined and sensitive and fastidious and scholarly and rich will find no difficulty in participating. And we would warn Mr. Thayer and his friends that if the ruin of the republic is to be feared, as he says it is, from the reluctance of this class to share in the work of selecting candidates for office, nothing can be more important than overcoming this reluctance. But it is not to be overcome by declamatory abuse of this any more than of any other class, but by doing what Sam Adams did—namely, adapting your

machinery to the times you live in and the people you have to work with. What the changes in the nominating system should be we propose to discuss hereafter.

WHICH RAISED MOST MONEY FOR THE CANVASS?

As usual at the close of a canvass, a dispute has arisen as to which of the two parties has spent most money. Each maintains stoutly that it has spent hardly anything, while the outlay of its opponents has been lavish, and exhibits a kind of loathing for the practice of using money for elections. At the beginning of a canvass, however, the tone of the managers is very different. Then they say that without money, and plenty of money, success is impossible; that money is the sinews of politics as well as of war, and that nobody but mollycoddles and theorists objects to the raising and spending of it in rousing voters to a sense of their duty. The duty of officeholders to make up contributions is also dwelt on with much emphasis by the Republican leaders at the outset of a struggle, not—Heaven forbid—as a means of saving themselves from the displeasure of their superiors, but in order to keep the Democrats from getting possession of the Government, and thus destroying the only chance we have of genuine civil service reform.

At the close both parties play a totally different tune. We are now told that the Republicans have expended very little money. "No attempt has been made to collect regular assessments from the employees of the Government." "Not one-third of the employees of the Government," says a member of the Executive Committee, in the columns of the *Tribune*,

"have contributed a single cent, at least through this committee, to the expenses of the campaign. On the other hand, the employees of the city departments have contributed, almost without exception, 2½ per cent. of their salaries to the Democratic campaign fund. The clerks in the Mayor's office made similar contributions, and the Mayor himself, to my personal knowledge, gave a very liberal percentage of his own salary, notwithstanding his cheap attempt to gain political capital out of a letter deprecating assessments. He will undoubtedly say that these contributions were not compulsory; but if a head of department subscribes 2½ per cent. on a list and then sends a man to collect subscriptions on the same list from his employees, how many of them will dare refuse to follow his example? Well, that is just what was done, and by this means the Democrats have been very liberally supplied with campaign funds."

Now, in the first place, the assertion that no attempt has been made to collect regular assessments from the employees of the Government is not only untrue, but impudently untrue, as the attempt was made through printed circulars. If it be true that only one-third of the employees paid anything in response to the circular, it shows simply that the attempt failed. Hugh Gardner's attempt, in his shirt-sleeves, on behalf of the Republican Committee, to fleece the unfortunate letter-carriers by levying a regular assessment on them, at the Astor House, was as public and brazen as that worthy politician could make it. If it was only partially successful, so much the better; but its authors really ought not to come forward and produce its failure as a proof of their own virtue. When a burglar finds a window-fastening too much for him, he does not go about and brag of it as a proof that he is leading an honest life.

The question which this wretched business now suggests to be put to the Republican managers is, why, if they get so little from the officeholders as they say they do, they do not give up levying assessments, "regular" or other, altogether. What they receive cannot, according to their own account, possibly compensate them for the scandal and odium which the attempt excites. A larger and larger portion of the party is every year disgusted by these efforts to make a body of very poor and hard-worked men pay the principal part of the expenses of the canvass of a party whose members possess more than half the wealth of the country, and "claim" to possess two-thirds at least of its patriotism.

It may or may not be true that the Democrats have levied 2½ per cent. on the salaries of the city employees. They are certainly quite capable of it, and as they do not even pretend to be as pure as the Republicans, it would be hard for a Republican to find fault with them for following the Republican example. But it is to be observed that under the existing State law, as interpreted by the Court of Appeals, city employees enjoy a security of tenure which makes it perfectly easy for them to refuse to pay assessments if they choose, and which we are thus far vainly trying to procure for those of the Federal Government. A clerk in the City Hall who pays money for elections is either an improvident person, or an ambitious politician who wants to keep his footing good in the various wigwams and halls of the party, and deserves no sympathy.

ENGLISH LIBERALS AND IRISH COERCION.

It looks now as if the Land agitation in Ireland would be taken up, in part at least, by the friends of woman suffrage, both in Ireland and England, owing to the apparent unwillingness of the Government to interfere with the meetings of the female branch of the Land League. Miss Helen Taylor, the step-daughter and literary executor of John Stuart Mill, has gone over to Ireland and joined Miss Fanny Parnell in keeping up the work of the League, but seems to be mainly interested in the matter of the arbitrary arrests, which is undoubtedly trying the souls of a good many of the English Liberals a good deal. It is not improbable, indeed, that it is going to lead to considerable Liberal losses in coming elections. Mr. Gladstone will probably suffer from that very condition of English opinion about Ireland which gives the cause of Home Rule all the strength it has. The normal condition of the ordinary middle-class English mind about Ireland is one of almost complete ignorance, coupled with extreme dislike of the Irish, as, to use Mr. Walter's words, "a fractious and turbulent people." As far back as the ordinary Englishman can remember there has been trouble in Ireland, and his father has told him that as long as he can remember the same state of things existed. Moreover, he can recall no time when the necessity of governing Ireland by martial law did not every now and then seem plain enough in English counting-houses and clubs; and the excuses made by the Irish for their rows struck him as impudently amusing. That people should be discontented on account of what they say happened fifty or one hundred years ago—not one-quarter of which he believes—he thinks very absurd indeed, and he accounts for it by the theory, which he firmly holds, that the Irish mind is so constituted that it can comfortably contain two contradictory propositions lying side by side. When, therefore, Irish disorder reaches a certain point he becomes very angry, and in his rage thinks the proper remedy is "troops," and abuses the Ministry for not applying it. When the Ministry does apply it, however, and the arrests are made, and the agitators are lying silent in jail, and the meetings have been dispersed, Russian fashion, by the police, there comes to him a period of cool reflection the results of which are apt to be painful. He remembers that the Irish are his fellow-subjects, that they live under the same Constitution with himself, and that he has been for many years preaching to the King of Naples, and the Czar, and the Emperor of Austria the doctrine that there is no such thing as causeless popular discontent; that when there is discontent, it is best that its manifestations should be open, and that anyhow force is no remedy. Then he feels a little ashamed of his course in the Irish affair. The criticisms of foreigners trouble him. He looks about for somebody to bear the blame of his folly, and easily works himself into the belief that it was the Ministers who did it; that they ought to have been more calm and patient, and not to have minded what he said. And then he appears once more as a friend of freedom, and, like Mr. Cowen, who sympathized warmly with the Turks against the Russians after the Batak massacres, he turns round and asks himself, when such things are permitted in Dublin, how long it will be before he sees them in London.

Neither Miss Helen Taylor nor any other English Liberal, however, seems as yet to have fully got at the root of the Irish difficulty. Force is not a remedy, but the application of force is often necessary as a palliative in order to give the remedy time to work. Moreover, no people in the world probably have less natural objection to the use of force at a crisis than the Irish. But they, like every other people in the world, cannot bear to see force, even when they admit its necessity, applied by a foreign hand. Now, Mr. Gladstone's hand, however benign, is a foreign one, and so is Forster's, and the majority which passed the Coercion Bill was a foreign majority, and it is this which makes its working unbearable. So that really what the Irish crisis calls for is not so much freedom of speech as the exercise of the powers of government by persons whom the bulk of the population do not look upon as aliens in feeling and traditions.

The Irish question is full of anomalies, but the most striking of them all is the extent to which the part of the population which has national feeling and national aspirations is bereft of leaders of education and social position. This accounts in a large degree for the spirit of childish mischief which seems to characterize Irish agitation, and which exasperates

Englishmen so much. The old Catholic gentry were driven out of the country with extraordinary completeness after each of the civil wars, and the new gentry who succeeded them not only belonged to a foreign race and to a foreign church, but, unlike the earlier Norman invaders, never amalgamated with the people. It is not true of the Cromwellian and Williamite settlers, as it was of the Normans, that they became "more Irish than the Irish themselves." On the contrary, they have remained more English than the English themselves. There is more old-fashioned English Toryism, Jingoism, and Anti-Liberalism of all sorts to be found among the Irish Protestant gentry to-day than among the corresponding class in England. They are as loyal to the British Crown as, and more firmly attached to the Union than, Englishmen themselves. They serve in proportionally greater numbers in the army, and hold the Irish nationalist agitation in greater horror. All the distinction they win in any field—and they win a good deal—is set down to the credit of England: that is, they win it as Englishmen and not as Irishmen. How few people ever think of Burke, or Castlereagh, or Wellington, or the Marquis of Wellesley, or Canning, or Palmerston, or Sir Henry Lawrence, or Lord Gough, or Lord Mayo, or General Nicholson, or Sir Garnet Wolseley, or Sir Frederick Roberts as Irishmen; and yet they were or are all more Irish than Parnell. The result is that when the Catholic population wishes to show its discontent, it has no proper organs for the purpose. It is ignorant and poor, and bred in the habit of looking at the Government, not as its servant, but as its enemy and oppressor. It therefore makes its wants known through paltry agents, and through the outrages, tumults, riots, and crimes which, as unhappy experience has taught it, are the only means by which it can reach the ear of the English Parliament, of which nearly five hundred out of six hundred members have probably never been in Ireland, and consider Irish questions a bore.

The great work of pacifying Ireland will consist in making Catholic and Nationalist masses believe that they, or persons in whom they have confidence, have a share in governing Ireland—that the Government is in fact their Government, as well as that of Englishmen and Scotchmen; and this can only be done by putting in the Cabinet men selected for the place by Irish opinion, just as Mr. Chamberlain was selected by English Radical opinion, or the Lord Advocate by Scotch opinion. It is put further off than ever by the appearance in Ireland of an Englishman like Mr. Forster, charged with the administration of military law as a remedy for discontent. The most reasonable people in the world would be exasperated by this, the most unreasonable rendered more unreasonable still.

SCHOOLS OF FORESTRY.

A GENERAL idea pervades the public mind that the forests of the United States are being too rapidly consumed, and that something ought to be done to protect and restore them. Forestry is expected to accomplish much in this direction —the very vagueness, to most American minds, of the term forestry only adding to its supposed power to accomplish wonderful results. Forest schools have been found useful in many of the countries of Europe in training young men to become practical foresters, and the desire to establish here similar schools has taken possession of various public-spirited individuals in widely different parts of the country. A few years ago we were told by other public-spirited citizens that State agricultural colleges were needed to place American agriculture on a firm scientific basis. They were accordingly founded at great expense, and in great numbers; their success, however, has not, we believe, been great. But this is not the occasion to discuss the advantages such schools afford for obtaining a sound agricultural education. We shall, perhaps, at some future time find an opportunity to examine this subject more fully, and to explain why, in our opinion, the Agricultural Experimental Station is, in the present condition of American agriculture, of far greater value to the community than the Agricultural College as at present organized.

Schools of forestry, on the European plan, will hardly command a greater success here at present than have American agricultural schools. In Europe the growth of the school of forestry has been natural. Its origin may be traced to the great entailed forests, the property of the crown and the nobles. The revenues derived from these forests have always been an important source of income to their owners, and the necessity of properly managing them has gradually developed in Europe a science of forestry, and has produced the trained, scientific forester. The European forester is a recognized member of society, whose duties are clearly defined, and whose services are in constant and certain demand. Graduates, therefore, of European forest schools are sure of well-paid and immediate employment, with fair prospects of promotion. It is evident that such schools, teaching the lessons acquired through centuries of practical forest management, and being in a position to secure for their graduates remunerative employment, are in a healthy and natural condition, and capable of playing an important part in industrial education. In the United States the conditions under which schools of forestry could be established, at the present time, are very different. We are without tradition or experience of sound forest management on which to base any system of instruction in forestry, while every European country differs so widely from our own in climate, soil, and especially in the tenure of land, that little of practical value to the people of the United States is to be gained from a study of the various systems of forestry practised in Europe. A greater difficulty in establishing successful schools of forestry here lies in the fact that the graduates of such schools could not find employment in the profession for which their education had prepared them. There is not yet any demand for educated foresters in this country, and until such a demand exists there can be no inducement for young men to devote several years of their lives to obtaining a special training for that which has no market value. If there is no demand for what the school can teach, there is no demand for the school.

Schools of forestry, however, must not be confounded with arboretums. The Arboretum, if properly directed, should bear the same relation to the school of forestry that the Agricultural Experimental Station should bear to the school of agriculture. Its functions should lie in the direction of experiment and the general dissemination of knowledge; and, as an experimental station, it is capable of taking an important position in preparing the way for schools of forestry when the demand for trained foresters shall have made their existence possible. The planting and management of forests is a practical occupation, and to be successful it must be conducted on purely business principles. In parenthesis we hazard the query—and we approach this subject, it must be confessed, with very considerable misgivings as to the punishment which is in store for us—Why does the American citizen break forth in song when he feels called upon to discourse on trees? Trees, in their economic aspect at least, are as prosaic as other vegetable productions—the cotton-plant, or the cabbage, for example; and until sentiment and fine writing can be dispensed with in treating the economic questions of forest management there is little hope that sylviculture can become a profitable branch of agriculture. That the cultivation of trees, if undertaken under proper conditions and on a sufficiently large scale, can be made profitable at the present time both in the Eastern and Western States, we firmly believe. Unless such an enterprise can be made to pay a fair return for the capital invested, it is useless to consider the subject of forestry at all—except sentimentally; but if it can be demonstrated that money invested in the formation and care of forests can earn a proper rate of interest, capital will be eager to engage in this new form of industry.

This can only be proved by actual experiment. The difficulties to overcome at the outset of such an enterprise are considerable. A planted forest to be profitable should be of considerable extent; the first outlays are large, and years must elapse before the first crop can be harvested. Here is the principal difficulty in the whole matter; few persons can invest a large sum of money in such a manner that they cannot themselves, unless under exceptional circumstances, hope to see any return from their investment. If the experiment is to be tried at all on a large scale, and with a reasonable hope of success, it must be tried by a corporation—either a railroad with unoccupied lands suitable for the purpose, or, better, by a company specially chartered to hold and manage forest property. Such a corporation, with its capital stock divided among a large number of small investors and managed with business sagacity, might carry on its operations on a large scale without imposing excessive individual burdens, and with very considerable prospect of success and future large profits. Such an enterprise should clearly demonstrate whether capital could safely and profitably engage in the cultivation of trees; and as the cotton-mill and the machine-shop are the best schools in which to acquire the training necessary to become a successful cotton manufacturer or machinist, a forest conducted on purely scientific principles would give young men the best possible opportunity to learn the practical details of forest management. Such forests, if sufficiently multiplied, would require trained managers, and would naturally create a demand for fully equipped forest schools, in which a knowledge of the theory of the subject as well as of the practice could be acquired. The first steps towards the establishment of such an enterprise will naturally encounter certain obstacles; but, once taken, and taken wisely, results can be obtained which may lead to the successful development of a great industry.

PERNICIOUS READING IN OUR PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

MR. J. M. HUBBARD has for some time been protesting against the character of the fiction supplied to children by the Boston Public Library—at first in the Boston *Herald*, then by means of a memorial to the city government, and finally in a pamphlet of twenty-three pages published by A. Williams & Co. In the memorial he pre-

sented a list of about one hundred objectionable books circulated (often in many copies) by the Library, with evidence as to their character in the shape of extracts from reviews in the *Athenæum*, *Academy*, *Spectator*, *Saturday Review*, and *Nation*. A committee of the City Council laid the list before the Trustees, who in their last annual report defended their course on the ground that "it would be highly improper for the Trustees to exclude such authors as these, whose works are read in every circle of society, and which the public, who are taxed to support the institution, demand. While they carefully exclude from circulation, especially among the young, all books of an immoral influence, they do not consider themselves in the position of parents or guardians to the community, bound to select for it only such books as suit their own tastes." This was said originally of a list of authors differing in part from the one given in the memorial, but in a note it is made to refer to the memorial list also. Thereupon Mr. Hubbard, having different ideas as to what are "books of an immoral influence," has published the list, somewhat enlarged in the number of criticisms quoted, though not in the number of books mentioned.

It is a literary curiosity. Few people, we imagine, were aware that there are so many so bad books belonging to the literature of the last twenty years and "read in every circle of society." We may not be fit judges of the value of the criticisms, for many of them are taken from our own columns; but the majority are derived from the *Academy*, *Athenæum*, and *Saturday Review*, which have never had the reputation of being over nice. "Vulgar" is the mildest epithet. "Maudlin sentiment," "nauseous," "fleshly taint," "unwholesome," "unnatural vileness," "broadly delineated passion," "uncleanness," "reeking with sin," "sniggering suggestion," are the flowers of criticism which may be gathered on every page. Unintentional bigamy, seduction, adultery, are the subjects of a large part of these hundred novels. "The great object of books like these," said the *Athenæum* in 1867, "is to teach immorality by presenting it in an interesting and seductive form, and by making good people, who live according to the ordinary laws of decency, appear tame, stupid, and despicable. . . . It is time for critics to speak out boldly, and to declare in plain language what they think of the tendencies of these books, and see by so doing whether they cannot put a stop to their production."

Critics must have seen by this time that they can do no such thing. Mr. Hubbard apparently hopes to put a stop to the circulation of this literature, in which we fear he will equally fail; but possibly a certain repressive influence may be produced by this massing of testimony which could not be expected from single, dispersed outcries. Parents and guardians may be induced to reassume their disused duties, and supervise their children's selection of books or keep them away from the Library altogether.

There is certainly occasion for more care. There has been a great change in American customs in this respect in the last fifty years. Formerly, in many families, to read novels at all was considered not merely a waste of time, but a sin. Now in the same families everything is read. Unfortunately, while this change has been coming about, a great wave of French influence has been sweeping over English authorship, and has almost entirely submerged not merely its former prudishness, which would be no great loss, but a large part of its former purity. The spirit of the opéra bouffe has penetrated fiction as well as the stage. In France this literature of adultery is considered to belong to the kind "dont la mère ne permettra pas la lecture à sa fille." In America, unluckily, the mother's permission is not asked for her daughter's reading. We do not know that any harm has yet come from it. We cannot put our finger on any specific evil that can be traced to "La Belle Hélène" on the stage, or to Ouida and Broughton and Zola in literature, or the Beecher trial in real life. It never is easy to trace the result of moral agency for either good or evil. But one thing is certain: if this stuff has no bad influence on the age, then the preaching of Christianity can have no good influence—the age must be utterly unimpressionable. It is incredible that so much pitch should not defile, that the tone of public feeling should not be in the end lowered by constant familiarity with such perverted thought.

We are not now speaking especially of the vulgarity and bad taste of these books, nor even of their occasional indecency; these are largely matters of convention, and, though they may offend, will not of necessity seriously hurt readers. Indeed, it may be well that these writers should display enough of both these qualities to drive away some readers in disgust. The real evil is the thoroughly unchristian, because selfish, spirit that is in them all; and the idea which pervades almost all that we have either read or read about, that passion is rightly lord of all. The very least the most indulgent critic can say is, that books saturated with this spirit will not have an elevating influence, and that it is not worth while to take any especial pains to put them within the reach of everybody; that in doing it no institution does any good or deserves any praise; and that if any appreciable proportion of the fiction circulated by the Public Library, at an annual cost of $20,000, consists of such novels, the money could be better spent.

We may even confess that after reading Mr. Hubbard's extracts, we were not so much surprised as we had always been at the remark of the head master of one of the Boston schools who had given some attention to his pupils' reading: "The Public Library is a curse to the school children." But we are not concerned with that library now. It would be hazardous for a journal in another city to criticise the action of its Trustees taken deliberately in view of circumstances best known to them. We have mentioned this pamphlet chiefly to call to it the attention of the authorities of our city and town libraries. It may lead some who have been liberal or careless in their purchases of fiction to consider whether, after all, it is worth while to spend any considerable part of their limited funds in the purchase of such rubbish as is here characterized, and whether, again, the public as a whole really do "demand" such reading, and whether if it is necessary to furnish some, it is necessary to furnish so much. To a small library the argument derived from the odium of a censorship does not apply. The great library, it is thought, must buy everything, because it has money enough to buy everything; but the small library is under no such compulsion. Even if it would like to purchase everything, it cannot. It *must* select. There are enough good books—interesting good books—to use up all the income of most town libraries. The question then is, Shall it buy doubtful morality and undoubted vulgarity, and by so doing incapacitate itself for buying wholesome and refining literature, or shall it get the better class of books, and have the excuse of "no funds" at its service when it is asked to procure undesirable works?

The question does not seem to need any long discussion. Of course it is difficult to draw the line. It is a question of degree. First, there are the disgusting books, which everybody would exclude, as every one would consent that the sale of poisons and drugged whiskey should be placed under restrictions; then there are the doubtful books, ranging, as we may say, from brandy to lager-beer, about the prohibition of which there is every variety of opinion; and, finally, there are the unobjectionable novels—cream, milk, and milk and water—which a trustee can supply without any qualms of conscience. (He may have doubts about the last, but we believe he will find infant stomachs that cannot endure anything stronger.) General consensus of all readers marks off the lowest class. A nearly general consensus of critics marks off the lowest parts of the second class. It is here that Mr. Hubbard's pamphlet becomes valuable to trustees who have not the critical journals at hand, and who cannot read all the books offered for purchase, or who cannot decide when they have read. It is in a way a combination of Allibone and the Index Expurgatorius. It would be well to keep it locked up in the trustees' desk, as a teacher locks up the key to his arithmetic or his Greek exercises: an index expurgatorius is too apt to be used by certain tastes to guide their reading in the way it should not go. But if this precaution be taken, the pamphlet may render considerable service, and there may be even a call for the publication of that "similar evidence" which Mr. Hubbard says he possesses "in regard to many other novels in the Library," and likely to be in or to be offered to our town libraries.

GLADSTONE'S IRISH POLICY SUSTAINED.

London, Oct. 26, 1881.

The most prominent object in the political horizon is again Ireland. The decided action of the Government in arresting Mr. Parnell and his associates, and in proclaiming the Land League as an illegal association, is in all men's mouths, and has thrown every other political topic into the shade. Public opinion has, with striking unanimity, backed up the Government. Not a single member of Parliament for England or Scotland who has spoken on public affairs since this new departure has, as far as I am aware, expressed disapproval of it, while a recognition that decided steps had become a regrettable necessity has come freely even from the advanced party, and from such thoroughgoing representatives of the working classes as Mr. Burt and Mr. Broadhurst. As to the Conservative party, their only complaint is that the repressive measures were not adopted sooner. Turning to the press, we find, with few exceptions, the same consensus of opinion both among the London and provincial journals. One of the exceptions is to be found—it is almost needless to say—in the Newcastle *Chronicle;* but those who followed the political vagaries of Mr. Cowen, one of the members for Newcastle, during the last few years, from his advocacy of the abandonment of Gibraltar in 1874 to his pronounced phase of Jingoism during the last Parliament, and his alliance with the Obstructionists this session, will not attach much weight to the opinions of the Newcastle paper. Another exception, more worthy of attention, is to be found in the *Statist*, a weekly paper of high repute and ability, whose utterances justly carry weight with thinking men. Apart from these few discordant notes, public opinion may be said to be practically unanimous, and there can be no doubt that the Government have been completely successful in carrying the country with them.

It may be worth while to glance for a moment at the position of the dissidents, particularly as the reasons which now weigh with them have up to the present crisis so effectually weighed with the Government as to prevent its using

to the full the powers of coercion at its command. It is obvious that the problem before us is how to reconcile the more active spirits in a great part of Ireland to the English connection, and to make them look to action in and through the united Parliament for such redress of grievances and changes in the law as they may require. Each fresh instance of exceptional treatment of Ireland by the use of exceptional powers, even though sanctioned by Parliament, leaves behind it a bitterness which must stand in the way of anything like this permanent reconciliation. And there can be no denying that they are most exceptional powers which enable the executive to imprison without trial the most prominent leaders of a popular movement, many of whom are legally elected representatives in Parliament, and who, in case of vacancies, would be re-elected again and again. The case is even worse when these measures come from the political party which has always been opposed to them in principle, has more or less denounced them when they have been adopted by the opposite party, and has proclaimed loudly its trust in remedial measures; for it must never be forgotten—though the advocates of repression habitually forget it—that the very people we are now repressing are those through whom we must ultimately govern; that in a popular system of government like ours the governed are associated with the Government in a variety of ways, in the administration of justice through the juries, in the various local bodies, and, lastly, in the Parliamentary elections; and that if we make these people irreconcilable, our chances of the country permanently settling down are hopelessly gone. Besides these objections, there is the risk of passive resistance—the risk that the advice of the Land League may be taken, and a strike against all rent carried out throughout half the country. Then we should have a state of things resembling the Tithe War, with which the military and police forces would be powerless to cope. As the *Statist* puts it: "It is quite clear that if the Irish tenants are staunch, no power on earth can compel them to pay. Of what use is it to seize crops and stock if no one will buy? Or how will it benefit landlords to evict tenants if they can neither cultivate nor let the lands?" There is also the further risk of driving the agitation inwards, and finding ourselves grappling with secret conspiracies, with their many ramifications and their policy of dynamite.

In spite of all this and a great deal more which might be urged in the same sense, I think public opinion will continue to approve the course which the Government have adopted. It is well known that no Cabinet has ever been in power which was so averse to the use of coercive measures, and so bent upon giving a full and unfettered trial to remedial measures, as the present one. If, therefore, they have finally resorted to the policy they dislike, there must, it is argued, be grave reason for it, and they must have been in possession of information which compelled them to act at once. But apart from this, it is universally felt that the Land League had long ceased to answer to the idea of a legitimate reform agitation, carried on by fair argument and persuasion, and which men were free to join or not as they pleased. The methods employed, or at least countenanced, and most certainly not repudiated, by the League, were not the methods by which such a measure as—for instance—the repeal of the corn laws was carried. Boycotting, intimidation, and outrage of all kinds were freely made use of, and the notion that he had any freedom of action left would have been ridiculed by the shopkeeper or tenant-farmer in remote districts. Besides this, it had become obvious that the ostensible objects of the League were no longer its real ones; that while it was posing as counsellor and adviser to the farmers as to the cases they should take into court, it was really bent upon throwing discredit upon the act, and depriving tenants of their freedom to use it as they wished. That the tenants are sensible of the advantages of the act there is ample evidence. One curious fact I have on good authority: a rumor got wind that a Cabinet council was to be summoned to consider the expediency of repealing the Land Act; whereupon two hundred tenants in one place forthwith came forward and paid their rents, and my informant adds that if the rumor could have circulated a few days longer, a large number of rents would have been got in. As to passive resistance, there is no likelihood of its being adopted—the evidence is all the other way; and the distinct condemnation of this policy by so firm a friend of the League as Archbishop Croke, together with the attitude of the rest of the Roman Catholic clergy, leaves little doubt on this score. In any case the feeling is that it is better to run the risk than to continue to sanction the state of anarchy into which Ireland has fallen. The condition of things has long been felt to be a disgrace to civilization, and has deeply offended the whole neutral mass of non-politicians—those who do not profess to know much about the principles of government, but have an idea that Government should govern, and at least preserve life and property.

With the differences of opinion as to the time which the Government chose for their action, I have not troubled your readers, as it is a question which is merely a matter of party warfare. The general result I take to be that the Government will have greatly strengthened their position in the country. H.

Correspondence.

THE KING'S MISSIVE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an article under the above heading, published in the last issue of the *Nation*, you refer to several letters of Rev. Dr. George E. Ellis, bearing upon the historical accuracy of certain illustrations which are inserted in the Memorial History of Boston, vol. i., in connection with the poem of Mr. Whittier.

If the article is intended as an analysis of the papers on the subject in the proceedings of the Historical Society, it is very wide of the mark. I have read those papers, as I had such of them as had been previously published in the journals.

I notice that three times in his communications Dr. Ellis tries to persuade Mr. W. to abandon the general subject of the treatment of the Quakers, which was clearly foreign to the discussion, and to concentrate his attention on the sole point of the fidelity of his poem and its illustrations to the truth on the court records.

Your article runs off largely in the same way to the general subject, and strangely enough omits all notice of the points made by Dr. Ellis, such as these:

1. The court records show that capital proceedings against the Quakers had been dropped *before the arrival of the King's letter.*

2. The jail delivery had taken place *before that letter was received.*

3. Not a single Quaker prisoner was sent by process to England in answer to the King's letter.

4. So far from being afraid lest their victims should go to England to testify against them, as Mr. W. suggests, Dr. Ellis shows from the records that the jail delivery had been made on the express agreement that they would voluntarily go to England on a vessel in the harbor.

5. There was no such jubilation meeting on the Common as pictured by Mr. W.

6. The article in the *Nation*, while printing at length the King's first letter, which is supposed to have befriended the Quakers, omits all notice of the King's second letter, quoted by Dr. Ellis, which says: "We cannot be understood to direct or wish that any indulgence should be granted to those persons commonly called Quakers, whose principles being inconsistent with any kind of government, we have found it necessary, by the advice of Parliament here, to make a sharp law against them, and are well contented that you do the like there."

The character of illiteracy or indecency in these disturbers of the old Puritans, which is discussed at some length by the writer, although abundantly established by the authorities (see as to the former the thorough presentation of the subject by Dr. Palfrey in his 'History of New England'), is not involved in the points raised by Dr. Ellis and subsequently discussed at the meeting of the Historical Society. A. B. E.

Boston, Oct. 31.

[We understood the "treatment of the Quakers" to be the real subject discussed in the 'Proceedings' of the Historical Society. The "illustrations" (known to have been imaginative) were barely alluded to by Dr. Ellis, and not once by Mr. Whittier. In the article entitled "The King's Missive," an omission to notice the points made by Dr. Ellis in his discussion with Mr. Whittier must be attributed to the circumstance that these points had not been then so clearly presented as they are now by our correspondent. We can now supply the omission.

(1.) We cannot admit that Dr. Ellis established this point. The paper which he read before the Massachusetts Historical Society contains an abstract of the law of May 22, 1661, and in saying that under that law, "for incorrigible pertinacity the penalty of death was in reserve," we quote his own words. In June sentence of death was passed upon Wenlock Christison. And surely if the capital laws, as they applied to Quakers, had been "dropped" before the arrival of the King's letter, the General Court would not have sent agents to England (as it did) to represent to the King that the suspension of the execution of the laws against Quakers "respecting death or corporal punishment" was in observance of his letter "requiring us to forbear their punishment."

(2.) The "jail delivery" insisted on by our correspondent took place in June, 1661, when the court ordered that "all the Quakers now in prison be forthwith acquainted with the new law made against them and forthwith released from prison and sent from constable to constable out of this jurisdiction, Judah Brown and Peter Peirson being, for their contempt in court, tied to the cart's tail by the executioner and whipped through Boston with twenty stripes apiece, and then sent with the rest; and if any of them be found after twelve hours within this jurisdiction, he or they shall be proceeded with according to the law made this present court." Only by a stretch of terms can this be called a "jail delivery." The order was carried out to the letter. Brown and Peirson were whipped, and all were driven out of "this jurisdiction" into the wilderness country. And afterwards, when two of the

"delivered" ones attempted to reach their home in Salem, they were stopped by Mr. Bellingham, the Deputy Governor, and sent back to prison. The order of December 9, however, following the arrival of the King's letter, called in unequivocal phrase for a "jail delivery." "You are required, by authority and order of the General Court," writes Secretary Rawson to the Boston jailer, "forthwith to release and discharge the Quakers who at present are in your custody. See that you don't neglect this."

(3.) We do not regard this as a material "point." If, at the time of the arrival of the mandamus, there were any imprisoned Quakers "condemned to suffer death or other corporal punishment," or that were "obnoxious to the like condemnation," and they were not sent over to England, then the King's command, in that regard, was not obeyed. But it does not follow that because no Quakers were sent to England, "in answer to the King's letter," no Quakers were in prison. Quakers were imprisoned for not attending Congregational meetings, and they were imprisoned for attending their own meetings, for bringing Quakers into the colony, for "entertaining" Quakers, etc., etc. They were first heavily fined for these transgressions of law (in some instances £10) and then imprisoned for nonpayment of the fine. It was not required that these offenders should be sent to England.

(4.) For this "jail delivery," made on the "express agreement" that the prisoners would "voluntarily go to England," our correspondent must go back to the action of the General Court in October, 1660, when it was "judged meet to declare" that all the Quakers then in prison should have liberty to depart for England, "so as they solemnly engage, under their hands, delivered by them to the Governor or Deputy Governor, that they will not return into this jurisdiction without leave from the Council or General Court first by them obtained." For some this "jail delivery" was clearly "banishment on pain of death." Mr. Whittier's suggestion, that prisoners were not sent to England for the reason that the authorities were afraid their victims would testify against them, had reference to a state of things (created by the King's letter) not existing until more than a year after the "jail delivery" here described.

(5.) Perhaps not. The Quaker accounts represent that after the delivery of the King's letter to Governor Endicott, Captain Goldsmith's passengers came on shore, and, with their Friends of the town, had a religious meeting with praises for "this wonderful deliverance." In the absence of all evidence as to the precise place of the meeting, the poet should not be censured for locating it on the Common. And the Common was a likely-enough place for the "jubilation," inasmuch as it contained the graves of the Quaker martyrs.

(6.) The King's "second letter" bears date June 28, 1662, nearly ten months after the issue of the "first letter," which commanded the colonial authorities to "forbear to proceed any further." The permission to make a "sharp law" against the Quakers was improved by the General Court on the 8th of October, 1662, when the "gracious letter" was read to that body and the law of May, 1661, ordered to be henceforth in force. No fact in history is clearer than this, to wit, that between the arrival of the so-called mandamus or "first letter" and the King's "second letter," the execution of the laws against Quakers (so far as those laws respected "corporal punishment or death") was absolutely suspended. If we omitted "all notice of the King's second letter," it was because that letter had no direct bearing upon "The King's Missive."

Most certainly "the character of illiteracy or indecency in these disturbers of the old Puritans" was involved in the discussion which grew out of "The King's Missive." The "indecency" of the Quakers was dwelt upon by Dr. Ellis, and Mr. Whittier occupies a page of the Historical Society's 'Proceedings' in a refutation of the charge. As to the "illiteracy" of the sect, it is Dr. Ellis who calls attention to the 'Memorial History of Boston,' where, in an article contributed by himself, "all of them" are characterized as "illiterate."—Ed. Nation].

Notes.

In January, as we are informed from Bangor, Maine, a *Q. P. Index Annual* will be published, being an index for 1881 to the periodicals already indexed by the Q. P. I., as well as to *Harper's*. The *Nation's* indexing will begin at the end of the old index (Sept., 1880), and "will be minute to this extent, that names of persons mentioned in 'The Week' and 'News Summary' will be entered as often as they occur, articles being distinguished from references by the conventional sign *a*." A running foot-note on each page will serve as a key to the various other symbols. Such an *Annual* will be alike novel and serviceable to a wide circle of readers.——Mr. Benjamin Franklin Stevens, 4 Trafalgar Square, London, owning the stereotype plates of the late Jared Sparks's 'Works and Life of Benjamin Franklin,' in ten volumes 8vo, formerly costing $2 50 a volume, now purposes issuing the work between Feb. 1 and the middle of June, 1882, at half the cost to the first two hundred subscribers before Dec. 20, 1881, after which date the price will be raised to $1 50 per volume. We have given the price of the cloth binding, but other styles proposed by Mr. Stevens will cost as high as $3, according to taste. We believe the copyright has expired on this work.——Chas. Scribner's Sons have nearly ready the 'Memoirs of Count Miot de Melito,' edited by Gen. Fleischmann. They cover the period 1788–1815, and possess an unusual degree of interest and authority.——D. Appleton & Co. will shortly publish a work on 'Suicide,' by Dr. Morselli, of Turin. Colored maps will illustrate the ghastly statistics of the subject.——The Century Co. have procured an engraving to be made for their magazine for December of a mask taken from the living face of Abraham Lincoln.——'A Year of Miracle,' "a poem in four sermons," by the Rev. Wm. C. Gannett; 'Tender and True,' a collection of love poems by the editor of 'Quiet Hours'; and 'Ecce Spiritus,' are in the press of George H. Ellis, Boston. Mr. Ellis has lately put in cheap form Miss Cobbe's lectures on 'The Duties of Women,' already reviewed in the *Nation*.——A. D. F. Randolph & Co. issue immediately a Bunyan Memorial—a new edition of the 'Pilgrim's Progress,' with a biographical sketch and numerous illustrations. The oak wood from which the covers are made was taken from Elston Church previous to its restoration in 1880. The same firm announce 'St. Paul's Vision,' sermons by the Rev. Eug. Bersier, the eminent Protestant preacher of Paris, translated by Miss Stewart.——An American edition of 'Through Cities and Prairie Lands,' by Lady Duffus Hardy, a book of travels in Canada and the United States, is in preparation by R. Worthington.——Robert Clarke & Co. will presently publish 'Thomas Corwin, a Sketch,' by A. P. Russell. A portrait of the Ohio statesman will accompany it.——The Minnesota Historical Society have in mind a reprint of 'Tales of the Northwest,' by William Joseph Snelling, a Boston littérateur of the last generation, for some time a resident of the present State of Minnesota. A sketch of Mr. Snelling, who had a varied career as a journalist, author, and public speaker, is to be prefixed to the work. We are glad to learn that the damage to the Society's building by the late fire is being rapidly repaired.——A. S. Barnes & Co. have issued in a very limited edition the Rev. B. F. De Costa's recent papers on Verrazzano contributed to the *Magazine of American History*. —— George Barrie, Philadelphia, promises "*de luxe* editions" of Boccaccio's 'Decameron' and 'Heptameron,' with etchings by M. Flameng; and 'Études in Modern French Art,' another holiday publication, freely illustrated with engravings. ——A. R. Smith, of London, on issuing part i. of his Catalogue, announces: "Any buyers from it who think it worth preserving, on forwarding me their parts on its completion, I will bind them gratis, with Title and Index." We do not know whether English buyers are accustomed to be bound with title and index. American buyers would probably object to the proceeding, and prefer not to be bound at all. ——We understand that Mr. Bernard Quaritch, of London, will almost immediately publish a volume by Mr. Charles Elton, of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister-at-Law, author of 'The Tenures of Kent,' on 'The Origins of English History.' Notable will be the author's theory of the chronological succession and geographical distribution of the races of man in the British Islands, and his discussion of the origin of the curious custom called "Borough-English," or "Junior-right," to which a chapter is devoted. The book concludes with the conversion of the Anglo-Saxons to Christianity.——Paul Lindau, it is reported, intends issuing a new weekly paper called *Die Zeit*.

—Chas. Scribner's Sons have begun a tasteful reissue of the late Dr. J. G. Holland's works, uniform in style and in price per volume. 'Gold-Foil Hammered from Popular Proverbs,' 'Bitter-sweet,' and 'Titcomb's Letters to Young People,' are the first to appear. They have also brought out anew Dr. Noah Porter's 'Books and Reading,' which has already passed through many editions. A new feature is the appendix of select works in a wide range of topics, specially prepared by Mr. James M. Hubbard, late of the Boston Public Library.——The solid and elegant "Geoffrey Crayon" edition of Irving's works in process of publication by G. P. Putnam's Sons now includes the 'Biographies and Miscellanies' and the first of the five volumes of the 'Life of Washington.' The same publishers announce that the original edition of Prof. M. C. Tyler's 'History of American Literature,' in two volumes, will hereafter be known as the "Bradstreet"; and at the same time they have done the general reading-public the great service of combining the two in a single volume, under the name of the "Agawam" edition, sold at a much lower price, while typographically little inferior to the "Bradstreet," and exceptionally tasteful in binding. In this latter respect, indeed, it is a model.——Admirers of Prof. Ebers's 'Uarda'—and they are by good right many—will be inte-

rested to learn that there is a fresh edition, "revised, corrected, and enlarged from the latest German." Moreover, it is authorized, though Mr. Gottsberger translates rather intensively Ebers's autograph—"Die anderen in America erschienenen Ausgaben dieser Werke sind gegen meinen Willen erschienen im Nachdrucke"—by "... are *piracies* issued against my wishes."——Of the new edition of Prof. J. P. Lesley's 'Man's Origin and Destiny' (Boston: Geo. H. Ellis) it is only necessary to say that the omission of the chapter on Arkism will save a good deal of respect for the author (intellectually speaking), and that in the newly-added chapters the reader will find the same cheerful dogmatism, the same discursiveness, and the same philological aberration which characterize the earlier.——With commendable punctuality the third volume of Von Holst's 'Constitutional and Political History of the United States' follows in the American translation the appearance of the original German (Chicago: Callaghan & Co.). The *Nation's* review of this instalment of a work which every student must needs possess in its entirety, appeared in the number for April 21 (p. 280, vol. xxxii.).——An endeavor to settle the dispute as to Columbus's landfall has led to the curious "Notes on the Historical Hydrography of the Handkerchief Shoal in the Bahamas," by Wm. H. Tillinghast, which form No. 14 of the Bibliographical Notes of the Library of Harvard University.——The October number of the *Portfolio* is noticeable for an etching, in red-chalk fashion, produced by a new French mechanical process, in which the drawing is made with a black lead-pencil on a piece of finely-ground plate glass, which then serves as a negative to the sensitized copper below. Biting does the rest. What is singular is that the lines thus produced are not obviously granulated.——Brehm's 'Thierleben' is about to be reissued in an edition with colored plates besides the usual woodcuts in the text. Extraordinary pains have been taken to give a highly authentic character to these plates, of which one or two will accompany each of the 140 parts contemplated. The cost per part will be, in this country, 36 cents, post-paid. B. Westermann & Co. have received No. 1 (of Birds), whose two chromolithographs give a favorable idea of the execution of this part of Brehm's standard work.——Eight of the ten colored lithographic plates in part iv. of Reiss and Stübel's 'Necropolis of Ancon in Peru' (New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.) exhibit specimens of Peruvian art in the manufacture of cloth. They reinforce the impression already made by previous plates of the remarkable progress in design and color attained by this South American people. Many of them are described in the text as in the "Gobelins style," which is true in more than a textile sense. The patterns are still prevailingly borrowed from the human figure, and show by grotesque transitions the connection between this and forms which, taken by themselves, would be regarded as purely conventional. Some of the borders are quite Greek in appearance.

—The scientific notes of the current Harvard Bulletin (No. 20) confirm the report that the Mammoth Cave is to be used for the propagation of mushrooms; but probably only a part of "Audubon Avenue" will be used for the purpose, and this will take away nothing from the charm of the cave, as the avenue is not included in any of the regular routes of visitors, and there is nothing of special interest to be seen in this part of the cave. Mr. Francis Klett is the present superintendent of the more than one hundred and fifty miles of subterranean passages and chambers, and is now making a scientific survey of the cave. Mr. Klett was formerly an assistant with Lieut. Wheeler on the Government surveys west of the 100th meridian, and is said to be fully competent for the work. New chambers and passages are occasionally opened to visitors, and two beautiful little chambers leading off from a new avenue have been named for Mr. H. C. Hovey and Mr. F. W. Putnam, both of whom have a reputation in connection with researches in the cave. Mr. Putnam's special work in relation to the geology of this and other caves was in 1873, when he was connected with the geological survey of Kentucky under Prof. Shaler. He then spent ten days in a thorough exploration of the waters of the cave. Mr. M. E. Wadsworth has a note on the "Trachyte of Marblehead Neck," which goes to refute a theory of the formation of Marblehead Harbor developed by Mr. W. O. Crosby. The astronomical note says that six comets have been observed the present year, and remarks that an interesting analogy between the spectra of comets and stars is very much strengthened by the spectrum of comet *b*, the great one which appeared towards the end of June. We observe with interest that a lady graduate of Smith College, who had applied for admission to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, received the reply that "the Corporation are not prepared to admit women as candidates for a degree." This seems to imply that the Corporation have the authority and power when they are so minded.

— The topic of most universal interest in the latest report of the Massachusetts Board of Health is intermittent fever. Concerning the progress and extent of this comparatively new disease in Massachusetts a great mass of information is given in a paper by Dr. J. F. Alleyne Adams, of Pittsfield. The salient facts are, that outbreaks of the fever have occurred at intervals of a generation in the towns lying along the Housatonic and Connecticut rivers; viz., between 1793 and 1799, in 1836, and in 1870; that the latest formed part of a visitation which Connecticut received by way of New York in 1850, so that the fever was twenty years in crossing this narrow State; that in the past ten years it has reached North Adams and Greenfield, Mass., but has not crossed the border into Vermont or New Hampshire; that it is of very infrequent occurrence in the eastern part of Massachusetts; that it is usually associated with water courses or bodies of water subject to fluctuations of level; and that its intensity corresponds measurably to low stages of water caused by drought. It is also clear that however favorable may be the local conditions, there is a something imported (from the south) which has made them fever-producing now and not prior to 1870. That something has apparently come to stay, however much it may be guarded against and its effects limited by drainage and prudence in the use of drinking water. The growth of population has, to our mind, been the least factor in the problem; the growth of manufactures, by multiplying dams and overflows (as in the recent Lenox outbreak), has created or intensified the necessary conditions; but in all probability cosmic influences, assimilating these northern latitudes to the southern haunts of malarial disease, are chiefly responsible for the disagreeable invasion of Connecticut and Massachusetts. Whether the drying up of the earth is going on apace, or whether we are merely in the middle of a droughty cycle, as some of our local meteorologists think, we may safely throw the blame on the spotty luminary whose activity is now the object of so much scientific scrutiny.

—The memory of a painstaking and intelligent lexicographer, the late William A. Wheeler, is pleasantly revived in a little volume called 'Who Wrote It?' just published by Lee & Shepard. None of the readers' handbooks that have appeared of late years has quite the scope of this, which is pretty strictly confined to the implication of its title. It reverses the order of author-dictionaries, scattering the works of Dickens, Scott, Reade, and Cooper—to take examples in one field of literature—under their respective alphabets, with the author's name subjoined in every case, and the term of his life in brackets. The analysis is carried still further when we find the "Nonne Prest his Tale," the "Knightes Tale," etc., with references to the "Canterbury Tales"; and yet further, when "Houyhnhnms" is made a catch-word for "Gulliver." In like manner, "Ring out, wild bells" leads up to "In Memoriam," and first lines of famous poems nameless like sonnets are entered in their proper places. A chance catalogue of titles will best display the compiler's method and comprehensiveness: — Anabasis, Andromaque, Anti-Jacobin, Country Parson (Recreations of a), "Cromwell, our chief of men," Demi-Monde (Dumas's), Émile, Fors Clavigera, Frogs (of Aristophanes), Gerusalemme Liberata, Gesta Romanorum, Imitation of Christ, Land of Cockayne, Lillibullero, Mare Liberum (Grotius's), Margaret (Judd's), Martinus Scriblerus, Namouna (De Musset's), Nasby Papers, Nibelungen Lied, Niccolò di Lapi, Œdipus Coloneus, Ozymandias, Panchatantra, Pandects, Sam Slick, Subjection of Women, Vicar of Bray, "Woodman, spare that tree," Xenien, Yankee Doodle. Mother Goose is not overlooked, but the present editor, Mr. Chas. G. Wheeler, would have been justified in omitting the exploded Boston theory of Elizabeth Vergoose, of which his brother was the earliest partisan. So, if we were to have 'Middlemarch' and 'Daniel Deronda' added to Mr. Wheeler's posthumous MS., we might have expected some of Turgeneff's masterpieces of even or of earlier date to have been admitted. But completeness is not claimed for this little "conversation lexicon." The work is made interesting by foot-notes like those of Allibone, quoting the judgments of critics, and no pains have been spared to open up the contents by the aid of cross references. Examination reveals a surprisingly large number of topics, considering the compactness of the volume.

—"Goody Two-shoes," says Mr. Wheeler, is ascribed to Oliver Goldsmith. Readers of the London *Athenæum* will have noticed lately the controversy on this subject growing out of a communication to that journal from Mr. Charles Welsh, who takes the same view of the authorship, and enforces it with the opinions of others as well as with some probable arguments of his own. Mr. Giles Jones, grandfather of the late Mr. Winter Jones, of the British Museum, is a rival claimant through his posterity, on grounds neither very precise nor very weighty. However, it has pleased Messrs. Griffith & Farran, successors at the old stand in St. Paul's Churchyard of J. Newbery, the publisher of "Goody Two-shoes" and of numerous other classical children's books, some positively identified with Goldsmith, to publish a fac-simile of the third edition (of 1766), which is substantially that of 1765. Mr. Welsh has prefixed to the reprint the gist of his *Athenæum* article and of the controversy, and has done so in a spirit at once frank and free from dogmatism. The result is a typographical gem, well fitted to be a gift to children, both for its contents, and as a sample of the printer's and engraver's art in pre-Bewickian days, while their elders will prize it as a near equivalent to the rare original.

—The fiftieth volume of the 'Journal of the Royal Geographical Society,' recently issued, completes the series. Hereafter the 'Proceed-

ings,' published monthly, will take its place as the Society's principal publication, though supplementary volumes containing "elaborate papers of more than ordinary length and great value" will occasionally be issued. The first and by far the most important article is on "The Fifty Years' Work of the Royal Geographical Society," by the secretary, C. R. Markham. Beginning with a reference to the work of the early English geographers, Eden, Hakluyt, Purchas, and Hexham, he sketches the geographical work of the Royal Society and the African Association founded by Sir Joseph Banks in 1788. "The first person who was selected for employment by the Association was Mr. Ledyard, an American by birth." There follows an interesting account of the Raleigh Club, out of whose meetings grew the present Society. Its chief object was and still is, under the name of the Geographical Club, a dinner to which members were invited "to present any scarce foreign game, fish, fruits, wines, etc., as a means of adding greatly to the interest of the dinners, not merely from the objects of luxury thus afforded, but also for the observations they will be the means of giving rise to." On the table at the first dinner were a "haunch of reindeer venison from Spitzbergen, a jar of Swedish brandy, rye cake baked near the North Cape, a Norway cheese, and preserved cloud-berries from Lapland." Several chapters are devoted to brief sketches of the presidents and secretaries, and more detailed accounts of the travels of those persons who have received the Society's medals or been assisted by grants of money. Among the recipients of the gold medal, the gift of the English Crown "for the encouragement and promotion of geographical science and discovery," are the names of seven Americans—namely, the Rev. Dr. E. Robinson, of New York, for his 'Biblical Researches in Palestine'; Com. Wilkes, Gen. Fremont, Dr. Kane, Prof. Bache, Dr. Hayes, and H. M. Stanley. Two women, Lady Franklin and Mary Somerville, have also received the gold medal. The article concludes with a most interesting, though very brief, "Comparative View of Geographical Knowledge in 1830 and 1880, with a Notice of the Work that still Remains to Be Done." The original object of the Society—the collection and publication of interesting geographical facts and discoveries, the formation of a library, and the assisting of explorers—remains unchanged, though the sphere of its labors has been somewhat broadened. In 1869 it established an annual examination, open to the pupils of the public schools, on certain geographical subjects, each to be treated either in its physical or political relations; and two medals are given to the best competitors in both departments. More recently medals have been awarded to the scholars who have received the highest marks in geography in the Oxford and Cambridge local examinations. The subjects for the years 1880-82 were Western Africa, Polynesia, and Australia. Two years ago a school of instruction in "nearly all the problems in practical astronomy and surveying" was opened for intending travellers. This appears to have been highly successful, the students having included "civil engineers, naval and military officers, surgeons, magistrates, botanists, missionaries, and one bishop." An appendix to Mr. Markham's article gives various lists of officers, explorers, papers, and maps published in the 'Journal' and 'Proceedings,' etc. The largest single grant of money made by the Society was £1,778, in 1874, for the "Livingstone search and relief fund," though £2,500 in all was contributed to the expedition of Lieut. Cameron for the same end.

—The September number of the *Antiquary* (J. W. Bouton) contains two short articles upon points of great interest connected with the primitive tenure of land in village communities. Mr. Gomme, author of 'Primitive Folkmoots,' gives an account of some peculiar usages in different parts of Scotland, illustrating the customs of the burgh of Lauder, described by Sir Henry Maine in his 'Village Communities' (p. 95). None of them are so complete as those of Lauder, but, taken separately, they afford examples of the arable mark cultivated under rules prescribed by the town council (in the "birley" court, in which each proprietor of a "freedom" had a vote); of the assignment of parcels in this area by lot; and of the right to land for tillage being connected with the ownership of plots of land in the town. The other article is by Mr. Fenton, whose 'Early Hebrew Life' was reviewed not long ago in the *Nation* (Sept. 8). His article is upon the "right of pre-emption," by which the members of these communities had the first right to purchase land that was offered for sale, and thus to prevent the land from passing into the hands of strangers. Mr. Fenton traces this right, in an attenuated form, in the Mohammedan law (where it is confined to actual partners), in the Talmudic law (where it is extended to the owners of adjoining land), in Orissa, and even in ancient Assyria. In the last two cases the primitive rights are recognized to a certain extent as existing, but are prevented from asserting themselves by special prohibitions and penalties. The survivals of the village-community system in New England are traced in two interesting papers by Dr. H. B. Adams, of the Johns Hopkins University, read by him this last summer at public meetings in Salem and Stockbridge, and printed in the local newspapers. In these papers he describes, with some detail, some remarkable instances of community in land still surviving in Sandwich and Salem, and one or two other places, quite similar to that described in the *Nation* of Jan. 10, 1878, as existing in the island of Nantucket. Dr. Adams has for several years been engaged in investigating this subject, and has found material for a volume which he hopes soon to publish.

—The production of the "Verwunschene Schloss" ("The Haunted Castle") at the Thalia Theatre last Thursday was a great success. Carl Millöcker, the composer, may be said to be absolutely unknown in New York, and the score is in some respects a musical novelty, for it aims at introducing, in a somewhat humorous contrast, the peasant melodies of the Tyrolese Alps with the waltz and operatic music of what may be called the aristocratic type. This contrast is carried out in the drama, in which we follow the adventures of two peasants, who find their way to a castle, supposed to be haunted, but really tenanted by ladies and gentlemen of a very old theatrical school, who, while masquerading as spirits for the benefit of the inhabitants of the plain below, are really devoting their energies to getting as much as possible out of life in the way of dancing, drinking and love-making. The chief lady among these revellers is *Coralie* (Frl. Seebold). She sings with great spirit, and her voice, which has a remarkable range, was in excellent condition. She was encored again and again; her acting was very nearly as good as the singing, and as the part is only second in importance to that of *Regerl*, taken by Marie Geistinger, the hit made by the opera may be put down in great measure to her credit. As *Regerl*, Geistinger displayed once more her extraordinary versatility, and showed at the same time how much better adapted to her are German types than those of the French stage, in which she seems to us never more than half at home. *Regerl* is a buxom—very buxom—country wench, ignorant, superstitious, coarse, and good-humored, in love with *Andredl*, who is the corresponding male type. The parts of these characters and of *Regerl*, as well as *Sepp* (very weakly and ill sung by Herr Walter) are in patois, and, of course, replete with humor. Herr Klein as *Andredl* showed himself to be a thoroughly competent actor; and while his singing is not remarkable, the fun which he managed to infuse into everything he did would have carried him through with a much worse voice. His sleeping song, during which the infatuated *Regerl* watches him, and explains to the audience the contortions of his countenance and the writhing of his limbs as being due to the fact that he is "dreaming about the angels in heaven," was a masterpiece. The song, however, which was perhaps most perfect in its way was *Regerl's* in the fourth act, each verse ending with the refrain, now naïvely, now slyly, now broadly comical:

'S is a bisserl Liab und a bisserl Treu
Und a ganz kloan's bisserl—Falscheit dabei.

The theatre was crowded and the audience greatly amused and pleased from first to last. A visit to the Thalia now is a visit to Germany itself. No attempt, apparently, is made to attract Americans. No libretto or programme in two languages makes its appearance, and very few but Germans are to be seen in the house. The theatre is one of the best for seeing and hearing in this city, and to enjoy such an operetta as the "Verwunschene Schloss," very little knowledge of German is required. By those who care for musical ingenuity and inventiveness the contrasts introduced by the composer will be found entertaining and novel.

—A large audience assembled at the Academy of Music on Friday night to hear Rossini's "Barber of Seville," an opera which at the present day requires the united efforts of half a dozen good artists to make us understand how it ever could have attained its former popularity. There is an abundance of lively rhythm in it, but this rhythm is usually of a purely mechanical description and very superficial, owing to the absence of varied harmonies and the scarcity of good melodies. Indeed, the opera would long since have disappeared from the stage were it not for the fact that the plot is rather interesting, and affords opportunities for some good comic acting. These opportunities were not neglected, and the result was that Friday's performance was perhaps the most satisfactory of the present season. Signor Del Puente is perhaps as good a *Figaro* as walks the stage, and he was ably seconded in his efforts to bring out the funny points by Signor Corsini (*Dr. Bartolo*) and Signor Novara (*Don Basilio*). Signor Ravelli's *Conte Almaviva* was also acceptable in every respect, and if we add that the orchestra and chorus were equal to their work, we shall have omitted only one of the features that contributed to the success of the performance. This feature was the début in this country of Mlle. Vachot, a young lady of twenty-one years, who has already sung with success in Brussels, Paris, and other French cities. She is of medium size, light, graceful, and rather pretty, her features being characterized by that intellectual charm and brightness which among French ladies usually take the place of the highest physical beauty, and which make it so comparatively easy for them to become good actresses. Thus equipped for her task, Mlle. Vachot could not fail to be received with applause on first coming on the stage, although there could hardly have been half a dozen people present who had heard her before. But everybody felt instinctively as she came forward that she would at least prove a vivacious actress, and this counts for more in the "Barber of Seville" than in most Italian operas. On Mlle. Vachot's

singing we cannot bestow the same unqualified praise as on her acting. Her voice is naturally pure and sweet, although not powerful; but its purity and sweetness are too often marred by the *vibrato*, which she owes to the method of her teachers, and which she will have to overcome before she can claim the name of a great vocalist. Nor is her intonation always as correct as it should be—a peculiarity which is revealed less in the florid passages, which she sings with agility and no great apparent effort, than in cantabile passages. We admit that these faults are not very serious in her case, and can be easily overcome by one so young and intelligent as Mlle. Vachot; but as long as they exist they must be pointed out, not only because nothing is so injurious to a young artist as injudicious and exaggerated praise, but because a few years later it will be too late to overcome faults which at present can be easily remedied. Mlle. Vachot, we must add, received some very tasteful floral tributes and much applause throughout the evening; and everybody will now be anxious to hear and make her acquaintance in some other rôles.

—The first half of the second volume of Herr Robert Prölfs's 'Geschichte des neueren Dramas' (Leipzig: Bernard Schlicke; New York: F. W. Christern), filling five hundred pages, is devoted to the history of the French drama from its origin to the present time. Herr Prölfs first describes the awakening of the national spirit and the beginnings of the drama in France, and then takes up Corneille, Racine, and the other tragedians, and Molière and his rivals and followers; next he gives an account of the rise of French opera, and finally, in three chapters, he considers comedy and tragedy up to the beginning of this century. In the chapter on "Tragedy in the Nineteenth Century," he discusses the works of Hugo and the elder Dumas, and in another chapter, rather hastily, the comic dramatists of the present time—or rather all the dramatists who are not tragic; and he concludes with a glance at the chief actors and actresses of the past hundred years. The book is useful, in a way, and is not ill done, but it is very unequal. The chapters on Corneille and Molière are by far the best. The account of their successive plays is intelligent, and shows a use of much of the material recently brought to light. The author's weak point is his criticism of the contemporary drama. Herr Prölfs writes a little as though he had only read about the plays of which he treats, without having ever seen any of them acted, or having even read the most of them. He looks at plays, in short, from a literary point of view, and not from a dramatic. It is this want of familiarity with the actual characteristics of contemporary French dramatists which allows him (p. 473) to attribute M. Labiche's amusing farce, "Le Chapeau de paille d'Italie" to M. Sardou, and to say (p. 468) that it was a play of Mme. de Girardin's, instead of M. de Girardin's, which M. Alexandre Dumas, *fils*, worked over into the "Supplice d'une Femme." This same lack of acquaintance with the details of modern dramatic lore lets Herr Prölfs call Casimir Delavigne's "Comédiens" the "Comédiennes," and M. Demery's "Bohémiens de Paris" the "Bohémiennes de Paris," and the elder Dumas's "Madame de Chamblay" "Mlle. de Chamblay." These, of course, are trifles, but they tend to show how imperfect is Herr Prölfs's familiarity with recent French drama.

—The rapidity with which our foreign elements are assimilated and Americanized, while contributing to our political strength, is perhaps to be regretted from a purely literary point of view. In spite of some notable exceptions, our German brethren, considering their number and importance, have done little to enrich the literary treasure of their fatherland, or, indeed, to assert their nationality in the domains of science. Francis Lieber, among others, wrote exclusively in English, after having made America his home. Of late, however, there have been indications of an increased intellectual activity on the part of our German population as such. Thus the project of a great German university in the West, so eloquently fathered by Bodenstedt, has found in this country interested advocates. German periodicals are everywhere multiplying, and within the past few weeks we have received four specimens of the literary work of German-Americans. Of these, the *Wissenschaftliche Wochenblätter*, published by Chr. Schmidt, New York, is the most important. It is an illustrated weekly, of respectable appearance, devoted to science in its widest range, as is evident from the contents of the first two numbers. Thus far speculative and economic topics seem to predominate, but there is a liberal supply of miscellaneous matter on technical and hygienic subjects, culled mainly from European periodicals. In fact, in spite of the large number of domestic writers whose co-operation is expected—we may mention among them Prof. Wm. Grauert, Gustav Körner, Dr. A. Douai, Judge Stallo, etc.—it is evident that the new weekly will have to rely for its value chiefly on European sources. The most prominent scientists of Germany are thus to be "represented," among whom the prospectus mentions—we presume inadvertently — the botanist Schleiden (lately deceased), and the essayist Bogumil Goltz, who has been dead these ten years, and whose right to appear in a scientific publication might at any time have been questioned. The series of illustrated biographies of scientists, begun in the second number with Lieut. Wheeler, does not open auspiciously either as regards text or illustrations.

—The contributor of the article, "Ueber die volkswirthschaftlichen Fragen in den Vereinigten Staaten" (on economic questions in the United States), Mr. J. Schoenhof, is also the author of the pamphlet before us entitled "Deutsche Urtheile über Amerika" (German opinions concerning America), published as No. 156 of the well-known Holtzendorff series of "Deutsche Zeit- und Streit-Fragen." It is a lively protest against the ignorance of American institutions still prevailing in Germany, and more particularly against the atrocious misstatements of Friedrich von Hellwald, whose 'Culturgeschichte,' in so far as it treats of the United States, has never met with the condemnation it deserves. The subject of the misconceptions of German journals in regard to this country was discussed in our columns some time ago; we cannot say that the increased attention recently bestowed on American affairs has revealed any decided improvement. Thus, even so well-informed and able a journal as the Vienna *Neue Freie Presse* persists in speaking of the German parentage of President Garfield, and holds the Stalwarts, as led by Conkling and "Merrytt," responsible for the promulgation of the doctrine, "To the victor belong the spoils."

—'Klänge aus vergangenen Zeiten' (echoes of the past), by Philipp Wagner (New York: L. W. Schmidt), is a slender volume of verses, some of which, such as "Quantität und Qualität" and "Stille Lieder," are of more than average smoothness, and breathe the patriotic fervor which probably led to the author's "banishment," of which he speaks in the preface. He looks back upon seventy years of a life of hardship and disappointments. The songs wrung from the heart of the exile by the unstilled longing for his fatherland are seldom heard here—a fact suggestive of the prosperity which generally awaits the German transplanted to these shores. The decided poetic ability possessed by half a dozen German-Americans whom we might mention spends itself in occasional trifles and humorous productions, such as Asmus's clever 'Skizzebüchle.' Even the grandeur and diversity of American scenery, so powerfully felt by a Lenau, and so quickly seized by Bodenstedt, fails to rouse our German friends to more serious efforts.

—'Studien und Plaudereien im Vaterland' (studies and talks in the fatherland), second series, by Sigmon M. Stern and Menco Stern (New York: Henry Holt & Co.), though intended merely as a German reader and help to teachers, invites criticism as a literary performance from the fact that the authors have composed all the matter contained in the volume excepting a few appended poems. Their plan of teaching by conversation is the most comprehensive we have ever heard of: "All there is in this world worth being thought of or spoken about, all that is great, good, and beautiful, we draw into the circle of our studies"; and we must say they are as good as their word, for in the 'Studies and Talks' Alexander the Great and Lessing, a prose version of "Reinecke Fuchs" and an apotheosis of Bismarck, old anecdotes and the Bible, and heaven and earth in general, follow each other in uninterrupted and startling succession.

A NOVEL OF THE REBELLION.

The Bloody Chasm: a Novel. By J. W. De Forest. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881.

THE difficulties which beset the producer of American fiction are made even more distinct by the successes than by the many failures with which his path is strewn. To any one not familiar with them, the scene, time, and characters selected by Mr. De Forest would seem singularly well adapted for the novelist's purpose. The scene is laid partly amid the ruins of Charleston at the close of the war, and partly in the American colony at Paris; the heroine and hero are Miss Beaufort, the last survivor of an old South Carolinian family cut to pieces in the war, and a Northern officer who marries her. The period, though it only carries us back fifteen years in time, is already removed from us in thought and feeling by a generation; the vast social changes that have taken place since the surrender of Lee have made the old South, even to a greater degree than the old North, already belong to the past, so that it would seem as if slavery, the war, the freeing of the blacks, and the final and overwhelming victory of the North would already be immersed in the soft legendary light so well adapted to fiction and romance. Yet no one can read Mr. De Forest's book without perceiving that for some reason there is wanting that illusion both in the characters and in the story which is as necessary in a novel as in a play for complete success.

The story opens with the appearance in Charleston of Mr. Silas Mather, a rich Bostonian and old-fashioned Puritan, with a strong detestation of the South, as being responsible for slavery and the war, and also of the Catholic Church. In early life he married a Southern woman, and has come to the South to look up his wife's relations. He is a stern old gentleman, though kind at heart, and, as a Northern type of the time, perhaps not an impossible creation. It was a good idea, too, to introduce him in Charleston at the close of the war, moralizing among the ruins over the doom of slavery and treason and unprovoked rebellion. The following is the account given of Mr. Mather's first interview with a former acquaintance, General Hilton, of the Rebel army:

"He ended his soliloquy because he became conscious that some one had overtaken and was slowly passing him. Glancing sidelong, he noted that the person was evidently a Southerner—a superbly tall and stalwart man, of middle age, with a grave and almost grim aquiline countenance, and an air of dignity which contrasted strangely with his seedy suit of gray homespun. Mr. Mather looked carelessly at the worn face; then he suddenly leaned forward to peer at it eagerly; then he made an effort to get abreast of the stranger. Touching him gently on the arm, he said, in a clear, hard, emphatic voice: 'As I was saying, sir, it can't be done.'

"Both men halted and gazed at each other in silence. The Southerner had an air of non-recognition and of amazement. After a moment he remarked in a deep, mellow bass, and with a singularly collected and courteous demeanor, considering the oddness of the situation: 'I beg your pardon, sir. You have the advantage of me. I really beg your pardon, sir.'

"'Four years ago,' said Mather slowly, 'in my office in Boston I told you it could *not* be done.'

"'Boston? Your office?' queried the other. 'Oh! God bless my soul! Is it—is it Mr. Mather? God bless my soul! I remember you now.'

"'And our conversation?' insisted the Northerner.

"'God bless me! I *had* forgotten it. I recollect it now,' admitted the Carolinian with a faint smile. 'What a memory you have! Yes, I recall it. I said that the South *would* go out, and you said—"

"'That it could *not* be done.'

"'I see it can't,' bowed the Southerner. He laughed, but not blithely, and then shook his head very sadly. 'We did our best,' he added.

"'Or worst.'

"'Oh! sir, you are victors.' This was uttered with a sigh. 'You have the right to exult. I would simply ask, my dear sir, is it magnanimous?'"

Mr. Mather finds in Charleston, as the only survivor of his wife's family, his niece, Miss Virginia Beaufort, who, reduced to the last stages of poverty, is living in a sort of hovel with the faithful Aunt Chloe and Uncle Phil, and gaining a precarious livelihood by washing and ironing. Mr. Mather also has a Northern nephew, who has served in the Union army through the war, and is infatuated with a poor Catholic girl. The uncle is determined to break off the match, and in order to do so conceives the idea of making a marriage between him and Miss Beaufort. Miss Beaufort, however, is a type of the unreconstructed Southern woman; having lost in the Rebellion friends, family, and home and country, she is embittered against everything Northern with a bitterness which no man could ever dream of feeling against anything. Northern money (of which Mr. Mather has plenty); Northern hospitality; Northern friendship; Northern affection; and, most of all, Northern love, are all odious to her, and there is naturally some difficulty in bringing about a marriage. Finally, when she does consent to it, after Mr. Mather's death, it is only on condition of an immediate separation. She is to go through the ceremony, and then see her husband no more. Young Underhill, meantime, gets over his interest in Miss Norah MacMorran, and falls in love with his wife, and determines that in the end she shall be his wife in fact as well as in name. For this purpose the scene changes to Paris, where Underhill appears slightly disguised as Col. Peyton, a Virginian and ex-rebel. His wife had never seen him but once, when the marriage ceremony was performed, and then only in a half-lighted church, so that she is not at all familiar with his face. The effect of her life in Paris is to soften the bitterness of her heart, and to make her take less interest in the past and its tragic memories, and more in the present, and all the pleasant things it gives her. She is known in Paris by her maiden name, and she soon falls in love with Col. Peyton. The end can easily be guessed. She sees a horrible abyss opening before her, and resolves to save herself. The protection of her husband and her husband's name has become a necessity, and as she grows interested in Col. Peyton the impossibility of keeping up her false mode of life becomes more and more apparent. Finally, the crisis comes when he tells her that he loves her, and she, in an agony, informs him that she is married. Of course he now reveals himself in his true character, and the curtain falls upon a reunited and happy couple.

It will be seen that the tale does not make any severe drafts upon the reader's credulity. Neither the situations nor the *dénouement* are out of nature. The disguise of the hero as Col. Peyton is perhaps a little theatrical—in fact, the whole story could be made into a play without much difficulty—but the circumstances of the marriage are so peculiar as to bring this feature of it quite within the bounds of possibility. Yet, when all this is admitted, 'The Bloody Chasm' can hardly be accepted as the typical American novel for which we have been so long looking. We fear, as we suggested at the outset, that the difficulties are inherent in the subject. Though the period which separates the present time from that of the close of the war seems enormous, it has not as a matter of fact made the events of that time romantic to us. The only people who ever succeeded in extracting much romance from the struggle were the English Conservatives, who, knowing little or nothing about any part of the country, conceived the idea that the South was the home of chivalry and feudalism; that negro slavery was a patriarchal institution which greatly conduced to the happiness of both races; that the Southerners were all gentlemen and ladies, who were being invaded by a barbarous horde of bricklayers and hod-carriers. Of course it was only natural that the South should like to keep up this feeling as long as possible, and it was possible just as long as its peculiar institutions shut it off from the rest of the world, and kept it unexplored and unknown except by a few travellers who saw nothing of it beyond the lavish hospitality which the great slave-owners dispensed. So far as the North, and all the rest of the world outside of what may remain of foreign Southern "sympathizers" are concerned, these illusions have been supplanted by a totally different feeling. It is impossible now for us to think of the old South except as a provincial community, with barbarous institutions, without literature and without art, and, worse than all, filled with a provincial self-satisfaction the recollection of which is only laughable. No doubt this feeling has been exaggerated. We are all one people, and it is unlikely that any of the vices which the war revealed in the South had not their counterparts in the North. But, however that may be, the old romance about the South which found expression in such literary products as the 'Octoroon,' and which to a certain extent pervades even such an anti-Southern book as 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' is completely dissipated, and we doubt if it is in the power of any novelist to revive it. Miss Virginia Beaufort is a romantic character; yet even Miss Beaufort represents the type of "unreconstructed rebel" in which we are most inclined to detect a ludicrous combination of tragic affectation with repellant insolence. In fact, all Southern types had assumed, towards the close of the war—partly through the mere effect of disillusion, and from the very fact that we had once believed in their reality—a comic aspect. The "first families," the "high-toned Southern gentleman," the Southern "chivalry," had become every-day jests and by-words. The country has never got over this, and we fear, to the lasting loss of romantic literature, never will.

Mr. De Forest will perhaps say in reply to all this that he does not call 'The Bloody Chasm' a romance, but a novel. But it makes no difference what it is called. The materials, or most of them, are used in a romantic manner; the sentiments and incidents are not those of every-day life, and the general effect produced is that of romantic motive. It sometimes seems as if there were no solid ground for the American writer of fiction in the present day and generation, except the consciously humorous. Who has written an American novel as to which there is any common agreement that it is an actual representation of American life, except Howells, whose pictures of it are always half humorous, even when most serious? 'Democracy,' which, to our mind, is by far the best of all recent attempts, produces an effect of unreality. Hawthorne, by dint of cutting himself loose from the American life of his own day and taking his characters from the past, or from the no-man's-land of his mind, succeeded in writing American romances, and the love of romance is so deep-seated in the human mind that it would perhaps still be possible for an American to write romance in the same way; but in writing fiction of any other kind he really comes in conflict with a formidable rival whose power is continually on the increase. The picture which each one of us gets of the life of to-day is furnished by the newspaper. It is realistic, bald, and at the same time consciously comic. The American novelist, if he alters the lines or colors of this picture much, excites revolt in our minds; if he attempts to stick closely to it, he finds it very difficult to keep out of a quagmire of vulgarity and commonplace in which fiction must always be swamped. Humor is his only resource; but to be humorous and a novelist is not given to every one. We ought to say, in conclusion, that Mr. De Forest shows in Aunt Chloe that he has substantial resources in the way of humor on which he would do wisely, in our opinion, to draw more liberally.

GARDINER'S ENGLISH HISTORIES.

English History for Students: Being the Introduction to the Study of English History. By Samuel R. Gardiner. With a Critical and Biographical Account of Authorities, by J. Bass Mullinger. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1881. 8vo, pp. 424.

English History for Young Folks. B.C. 55–A.D. 1880. By S. R. Gardiner. Edition revised for American Students. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1881. Small 8vo, pp. 457.

These two books may very well be considered together, as they proceed from the same pen, and appear to belong to one plan. The history "for young folks" must not be understood to be a child's book. It is written in a sober, rather dry style, with very little grace of narrative, but with a masterly power of condensation, and a clear understanding of just what it is, in the history of England, that young people most need to know. Being the work of a man who is confessedly the highest living authority on one period—and that perhaps the most important—of English history, and second to none in his familiarity with the whole field, it is a work of the greatest value. Children will not be attracted by it, but young students will find in it just what they need, and even mature scholars will be glad to consult it, in order to know the opinions and conclusions of a master.

We have said that the two books appear to form part of one plan. At any rate they supplement one another admirably. The other volume, the 'Introduction,' is designed "to provide some help for students who, having gone through the ordinary school course, wish to devote themselves to the special study of some part of the

history of England." For such a person we cannot help thinking that the smaller book will serve as a very convenient aid, containing an excellent compendium of facts, which the student may consult before taking up the larger work. The assistance for special students contained in the 'History for Students' is naturally of two kinds—a list of authorities, and a guide to their use; Mr. Gardiner has prepared the former, Mr. Mullinger the latter. Of Mr. Mullinger's part of the work, which Mr. Gardiner pronounces "the kernel of the volume," we need say very little. It commends itself. Every student, especially of modern history, knows how bewildering is the mass of authorities to be consulted, and how difficult it is to find a safe guide to what is best and most trustworthy. Within his brief limits Mr. Mullinger has done this as well as could be desired. Mr. Gardiner's work, in the "Introduction" proper (of one hundred and ninety-nine pages), is less easy to characterize. It may perhaps be best described, in his own words, as "an attempt to trace the life of the English nation by one who has at all events given much of his time and thought in an attempt to realize to himself what that life has been." It is discursive in its nature, an analysis, in successive chronological divisions, of the forces and influences at work in forming the English nation and bringing it to its present condition. Of course a discussion of this sort —itself the fruit of long study—can only be understood and appreciated after long study. The student who approaches this work from the school-study of history will get hints and suggestions for his special period; but he will only realize its value when he comes back to it at the close of his special investigation, and reads it again in the light of his now more complete and accurate knowledge. Indeed, designed though it be as a guide to study, in order to assist in tracing the chain of cause and effect, and comprehending the relations of some one age to what came before and what came after, its chief value, after all, will be for those who have already accomplished these special studies, or read largely upon the several periods of English history.

It consists of eleven chapters—the first upon "The Ancient World," the others dividing the history of England into ten chronological periods. As might be expected from the special reputation of the writer, the treatise increases in interest until its culmination in the history of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The political history of England in modern times is sketched with power and with an unequalled fulness of knowledge. Nothing could be fairer or better than the analysis of the English Reformation, with its results as traced down to the great contest of the seventeenth century. We are surprised, however, to find hardly anything upon the social history, which was never a factor of more importance than just at this period. The abolition of serfdom is fairly dwelt upon in the earlier chapters, where the view given is essentially the same as that of Mr. Rogers and Mr. Seebohm; but the effects of this in building up the great landed aristocracy of England, the divorce of the peasantry from the land, the wonderful industrial development of the sixteenth century, and the influence of all these events upon the struggle against the Stuarts—these topics are not entirely neglected, but they do not receive an amount of attention proportioned to their influence in bringing into existence the England of the nineteenth century. The same remark applies to more recent times, and the book must be pronounced imperfect from this point of view.

It will be urged—and we agree to it heartily—that political history should come first; that this is the indispensable foundation of all historical study. In truth, the chapters on "manners and customs" in some modern histories are dreary and unedifying reading; and the attempt to trace the life of a *people* without distinct and constant reference to the life of the *nation* results only in vagueness and confusion. An exact chronology is the skeleton of history, and territorial and dynastic relations necessarily come first after the chronological outline. But Mr. Gardiner's treatise, even for young students, belongs a step higher; and such social facts as we have instanced have too powerful and direct an influence upon political history to be passed over in silence.

Mr. Gardiner's point of view is that of a hearty sympathy with the religious and constitutional reforms of the nation, which is never allowed to degenerate into partisanship. He appears as impartial and as sound in his judgments as Mr. Hallam, while his conclusions, drawn from researches in a narrower field, and therefore in all likelihood more profound, are on the whole more favorable, we should think, to the policy actually followed by the English nation in this great crisis of its history. It is, we confess, very gratifying to find what we have been accustomed to look upon as the right cause receive such hearty support from him; many recent writers, in their efforts at impartiality, have almost seemed to lean over to the side of prerogative and reaction.

We cannot give a better notion of the style of this book and its leading tone of thought than by a few extracts. They will illustrate as well the strength of the author in generalization as his sagacity in commenting upon individual characters and events.

"Richard II. had this special failing, that he stood on neither side of the great controversy of the age. He had not the large-heartedness and the heroism to place himself at the head of the peasants, excepting in one brief moment of excitement, and thus to obtain at least some consideration for their just demands. On the other hand, he had no real sympathy with the ruling classes. Fitful and uncertain in action, he strove, with long intervals of inertness, to maintain or acquire authority over them without regard for the conditions on which alone authority can be wielded" (p. 96).

In speaking of Henry VII.:

"The strength which a government acquires by being armed against anarchy is short-lived. Its very success brings such strength to an end" (p. 103).

Of the time of the first Stuarts:

"The decadence of the courtly literature of the time was the index to the decadence of moral and intellectual strength. The remaining dramatists of the Elizabethan school died, leaving no successors but the sweet and honey-tongued singers of a world of grace and beauty, where earnestness of heart counted for nothing —the Herricks, the Carews, the Cucklings, who could tell of the loveliness of soft glances and warm kisses, but who knew nothing of the fidelity of Imogen or the bright womanliness of Rosalind. Literature, in the person of Milton, passed to the side of the Opposition" (p. 137).

"It is not likely that a government which disregards the ideas of its subjects will pay much regard to their interests" (p. 140).

"The struggle of the Civil War was in the main a struggle between the enfeebled spirit of the Renaissance and the spirit of Protestantism raised to its highest pitch" (p. 147).

"It was on the side of Chatham's ideas rather than on the side of Burke's that the hopes of the future lay, if it were only for this reason: that Burke's principles excluded the popular leadership of Chatham, whilst Chatham's principles would find ample room for the intellectual guidance of Burke" (p. 185).

PALESTINE: EAST AND WEST.

East of the Jordan: a Record of Travel and Observation in the Countries of Moab, Gilead, and Bashan during the Years 1875–77. By Selah Merrill, Archæologist of the American Palestine Exploration Society. With illustrations and a map. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1881.

The Ride Through Palestine. By the Rev. John W. Dulles, D.D. Philadelphia: Presbyterian Board of Publication.

FROM Beirut, during 1875–77, Mr. Merrill, as the archæologist of the American Palestine Exploration Society, made four different expeditions into the interior. Of these, however, the journals of but two are given at length in the present volume, and these are rather an account of the journeys than a record of results achieved. Mr. Merrill's "'Topographical Notes on Eastern Palestine,' in which he gives, in a concise and scholarly manner, the results of the explorations already made, withheld from publication for the present for reasons which need not be detailed, will appear in due time," writes Dr. Hitchcock in his Introduction. In the present volume there is, therefore, at times a somewhat tantalizing vagueness. Sentences like the following are not uncommon: "It is very difficult of access from any direction, but possesses some large stones, some columns, one arch, and a great supply of cisterns." Again, in one of his reports the author writes: "We have paid special attention to the archæology, botany, geology, and natural history of the region visited. Every fountain, stream, and ruin, and almost every wady, in the valley and hills immediately east of the Jordan, from the north end of the Sea of Galilee to the Dead Sea, has been visited, and a large amount of material collected" (pp. 311, 312). Many unimportant details might have been omitted, and more of this "material" introduced with advantage into the book, were the question merely one of space.

"Among the Cities of Bashan" is the title of a brief narrative of a journey into the Hauran, in the course of which the author explored the more important of its ruined cities, including Um El Jemal, heretofore practically unknown to European or American travellers. An interesting chapter is added on Hauran Architecture, compiled from the preface of De Vogüé's 'Syrie Centrale,' whose conclusions Mr. Merrill has adopted with some slight modifications. This is followed by a detailed account of a three-months' expedition to the East Jordan Valley, the Gilead region, the Dead Sea and Moab, and an exploration of the Lower Zerka or River Jabbok. A prominent feature of the narrative is the identification of particular Biblical and historical sites, in which tradition is not always followed. The "Cities of the Plain," *e.g.*, Mr. Merrill holds, were neither totally nor partially submerged. Their site he finds at the northeast, not the south end of the Dead Sea, where ancient ruins still remain. Pisgah he regards as a common, not a proper name; and Mt. Nebo he identifies with the modern Jebel Neba at the extreme north end of the mountain range east of the Dead Sea, which stretches southward from Wady Hasban. It is Gerash, not Es Salt, as many have supposed, that fully answers the description of Ramoth Gilead, and at Khan Minieh, or 'Ain et Tîn, not Tel Hûm, are the ruins of Capernaum.

If the effect of the present volume, however, be to raise the expectations, rather than to satisfy the curiosity, of archæologists, as a book of travels it takes high rank. Mr. Merrill's sketches of the land, the scenery, and the people east of the Jordan are fresh, vigorous, and full of life, and in this respect his book is never dull. He is

constantly impressed with the natural fertility of the soil and its latent possibilities. "The American farmer," he writes, "would look with envious eyes upon any of the fertile portions of this valley, and one has but to see them to account for the interest which Lot felt in the rich plains far to the south" (p. 139). Of the plain of Bashan he adds: "The natural wealth of the soil here is a constant surprise to me. I have seen men on this plain turning furrows which were nearly one mile in length, and as straight as one could draw a line" (p. 333). The milk and the honey, however, were not visible; for here, too, he tells of the blighting curse of Turkish tyranny which is desolating some of the fairest portions of the earth. "A civilized man," he writes in righteous indignation, "cannot help blushing whenever he applies the word government to the barbarous system of robbery and oppression under which the people of the Turkish Empire drag out a miserable existence in poverty and wretchedness" (p. 358); and he adds (p. 417): "My real wonder is that the poor, oppressed, miserable inhabitants of this land, both those of the towns and those of the desert, do not rise and massacre every official that rules in the name of the Turkish Government." Even the slave-trade exists in all its hideous deformity, notwithstanding the specious assurances of the Turkish Government and officials to the contrary.

"As nearly as I can ascertain," says Mr. Merrill, "as many as fifty or sixty, and sometimes eighty slaves—an estimate which is probably too low—chiefly boys and girls, are brought back to Damascus every year by the returning Mecca pilgrims and merchants. For these a ready sale is found. I have a friend in Beirut, and one of his customers residing in Damascus makes the pilgrimage to Mecca every year, and brings back regularly a lot of slaves. In the year 1876 he brought twenty, all females. He was very frank to admit that it was quite common for the Moslems to exchange the merchandise which they took with them for slaves, because in that way they could realize two or three times the value of their goods" (p. 342).

Mr. Merrill was fortunate in entering into friendly relations with the Bedawin. He passed from tribe to tribe unmolested, and thus enjoyed exceptional advantages for studying their institutions and modes of life. His three chapters on "Arab Life in the Desert" are therefore not the least valuable portion of his book. In brief compass he gives some vivid pictures of Arab life, and trustworthy information on many points of interest. Here, *e.g.*, is a graphic sketch of a tribe upon the march:

"The procession or caravan was strung along over three or four miles. They had camels and cattle, and several flocks of sheep and goats. The camels, however, were few, showing that they did not belong to the interior of the desert. All the camels and some of the other animals were loaded. The goods, consisting of tents, cooking apparatus, bags, rugs, mats, baskets, and even cradles, had been hustled together into bundles, tied with strings and ropes, and loaded promiscuously on their beasts of burden. Men, women, children, and babies made each their proportionate element in the procession. There were the 'first families,' and others which, by their dress, or rather by their nakedness and rags, looked as though they might be the 'last families.' The flocks of sheep and goats were mostly driven by small children. Sometimes there were flocks of lambs and kids driven by children not much older, relatively, than the lambs and kids themselves. Some of the men had in their arms two, three, four, or a whole armful of kids and lambs that were too young to walk; and among some cooking utensils there was a large saucepan, and in it was a pair of small kids that were too young for the journey. On the back of a donkey was a bed of blankets, and on that a sleeping child had been tied, whose bare legs hung down the donkey's side. At one point of the procession some women had stopped and were trying to rearrange a load which had fallen off from their donkey. There were small bundles in the path, and one large one by the side of it; my horse picked his way through the small ones, but shied around the large one, for just as he approached it gave a squeak which startled him. I thought it was a box filled with kids too young to walk, but it proved to be an orthodox cradle, which no doubt had been stolen from somewhere, covered with a blue cloth for a curtain, and in it were a pair of lively babies. Many of the women were bareheaded, it being too warm, probably, to wear the blue rag which is the universal headdress; and of their toilets otherwise the less said the better" (p. 473).

Arab children he found always interesting. In reply to a question as to his ideas of life,

"'the little fellow said that he was going to [illegible] up his money and buy a few goats, and after that he should keep on saving his money, and buy two or three cows.

"'What will you do then?' I said.

"'Well, I would sell the goats and the cows, and buy two or three camels.'

"At that his face brightened, as if to own some camels would make a man of him.

"'And after you get your camels what will you do?'

"'Why, then,' said he thoughtfully, 'I shall get married.'

"'And after that what will you do?'

"'Well, I suppose,' said he, after a little pause, 'after that I must get ready to die'" (p. 502).

We permit ourselves one further extract:

"The lot of an Arab woman is a hard one. As a girl she is valued for the price she will bring when she shall be sought in marriage; as a woman she is regarded as a menial, and her life is wretched; if she arrives at old age—and forty or fifty years is considered an advanced age—she becomes wrinkled and haggard, without a single comely or redeeming feature, one of the most disgusting objects that mortal eyes ever looked upon bearing the name of woman" (pp. 506–7).

Mr. Merrill writes in an attractive style, and his descriptions of scenery are especially good. His book is beautifully illustrated throughout, largely from drawings made by himself.

Little can be said of Dr. Dulles's 'Ride Through Palestine,' which deals with the country westward of the Jordan. It is difficult to see what special ground there was for another addition to the number, large enough already, of commonplace books all going over the same ground and repeating the same story. The route here described has been described a hundred times before, and there is nothing in the experience of the travellers to impart life and interest to the narrative.

NUMA ROUMESTAN.

Numa Roumestan: Mœurs Parisiennes. Par Alphonse Daudet. Paris: G. Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern. 1881.

For English and American readers the last novel of Alphonse Daudet can hardly be said to possess the interest of his former stories. It has, like the 'Nabab,' a political character, but this is so entirely local that to say of the ordinary foreigner that he knows nothing of it, is to understate the case. It is so wholly out of his range that he has not even misconceptions or prejudices about it. The phrase of Numa Roumestan's which appears on the title-page, and furnishes the key to the political part of the tale—"Pour la seconde fois les Latins ont conquis la Gaule"—cannot convey much meaning to any but Frenchmen, and the moral of the story is worked out in such an extraordinary way that it can hardly have much profound significance for them. A few years ago the case might have been different. Numa Roumestan is a native of Provence, and represents the south of France—the south in which traces of the old Roman language and blood still linger, although they seem, if we are to take M. Daudet's word for it, to produce effects strangely un-Roman. It would be difficult to make out in the Provençal as he appears in the pages of this novel—hot-blooded, impulsive, irrational, rhetorical, superficial, and false—any of the traits which we are accustomed to associate with the Roman conquest of Gaul, and hardly less difficult is it to understand why, in contrast with this type, there is offered to us, as a representative of the cold, reflective, and moral north, a Parisian wife. The character of Rosalie de Quesnoy, admirably as it is drawn, is one which *à priori* we should say represented a latitude a good deal to the north of Paris; and it is certainly a novelty in a French description of Parisian manners to find our old Anglo-Saxon superstition on the subject of Parisian conjugal infidelity rudely shattered by so good an authority with regard to Parisian life as M. Daudet. The political moral of the book, however, is quite clear: it is the south against the north—the Roman against the Gaul—ending in a second conquest.

The story opens with a great fête in the old Roman amphitheatre at Aps, the birthplace of the hero, Numa the deputy, Numa the leader of the Right, the faithful follower of Henry V. and the white flag, now for ten years the bulwark of religion and country against the onslaughts of socialists and atheists—the great orator and statesman, Numa Roumestan. He is the centre of the fête—almost the fête itself. He has come down from Paris with his wife and her sister, Hortense. With a few wonderfully clever strokes, the author makes the character of the man and his position, his relation to his wife and her relation to him, all clear. Numa is a man of the people, known and beloved by everybody, high and low; and on this great day he has a kind word, a grasp of the hand, or a slap of the shoulder for everybody who can get near him. To be sure, the interview does not last very long; the great man hears with one ear, and while talking to the first-comer gives his hand to the second. But with such a crowd, and such kind words, who could ask any more? The requests of the honest constituents are generally for tobacco privileges, and if he notices that any one is keeping back, he encourages him to ask. There is nothing that he enjoys better than the pleasure of promising. His words, distinct and clear, come from his lips like pieces of money newly coined, and every friend and acquaintance goes off with a few of them as happy as a schoolboy with a prize. But the most delightful thing of all is to see how the great man falls into the tone, gesture, and manner of the person to whom he is speaking, and all in the most natural and unconscious way in the world. See him with M. le Président Bédarride, his arm magisterially extended, "comme s'il sécouait sa toga à la barre"; then look at his martial air as he talks to Colonel de Rochemaure; and after that notice him with Cabantous, his hands in his pockets, his rolling gait, and general air of an old tar. His sister-in-law asks him, with a laugh, where in the world he is going to find all the tobacco-shops he has promised; to which the statesman philosophically replies, "They are promised, my dear sister, not given"; and then, noticing the reproach conveyed in the silence of his wife, he goes on:

"'Do not forget that we are in the south, among compatriots of the same tongue. All these brave fellows know what a promise is worth, and do not hope for their tobacco-shop with any greater definiteness than I count on getting it for them. But they like to talk about it; it amuses them and fires their imagination. Why deprive them of this pleasure? Among southerners words never have more than a relative meaning.' . . . ."

His wife, however, is not convinced—

"'Nevertheless, words signify something, after all,' she says, as if speaking to herself.

"'My dear,' replies her husband, 'that depends on the latitude.'"

There are one or two of his constituents who agree with his wife as to the meaning of words, both of them destined to give them a great deal of trouble in the sequel, one of them the old Cabantous, the other Valmajour, a Provençal tambourine and flute-player, whose music makes such an impression upon Roumestan that he brings him and all his family to Paris, where they are destined to be the cause of much misery to themselves and others. Those who are curious about matters of literary workmanship will be interested in noticing in the thread of the Valmajour story the characteristic use which the author makes of his musician's account of the flute with three stops. In all his stories there has been something to remind us in a puzzling sort of way of Dickens, and there is nothing more characteristic of Dickens than his melodramatic use of pathetic "points," by the sudden reintroduction of a phrase or expression which he has already associated in our minds with pleasant ideas, at some pathetic crisis, where it has the effect of heightening the pathos by the contrast of emotion. It is of course a device which was not invented by Dickens; it is probably as old as literary art itself. It is very common on the stage in melodrama and the "emotional" drama; and that it may be used with success in music, Gounod, to say nothing of other composers, has demonstrated very effectively in the well-known waltz air in "Faust." But it is, after all, a trick—a purely mechanical way of producing a literary effect—which, when it is once explained, any one can learn and perform. We associate it generally with some of Dickens's books, because he was a master of it; and in French fiction there is no one who employs it with anything like the gusto and frequency that M. Daudet displays. In the case of Valmajour, the interest of the character is not sufficient to warrant much pathos. He is at bottom a stupid lout, without either heart or mind. Our sympathies are entirely enlisted on the side of Hortense, whose romance about him is destined to be shattered to fragments. With wonderful cleverness, therefore, M. Daudet refrains from any attempt to make Valmajour himself pathetic, but at the same time makes an effective point of his parrot-like repetition of the story of the flute. He tells it whenever his playing comes to an end; and that it contains an idea pretty enough for a "point" no one will dispute. "It came to me," he explains in his native patois at the moment of his triumph in the Roman amphitheatre, "in the night, while I was listening to the song of the nightingale. I thought to myself, How then, Valmajour? There is the bird of God above, and his throat is enough for him to make all his *roulades* with. What he does with one stop, you cannot do with your flute and three." And when, at the skating-rink in Paris, the unfortunate Hortense, her romance about him quite dispelled, herself doomed to an early death, is dragged by his sister to witness his final and complete failure, when his flute and tambourine have fallen flat, and his audience have let him know their feelings about his music only too plainly, again we see his lips move, and hear for the last time (this is the third occasion on which this little piece of "business" is made use of): "It came to me . . . one stop . . . three stops . . . the bird of God above." His gesture of despair is understood by the orchestra. "And this was Hortense's romance! This was what Paris had made of it."

The first scene at Aps prepares us for the next two chapters, which give an account of the previous life of Numa: his study of law; his career in the Latin Quarter; his determination never to go back to Provence, but to seek his fortune in Paris; his apprenticeship to a distinguished Parisian lawyer; the revelation of his natural gift for oratory; his marriage, and the discovery of his true character by his wife. These two chapters make a complete story by themselves, and the only fault to be found with the rest of the book is that, so far as he and she are concerned, it is very like a repetition of them, modified by the introduction of some new characters. This furnishes the occasion for the sad story of Hortense, and her untimely death, and for an entertaining account of the political life of the great man in Paris, and of the many troubles into which his amiable but superficial and false character gets him. But we foresee from the first that his wife's pardon of his first infidelity is not going to change him; indeed, nothing can effect a radical change in him, for no deep or lasting impression can be made upon his character, and the appearance of the little Bachellery on the scene indicates what the end must be. He is clearly destined to repeat his offence, and there was hardly any other way to finish the story than to bring about a second condonation scene over the death-bed of Hortense. The conclusion is, however, necessarily tame, and in the hands of any one but M. Daudet would have been flat. In fact, no more conclusive proof of his great cleverness could have been given than his managing to keep up the interest of such a plot to the end. If it could have had a tragic termination; if the character of Numa had brought him, as by a natural process it might have been made to do, to his ruin, it might have been a great novel. The analysis of his mobile and inconstant disposition is wonderful; but we resent instinctively the disproportion between the analysis and the *dénouement*. The second conquest of France by the Romans does not explain itself, and the sum and substance of the story as a whole is perhaps best put in the words of the Provençal proverb with which the melancholy chapter of Rosalie's domestic unhappiness closes: "Gau de carriero, doulou d'oustau—Joie de rue, douleur de maison."

Nordens Forhistorie. Efter samtidige Mindesmærker af I. I. A. Worsaae. Copenhagen. 1881. 200 pp., with a map.

MR. WORSAAE is the acknowledged chief among Scandinavian archæologists. As early as 1854 he showed that the iron age must be divided into two (later into three) epochs, and in 1859 he published a work in which he distinguished between an elder and a younger bronze age. He has also discriminated between an elder and younger stone age, making the kitchen-middens belong to the former, and the cairns and cairn sepulchres to the latter, although this division of the stone age into two epochs has been zealously contested by Mr. Steenstrup. Mr. Worsaae has the honor of having successfully combatted Forchhammer's and Finn Magnusen's notion that Runamo contained a runic inscription. Runamo is a rocky wall in Bleking covered with lines and figures, which by Forchhammer and Magnusen were held to be runes, and interpreted as a prayer by Harold Hildetand to the gods for victory in the battle on Bravalla Heath, and a curse upon his enemies, but which Worsaae showed to be a mere freak of nature.

In the present work Mr. Worsaae gives first a general statement in regard to the present status of archæological studies in other countries, and then proceeds to discuss in some very interesting chapters the various prehistoric ages of Scandinavia. The elder stone age is put by Worsaae at 3,000 years B.C., at least, while the younger stone age is made to embrace the epoch from 2,000 to 1,000 B.C. The elder bronze age begins at about the year 1,000 and ends about 500 B.C. It is followed by the younger bronze age from 500 B.C. to the Christian era. Then come the elder iron age (from the birth of Christ to 450 after Christ), the middle iron age (from 450 to 700), and the younger iron age (from 700 to 1,000). For all of these epochs the various finds, with their uses and significance, are fully set forth.

The most striking part of the work is Mr. Worsaae's interpretation of the inscriptions and figures on the two famous gold horns found near Gallehus in 1639 and 1734, and never before satisfactorily explained, although many celebrated archæologists have made elaborate attempts. The actual money value of the two horns was 1,870 ducats. It is acknowledged on all hands that they belong to the middle iron age—that is to say, to the epoch beginning 450 and ending 700 after Christ. George Stephens places them at about A.D. 400. The author had ascertained that many of the finds from the bronze ages were connected with religious customs, and in his studies of the gold bracteates,* from the elder and middle iron ages, he found a number of images representing Odin, Thor, Frey, Sigurd, the Volsung, and other gods and heroes described in ancient literature. Then came the discussion concerning the age of the Edda-lays and of the most important Teutonic myths. Bugge and Bang in Norway contended that they were brought to the North in the eighth and ninth centuries. They insisted that the Balder myth especially, which forms the kernel of the asa-faith, and the representations of the Midgard-serpent and Ragnarok, were an importation of Christian legends, while other myths were of classic origin brought to the North during the Viking expeditions, notably from England, Scotland, and Ireland. Odin himself was no older. These views contained a serious attack on the old Norse literature and on the whole preceding estimate of Teutonic antiquities. It is true these ideas were intrinsically not at all probable, for the Viking age was an age of decline and disintegration in religious respects. There was not enough of faith left in the North to accept and embrace new and important myths. It therefore seemed proper to examine this subject from an archæological standpoint. There were a multitude of pictures on the two famous gold horns from the middle iron age, on the bracteates, and on runic stones as well as on other finds, and it was discreditable to the archæologists that they made no attempt to explain them.

The suggestion came from France. On a visit to the Museum in St. Germain, Mr. Worsaae saw a department in which Gallic idols from every part of France were arranged. He saw there gods both in sitting and standing postures—a mixture of Roman and Gallic divinities—and among these not less than fifteen three-headed idols, a part of which had their legs crossed in genuine Buddha fashion. This led him to make a new and careful study of the gold horns from Gallehus. Suddenly it flashed upon his mind that the one must have reference to the serpent-filled abode of Hel (the Goddess of Death), and the other to the star-lit Valhal. Here the key was found. He then took the figures separately and compared them with the representations on the gold bracteates, and soon found that the *whole Odinic religion* was pictured on the gold horns, with Valhal and Hel and the myth of Balder as the basis. In successive rings on the horns nearly all the myths found in the Eddas are represented by pictures showing conclusively that all the elements and details of the asa-faith

* Bracteates (from the Latin *bracteæ*) are a kind of coin of thin, hammered-out silver (sometimes gold), once very common throughout northern Europe in prehistoric times. They were frequently used as ornaments. The oldest were engraved on both sides, but the later ones were hammered out so thin that they could be engraved on one side only. They are found in great numbers in Germany and Scandinavia, but Denmark is the only country in which gold bracteates have been found. The word has not yet found its way into our English dictionaries.

existed in the North long before the Viking age. The horns might be compared to a fully-illustrated Bible, and were probably kept in a temple to tell the story of the old religion. They are a unique relic of the past, of inestimable value, not only to the North, but also to all the other Germanic countries. Comparison with the bracteates and other relics shows beyond a doubt that the horns belong to the sixth century.

Mr. Worsaae has thus demonstrated in the most satisfactory manner that the basis of Norse mythology is not, as maintained by Bugge and Bang, a recent importation from the British Isles, but dates back to an early period, and is connected with religious ideas that have been common to all Teutons. He has demonstrated that finds in the archæological collections establish the antiquity of the Edda myths, and the trustworthiness of the Old Norse literature in this respect. His book marks a new era in the study of Teutonic antiquities. Many of the old views and theories, and many old interpretations, will have to be set aside. But archæologists and scientists may take comfort from one of the pictures found on the Gallehus gold horns. The heroes in Valhal ride out into the court every day, and there fight until they fall; but the next day they rise again, remount their steeds, and return to Valhal, where they drink mead with Odin from golden horns.

Madame de Sévigné. By Miss Thackeray (Mrs. Richmond Ritchie). [Foreign Classics for English Readers.] Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 16mo, pp. 181.

Miss Thackeray is a genial and appreciative biographer of Madame de Sévigné, and has made a very charming book—an entertaining life of her heroine, enlivened with copious extracts from her letters, and all together forming a graphic and interesting picture of the times. The introductory chapter contains an admirable passage descriptive of the personality of Madame de Sévigné and her relation to the world about her:

"Madame de Sévigné's voice rings very true and sweet and playful amidst the hideous discords of her time, and her apparition is indeed a gracious vision among the reckless phantoms of her age—those subjects of that Grand Monarch whose god was his belly, and whose good breeding was the admiration of Europe. While his people are starving, and his mistresses stringing diamonds; while his unwilling armies are invading inoffensive nations, and his courtiers are conniving at every mad wickedness — Saint Simon dwells, in an ecstasy of contemplation, upon the extraordinary grace, the irresistible admixture of dignity and respect, with which the King would half rise from his seat at table to salute the tardy entrance of some belated dame of honor, at the same time storing in his memory a record of the lady's fallibility, to be resented at the first convenient opportunity. Madame de Sévigné, in her youth, was no less enthusiastic about him than the rest, but as years went by her judgment became more just. Hers was a curious morality; she laughed where others might have wept; she seemed to take the times as she found them; she attempted no reform, though she could see wrong plainly enough where it existed. It was a sweet and happy temper, a mind that played lightly even with sorrows and wrong-doing; and yet this bright and apparently unconcerned existence was a protest in its way against the insincerity and abject selfishness of the court. She at least did her best to make those about her happy. . . . In a court where lies and intrigue were as daily bread; where modesty was rare, and every standard of right and wrong overthrown by the brilliant and witty and well-dressed vices crowding in—this beautiful young woman, surrounded by flattery of every sort, by high living and low thinking, kept her dignity intact, her name pure and respected. She did not profess any special virtue, nor hold her garments back lest they should be soiled by contact with the petticoats of her more frivolous sisters. She was (to earnest minds perhaps) far too lenient in her tolerance for others, and especially where those she loved were concerned; but the whole tenor of her life was just and self-respecting."

Armstrong's Primer of United States History, for School and Family Use. With maps. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1881. Pp. 128.

We are inclined to doubt whether the next generation will think as highly of the "primer system" as the present, and if the system does survive the present fashion, we think it will be (as with the lecture system) in so far as it aims not to instruct, but to inspire and suggest. The attempt to crowd the history of any nation into the compass of a hundred pages or so must result either in a very incomplete statement or a mere catalogue of names and events; but a hundred pages of what is most essential in facts and commentary, the secondary facts and every proper name that is possible being omitted, may be very useful. Some of the primers of history are models in this respect, especially for the purpose of review. The book before us is not uniform in method. In some parts—for instance, the story of Columbus, and Burgoyne's invasion—we have an account very complete and good for the space devoted to it; while other parts, especially towards the end, are meagre, confused, and crowded with unimportant names and dates. It seems as if the author began on a larger scale than his space would warrant, and was compelled to crowd some of the closing chapters with more facts than they would well hold. The Colonial period is perhaps too brief, but rather from omission than compression. The arrangement here is not always good. On what principle are New York, New Jersey, and Delaware grouped together (chap. vi., part 1), and Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Georgia (chap. v., part 2)? The maps are, we think, the best we have ever seen in a school history of the United States, but they are not numbered. In the map of the acquisition of territory (p. 64) we think it is clearly incorrect to include Oregon in the Louisiana purchase. In the map of the Colonies (p. 16) the three divisions into which Maine fell historically ought to be indicated. On page 80 the Dorr rebellion (1842) is said to have arisen out of a "quarrel over a new charter"!

A Short History of Art. By Julia B. De Forest. Illustrated. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1881.

One of the results of the new and wide-spread interest in art, and art education, which has arisen within the past few years in America, is the production of popular treatises on the subject. It is natural that these treatises should generally correspond in character with the new interest itself, which, though it contains some hopeful elements, is yet hardly of the character that we ought to desire. We are going on much too fast in these matters. Our work is not yet modest, patient, and thorough enough to serve as a sound foundation for real progress. Everywhere, in the popular arts of the time, we see the signs of undue haste, of undisciplined feeling, and of effort to produce what shall be showy rather than excellent. And all this is reflected perfectly in the art literature which springs up along with it. There are exceptions; but they are not too frequent to prove the rule.

The work before us purports to be a brief outline of the general history of the arts in all ages and countries. Brief outlines of great subjects may be very useful, no doubt, if they are made by thoroughly competent persons, who not only know their subjects perfectly, but possess also the faculty of seizing significant points, and of presenting them in true and vivid order. Such outlines enable a beginner to lay hold of a subject as he otherwise could not, and give him an interest in following it up by more particular and more extended study. But unless an outline of a subject is full enough and accurate enough to convey real and significant information in every part, it has little if any value. It is a fault of this book that it is in many parts too brief to be intelligible, and is frequently inaccurate in its statements. For instance, the subject of sculpture in Italy, from 1200 to 1400—one of the most important in the whole range of art history—has a little less than two pages assigned to it. So great a man as Andrea Orcagna is disposed of in two lines as follows: "Andrea Orcagna (1329–1368) also deserves mention. He was a man of universal genius, painter, sculptor, and architect." And not only is the treatment of important subjects frequently thus so very brief as to be of hardly any use at all, but the authoress often so misconceives the spirit and character of the art she is speaking of as to be very misleading. An instance of this occurs in the closing paragraph of this same chapter. She says:

"Mediæval traditions were followed in Venice longer than in other parts of Italy; but the whole country, as if it recognized an old friend in the revived classic spirit, shook itself free from the trammels of northern art in a very brief space of time. The next step was to conquer those countries which, for a little, had imposed their artistic canons upon the heirs of the treasures of Greece and Rome."

Herein the failure to recognize those most living and salutary elements of northern art which animated what remained, or was revived, of classic tradition in Italy, and gave controlling impulse to the arts of the Early and Central Renaissance, leaves the impression on the mind of the reader that there was nothing in northern art which could not be spared and was not better out of the way. It would be hard to imagine a graver misconception of the character of northern art, or a more untrue notion of the Early and Central Renaissance art of Italy than is conveyed by the implication that it was merely a revival of the antique. The book embraces an account of Primitive art, Egyptian art, Chaldean art, Persian art, the arts of Syria and Asia Minor, Greek art, Etruscan art, Roman art, Christian art, the arts of the Renaissance, Pagan art in the Christian Era, and art in the nineteenth century. It is profusely illustrated by woodcuts, but the illustrations are all of an extremely coarse character.

The Story of the English Jacobins. By Edward Smith, F.S.S., author of 'William Cobbett: a Biography,' etc. [Cassell's Popular Library.] New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co. 32mo, pp. 184.

There is no more interesting episode in English history than the last effort made by Prerogative to crush the spirit of free institutions in the Treason Trials of 1794; and there is no more inspiring eloquence in the noble volume of British oratory than those speeches in which Erskine successfully defended popular rights against the assaults of the Government. The story of these events is told in an interesting manner in Mr. Smith's little volume, which will well repay the reading.

While our sympathies are heartily with the heroes of the book, and we regard the acquittal of Hardy and Tooke as no unimportant step in the progress of English liberty, we cannot help seeing that there were many features of the popular movement which justified a certain degree of alarm. The actions of the "conspirators" appear to have been wholly free from reproach, and it is well shown (p. 65) that all the disorders of the time were the work of the partisans of "law and order." But the reformers

were not as careful to avoid every appearance of countenancing the excesses of the French Revolution as, in the light of history, we should have expected them to be. It must have appeared to the average Englishman an ominous reminder of Louis Philippe Égalité when "'Citizen' Stanhope's health is drunk 'with thundering applause'" (p. 115). No doubt the horrors of the Reign of Terror made less impression in the excitement of the time; probably, too, they really occupied a smaller proportionate space in men's minds than they do now, with the glare of ninety years thrown upon them. For all that, it seems incredible that calm English reformers should send gratulatory commissions to France in the midst of those events; just as the Genet episode in our own history is hard to realize at the present day.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, W. D. The Eastern Archipelago. New York: T. Nelson & Sons. $2.
Ballantyne, R. M. The Giant of the North; or, Pokings Round the Pole. New York: T. Nelson & Sons. $1 50.
Brockhaus's Conversations-Lexikon, Parts 1, 2. 13th ed New York: L. W. Schmidt.
Cassell's Book of In-door Amusements. New York: Cassell & Co. $1 50.
Clement, Mrs. C. E. Eleanor Maitland: a Tale. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Corbett, Mrs. C. T. Three Wise Old Couples. New York: Cassell & Co. $1 50.
Dahlgren, Mrs. M. V. South Sea Sketches. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1 50.
Daudet, A. Numa Roumestan. 22d thousand. New York: F. W. Christern.
Dickens, C. Letters. Vol. III. 1836-1870. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1 50.
Doehn, Dr. R. Beiträge zur Geschichte der Nordamerikanischen Union. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Drake, S. A. Around the Hub: a Boys' Book about Boston. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.
Ebers, Prof. G. Uarda: a Romance of Ancient Egypt. 2 vols. New ed. New York: W. S. Gottsberger.
Edwards, Dr. J. F. Malaria: What it Means, and How Avoided. Philadelphia: Presley Blakiston. 75 cents.
Engle, Alice B. Story of Four Acorns. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.
Falke, J. von. Greece and Rome. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $15.
Garrett, E. Family Fortunes. New York: T. Nelson & Sons. $1 75.
Gibbon, C. The Braes of Yarrow: a Tale. New York: Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Guiding Pillar: a Child's Story. London: T. Nelson & Sons. 80 cents.
Hale, Ellen. Hazel-Nut and her Brothers. New York: Cassell & Co. $1 25.
Holland, J. G. Gold-Foil. New ed. $1 25.—Titcomb's Letters to Young People. 50th ed. $1 25.—Bitter-Sweet: a Poem. New ed. $1 25. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Holst, Dr. H. von. Constitutional and Political History of the United States—1846-1850. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.
Hulme, F. E. Flower Painting in Water Colors. New York: Cassell & Co. $2 50.
Irving, W. Biographies and Miscellanies.—Life of Washington. Vol. I. (Geoffrey Crayon ed.) New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Is there a Christian Sabbath? New York: Brown & Derby. 40 cents.
Knackfuhs, A. Louise, Queen of Prussia. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Ledyard, Laura, and Peters, W. T. Tutti Frutti: a Book of Child Songs. New York: George W. Harlan.
Lesley, Prof. J. P. Man's Origin and Destiny. 2d ed. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. $2.
Little Folks' Album of Music. New York: Cassell & Co. $1 25.
Little Folks: a Magazine for the Young. New York: Cassell & Co. $1 25.
Locke, D. R. Hannah Jane: a Poem. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1 50.
Warren, H. The Human Figure. 4th ed. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
Waugh, Ida. Holly-Berries. Illustrated. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.
Webb, Rev. T. W. Celestial Objects for Common Telescopes. 4th ed. New York: Industrial Pub. Society.
Whist Score Book. New York: C. C. Shelley.
Wilkins, Prof. A. S. M. Tullii Ciceronis De Oratore. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Willson, M. Popular Series of Readers. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.
Wit and Wisdom of Benjamin Disraeli, Earl of Beaconsfield. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $1 50.
Zur Brücke, Dr. German without Grammar or Diction ary. New ed. Part I. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 75 cents.

A SUMPTUOUS GIFT-BOOK.

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By Jacob von Falcke, Director of the Imperial Museums, Berlin. Translated by William Hand Browne. 4to, $15.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 17, 1881.

The Week.

THE result of the election in this State has dispelled some impressions which had been carefully cultivated by Republican Machine politicians and their sympathizers on the Democratic side. One of these impressions was that the Republican party would inevitably be defeated unless the "regular Machine" were entrusted with the conduct of the campaign. The success of the Republican nominees for the State offices (with one exception) proves that the Republicans may be successful not only without Machine leadership, but without any leadership at all, for in the recent campaign there was certainly not much of it. Another impression, or rather pretension, was that the "Stalwart" element was the most numerous and potent in the Republican ranks in this State. It appears from election returns that among the State Senators and members of the Assembly of the next Legislature the Stalwart element will be almost invisible. The rank and file of the party have evidently had their own way in a large majority of the election districts. The current has been decidedly against Machine influence—so much so, indeed, that the most successful candidate in this whole campaign was Mr. Seth Low, the man whose nomination was forced upon the Republican Machine by an independent citizens' movement, and who then beat the Democratic Machine in the election by a frank and candid appeal to the public. These things may be remembered with profit.

The success of the combined Republicans and Readjusters in Virginia under Senator Mahone's leadership has been decided and sweeping. The coalition has won complete control of the State Government in all its branches. As to whose victory it was there can be no doubt. It was not the victory of the Republicans, for the Republican party of Virginia had not only abdicated its identity as an organization, but, in combining with the Readjusters, very seriously compromised those of its principles fidelity to which had of late more than anything else won for it the confidence and support of the country. The victory is unquestionably General Mahone's, who not only succeeded in making the Republicans follow his lead at the sacrifice of much they had held dear, but who has succeeded also, with the coalition so formed, in overthrowing the so-called "Bourbon Democracy" of Virginia. The ground upon which Mr. Mahone has been supported by a large part of the Republican journals and politicians in the North was, that the movement under his leadership represented the liberal and progressive aspirations of the South; that it was mainly supported by the active and ambitious young men; that its success would give security to the colored people in the exercise of their suffrage, and so break up the "solid South" and virtually dispose of the so-called "Southern question." That there is much truth in this will scarcely be denied. On the other hand, it is also true that the open repudiation of a part of the State debt is one of the prominent features of the Readjusters' platform, and that the whole movement is affected with the taint of dishonesty in the matter of public obligations.

It is a question which conscientious Republicans should reflect upon, how intimate the party can permit its alliance with Mr. Mahone to grow without serious injury to political morals generally. Mr. Mahone had the active support of the Administration in the distribution of patronage during the campaign. The victory being won, his ambition is said to expand. He is not only looking out for a fit associate in the Senate of the United States, a sort of an "assistant Senator" from Virginia, but he is credited with a strong desire to be "represented in the Cabinet"—aspirations which so far have belonged exclusively to the domain of the great party bosses. In one word, Mr. Mahone's attitude seems to be no longer that of a mere ally and beneficiary of the Republican party, but that of one of its chiefs and leaders. It is worth while to consider what that kind of leadership may lead to. That the repudiating tendency of the Mahone movement, unless speedily and honestly abandoned after its triumph in Virginia, will seriously affect the credit of the Republican party, as far as the latter stands sponsor to the Mahone movement, need scarcely be repeated. But there is still something equally significant behind this. We are told that the breaking-up of the "solid South" on the Mahone plan will result in making the Republican party independent of a united North; in other words, it will have of the votes of Southern States enough to win Presidential elections even if the reformers and malcontents in the party should here and there revolt and deprive it of this or that of the Northern States. This reasoning seems to please especially our Stalwart friends. And there is method in it. By organizing a goodly number of Southern rotten boroughs the party may indeed to some extent emancipate itself from the influence of the critical public opinion which prevails in Northern communities; a condition of things which would call back the liveliest reminiscences of the Grant régime, and thus become particularly inspiring to the Stalwart mind.

The impression which seems to prevail at the North that the success of Mahone will be followed by immediate repudiation is a mistaken one. Though the Readjusters have now apparently the power to pass the Riddleberger bill over again, any such measure would be resisted by the creditors of the State, who would carry the matter into the courts. It has been already taken up to the Supreme Court of the State once, and this tribunal would have to be packed before the repudiators could have full swing, while even in that case it would probably be still further appealed, at least as to the receivability of coupons for taxes, to the United States Supreme Court. This would mean a protracted litigation and the postponement of any settlement for years. The Mahonites, however dishonest they may be, are shrewd politicians, and they are already beginning to see that the path of the successful repudiator is not strewn with roses. A compromise, not merely with the creditors, but with the "Funders," would seem to be the natural result of this condition of things, and the Richmond *Dispatch* thinks that while a Riddleberger Bill may be passed by the Legislature, it will be "little less than impossible" to pass the old Riddleberger Bill, either as it was when Riddleberger first drew it up or as it was when Governor Holliday vetoed it.

The most significant incident of the recent campaign in Pennsylvania was the vote cast for Mr. Charles G. Wolfe, Independent Republican candidate for State Treasurer. That a man nominated by himself, on the simple platform of resistance to boss dictation in the matter of nominations for office, should come out of the contest with a following of more than 50,000 voters, is a circumstance unprecedented in the politics of that State, or, indeed, of any State. It indicates a very intelligent interest and belief in Mr. Wolfe's declared programme of reform inside the party and outside the organization. The suggestion, on the part of the managers, that the only proper way was to work for reform inside the organization, was sufficiently answered by one of the Wolfe speakers, who stated as his first objection that you couldn't get in—which dispensed with other reasons. Mr. Wolfe's campaign was conducted after the manner of Peter the Hermit's: he personally traversed the State, defending his dogma before the assembled citizens, and, without the aid of organization, or machinery, or money, certainly attained a surprising result, and one which will have an important bearing upon the future of Pennsylvania Republicanism.

The National Tariff Convention to be held in New York in the last week of this month announces a very remarkable and not very consistent programme. The delegates expect to prove to the people of this country that protection has reduced the cost of manufactured goods, and that it has increased the price of labor. If they can prove the first, they cannot prove the second; nor can they prove the second without disproving the first. What is the price of labor but the wages that are paid for it? and what is the chief element of the cost of production but the amount of wages paid to the laborers engaged in production? Thus, Mr. Mill says (Book iii., chap. iv., § 1): "What the production of a thing costs to its producer, or its series of producers, is the labor expended in producing it. If we consider as the producer the capitalist who makes the advances, the word 'labor' may be replaced by the word 'wages.' What the produce costs to him is the wages which he had to pay." If the Convention has no better programme, it might as well save itself the trouble of assembling.

Guiteau's case is creating such a powerful presumption in the public mind against the existence of insanity in criminals that the poor lunatics who commit crimes during the next few months are likely to have a hard time of it. The latest criminal who "claims" to be insane is the man who has been threatening Jay Gould's life in order to compel him to give him "points" in stocks, but he literally ruined his case when arrested by showing manifest signs of fear and mortification. This no genuine and irresponsible lunatic would do, and the incredulity with which this man's claim to insanity is received should be a warning to all others whose affairs are in disorder, and who are casting about for the means of righting them. A really irresponsible lunatic does not mind being arrested, and in fact rather likes it. Guiteau, unluckily for himself, made arrangements to run away after the murder. But the experiment of an eminent alienist, we believe, in Hartford, made some years ago, throws doubts on the propriety of letting every mischievous lunatic go unpunished, for he found that a patient much addicted to assault and battery was cured by having his tobacco stopped.

While Guiteau's "speech" may illustrate his morally and mentally vicious condition, it does not establish his insanity. There is a certain consistency in insane impulses which is lacking in his case. If he really believed that he shot President Garfield in obedience to a divine command, he would rejoice in the consequences of the inspired act as well as in the act itself. He would take credit to himself not only as a providential agent in contriving to kill the President, or to "remove" him, to use his own word, but also as a successful agent in actually accomplishing the killing or removal. He does not do this. In respect to the shooting—a fact as to which there can be no dispute—he insists that he acted under divine orders; but when he comes to the cause of the death of the President, as to which he hopes a question will be raised, he argues that it was caused by the doctors, and but for their mismanagement the President would not have died. An honest madman would glory in the whole business, and would insist that the shooting and the death were both the work of "the Lord," and of himself as a divinely appointed agent.

The miscarriage of the Star-route prosecution by the dismissal of the criminal information by Judge Cox, appears to be plainly the result of District Attorney Corkhill's singular behavior with regard to the Grand Jury. He adjourned it without notice to Mr. Cooke, who had been retained by the Attorney-General to conduct the prosecution, and adjourned it when he must have known that it could not be got together again in time to deprive the defendants of the benefit of the statute of limitations. There is still hope that new indictments can be sent in which the statute of limitations will not cover, but this does not make the conduct of the District Attorney any the less extraordinary. The truth is that there is a sort of contagious apathy in Washington about all prosecution of political criminals who have held high office, or in fact any office. There is in the first place much doubt whether the prosecution is seriously undertaken, and then whether anything will come of it, and whether anything had better come of it. This feeling is so strong that nothing short of a very determined attitude on the part of the President is sufficient to dissipate it. There is evidently a strong disposition in Washington now to treat the escape of these particular criminals as a foregone conclusion, and to throw the blame of it, not so much on District Attorney Corkhill, who failed directly in his duty, as on Mr. McVeagh, who refuses to stay in the Cabinet for the sole purpose of watching over the prosecution.

The *Herald* published on Friday a history of the attempt by our Government to get possession of assets belonging to the Confederate Government abroad. These assets are the same as those on which the recent speculation in Confederate bonds was based. Various contracts appear to have been made at Washington within the past twenty years to pay liberally for any such property recovered and turned over to the United States, but as the net result to the Government has thus far only amounted to $5,000, the "fund" applicable to the payment of the bonds can hardly be a large one. The recovery of even this $5,000 required a gigantic effort, a fifty per cent. contract, the services of a "Commissioner," and a Treasury agent, who between them collected Confederate property which brought in $100,000. From this they were obliged to deduct $95,000 for the expenses of collection; and a rival contractor is said to allege that this recovery was made on evidence for which he is entitled to be paid, so that it is too early yet to feel sure how the Government is going to come out in the end. The inventory of the assets "shows that there are $29,000,000 in Europe and $11,000,000 in the United States, or $40,000,000 in all." Of this $11,000,000 is in good hard money, "deposited to the credit of the rebel Government in Vienna, Brussels, Frankfort-on-the-Main, Amsterdam, Paris, and London." The Secretary of the Treasury ought to send for this at once. It is of course a little strange that with twenty years of searching and contracting none of it should ever have turned up, but this, we suppose, was because the contractors kept devoting their attention to the other assets, such as item No. 24, "Eighty chronometers, spoils of the *Florida* and *Alabama*," and item No. 27, "Postage stamps, a portion of which are now in a bank in Canada."

Mr. Kasson, our late Minister to Austria, has an article on "The Monroe Doctrine in 1881" in the last *North American Review*, in which he makes a suggestion with regard to the Isthmus Canal which should have appeared in Mr. Blaine's recently published despatch, and which is really needed to prevent Mr. Blaine's position having an air of serious inconsequence. He says:

"The connecting water-line between our Atlantic and Pacific coasts can, no more than the Pacific Railroad, be allowed to come under European control. The communication should be opened on a line approved by the United States by a company chartered by, or with the formal approval of, the United States, and sanctioned by the local government; constructed, if necessary, by the financial aid of the United States; and opened on equal terms to the use of all foreign nations, but under the control of none of them. The charter should provide that none of the proprietary rights of the company should ever be transferred to any foreign government, nor any lien upon its rights, franchises, or possessions be conveyed, directly or indirectly, to any foreign government. No chance should be left to convert a weak Central American state into another distracted Egypt by means of foreign possessory rights in another isthmian canal."

Nothing can be more reasonable than to say: "We mean to make this canal ourselves, or assist in making it, with American money, as we made the Pacific Railroads, and then keep control of it, as our own line of communication with our own territory." Nothing more unreasonable, on the surface at least, than to say to Europeans, "You make this canal with your money, and when you have it finished it shall be our canal, and we shall decide under what conditions we will let you use it."

If the interest of this country in the Peruvian complication were as deep as it is from time to time represented to be by a certain portion of the press, we should undoubtedly be now engaged in a South American war. But the fact is, sad as the truth may be, that Europe has really a much deeper material stake in Peru than we. In 1878 the total exports from Peru were $49,475,000, of which Great Britain took $26,161,525; while the exports through the port of Callao to the United States were $1,203,602, and the imports $1,876,000. But Peru is closely connected with Europe by a yet more binding tie. The public debt, most of which was taken up by the same class of "prudent investors" in England and France who went so heavily a few years ago into "Turks" and "Egyptians," stood in 1879 at the nice little figure of $226,340,516; and to what amount this has since been swollen by the war with Chili no one knows. An idea of the solvency of the country may be gathered from the fact that a year or two ago the French bondholders made a proposition for the "readjustment" of the debt, offering to let the principal be cut down some $70,000,000, and to give up all claim to back interest, amounting to $57,000,000 more, in exchange for some substantial security for the rest. The Government has a monopoly of the guano trade, and after providing for some settlement of the debt there would probably not remain enough of surplus to do more than pay official salaries. The danger of having to assume this debt is probably to Chili an argument against hastily absorbing Peru quite as potent as any that could be suggested; but the interest of the United States in the matter is obviously merely one of a spectator friendly to both parties, having no important material stake in their quarrel, and only desirous that peace should be restored on a fair basis. This, we believe, is the feeling of ninety-nine Americans out of a hundred on the subject, where, indeed, they have any stronger feeling than curiosity to know on what principle of law or diplomacy Mr. Hurlbut is carrying on his operations.

The news that Admiral Montero of Peru has accepted the office of Vice-President under President Calderon has as yet attracted but little attention in this country, because of course we all knew it must turn out so. In our enumeration, last week, of the Governments now operating in Peru, we omitted the Montero Government—not inadvertently, but because we foresaw that there was really nothing left for the Admiral to do but to take a Vice-Presidency, and there was no other Vice-Presidency to take except that under Calderon. The Government carried on by the Chilian admiral, Don Patricio Lynch, presents no openings to Peruvians. And besides that, the Lynch establishment being entirely military, there is no need of a Vice-President at all. Mr. Hurlbut's Government, being avowedly based on the model of our own, ought to have a Vice-President and a Cabinet, as well as the usual division of functions between the executive, legislative, and judicial departments, each distinct and independent within its own sphere. But Mr. Hurlbut has had little time to organize his Government properly, and there is apparently no Vice-Presidency under him.

Less than $150,000 in foreign specie arrived during the week, and the receipts since the first day of August are only $22,981,000, against $47,432,800 in the corresponding time a year ago. The rates for foreign exchange were also advanced during the week, the decline in the prices of breadstuffs and provisions not having been sufficient to stimulate exports of these commodities and thereby increase the supply of commercial bills. There appears yet to be a fairly good demand in Europe for American securities, and the amount going abroad considerably exceeds that returning. Undoubtedly the country at large is prosperous; the Clearing-House returns show an enormous volume of business, as do also the traffic returns of the railroads. The trunk-line railroads are advancing rates, each for itself; the result is an important increase in receipts, which will do something to offset the unprofitable through-business of the summer and the large increase in operating expenses. At the Stock Exchange it was a dull week, and the business was chiefly in what are called "pocket specialties"—that is, in stocks which are controlled by one or a few individuals, and the price of which can be marked up or down at will. United States bonds were in demand, and prices advanced ⅛@⅜. On Monday Judge Folger assumed the duties of Secretary of the Treasury, and it is expected that he will make the same disposition of surplus revenues that his predecessor has done—that is, that he will buy 3½ per cent. bonds.

Secretary Hunt said in Boston the other day that "the navy was inseparable from the mercantile marine." In our own case this is unfortunately too true: they are inseparable; our navy and our mercantile marine have disappeared together. The argument for a strong force of armed vessels, that they are needed to protect our merchantmen on the ocean, loses its weight when we remember that we have very few ocean-going ships to protect. It used to be truly said that the mercantile marine was the nursery of the navy. That our naval children have become feeble and sickly or have died, may be largely ascribed to the fact that the nursery no longer exists. The best way to restore the navy would be to restore our merchant shipping. If Congress would adopt measures to this end—by passing laws allowing American merchants to buy and own ships instead of prohibiting their doing so—more good would be accomplished than by spending an indefinite number of millions of dollars in building a fleet of cruisers. It is not pretended that these would protect our harbors. If it is said that they would protect our foreign commerce, the obvious question occurs, Where is the foreign commerce?

It is curious to see how little interest some of our esteemed contemporaries take in the trial of West Point and Colonel Shafter, which is now in progress down in Texas in the Flipper matter. When one contrasts this apathy with the trial of West Point in the Whittaker case it becomes inexplicable. Flipper's charge against West Point and his commanding officer is almost the same as Whittaker's, and the defendants are trying to meet it in precisely the same way—that is, by making the most shameful accusations against a poor colored boy. Whittaker had the uproarious support of some of our most esteemed contemporaries, and the services of one of the most stentorian lawyers in the world at Government expense, while Flipper is left to push his case himself, and, as far as we can see, has no newspaper backing but that of the *Evening Post* and the colored *Globe* of this city. There is something very mysterious in this silence. So is there also in the long delay in promulgating the finding of the court-martial in the Whittaker case. It was sent in six months ago, and nothing is heard of it. If West Point has been found guilty, the world ought to know of it. If it has been acquitted, Whittaker ought to have his pay stopped and be released from the United States service for some larger field of usefulness.

M. Gambetta's Ministry which has now been announced, appears to have produced general disappointment. There was a not unnatural expectation that a great man would surround himself with great men, and that the result would be a great Cabinet; and in such cases, no one troubles himself to inquire where so many great men are to be found. Now that the names are published, they are seen to be those of second-rate men, and there is much surprise. But as French politics go and have long gone, it was useless to expect from Gambetta a ministry of "all the talents." He is too strong a personality to be surrounded with eminently able men anywhere, and above all in a country in which free institutions are only ten years old. Gambetta came out of the war with his reputation made, and was the only man of note on the Republican side, except M. Thiers, of whom that could be said. All the others were either damaged by it or disappeared in it. It must be said, too, of Gambetta, as it is said of Gladstone, that he is not the man to train up successors or possible rivals. Nor is France a country in which great men appear in batches or groups. One great man at a time is the rule and tradition of French politics, and Gambetta shows no mawkishness in recognizing the fact. But even if he were anxious to surround himself with notabilities, he could not find the means of doing so. There is something almost naïf in the recognition of his own position which Gambetta makes in giving seats to two editors of his own paper, the *République Française*.

The only "illustration," to use the French term, in the Cabinet, apart from Gambetta himself, is M. Paul Bert, the well-known physiologist, but he can hardly be considered a source of strength. Outside his science, in which he has made himself odious to many as a vivisector, he is best known as a passionate hater of the Catholic clergy and, indeed, it may be said, for that matter, of the Christian religion itself. Some of the wildest scenes in the Assembly in the old days of the Monarchists were caused by his attacks on clerical teaching, which he supported by extracts from clerical schoolbooks, the folly and indecency of which at first seemed incredible. If he stopped here, this might pass. But he is also a passionate advocate of pure and undiluted secularism in teaching. The world he lives in and the worlds he can see are the only worlds about which he would have a child know or care. To put such a man in the Ministry of Public Instruction in a country in which the Minister is so powerful as in France, is the strongest form of defiance to the religious portion of the community on which any public man has, since the Revolution, ventured in any European state. It would, five years ago, have been pronounced madness by most foreign observers. But foreign observers were so egregiously mistaken about the effect of the execution of the decrees against the unauthorized religious orders, that it is not unlikely that they would be mistaken in thinking that the only portion of the French public about which a French politician need care was not prepared for this, too.

M. Gambetta has produced his programme in the Chamber, but it is not very much of a programme after all, for it is, he says, simply what France herself has demanded, "a Constitution and a united government, exempt from all the paltry conditions imposed by dissension and weakness." In addition to this, however, he announced in somewhat obscure terms an attempt to revise the Senate in the Democratic sense, a reduction of the army and navy, a diminution of the taxes on land and the general stimulation of industry. The late Ministry was, however, in favor of all these things except the revision of the Senate. In fact, it made public improvements and the stimulation of industry its great hobby. The truth is that M Gambetta is his own programme. He has come into office not because he has something new to propose, but because he is Gambetta. What he now announces, therefore, excites comparatively little attention. It was, however, triumphant over Clémenceau and the Extreme Left in a first passage at arms.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

ELECTIONS were held in eleven States on Tuesday, the 8th. The officers voted for in the respective States were as follows: Colorado, judicial and county officers, with a vote as to the location of the State Capital; Maryland, a State Comptroller, half the Senate, and a full House of Delegates; Massachusetts, a Governor, all the other State officers, and the Legislature; Minnesota, a Governor and other State officers; Mississippi, a Governor, other State officers, and Legislature; Nebraska, a Judge of the Supreme Court and regents of the State University; New Jersey, part of the Senate and a full House of Representatives; New York, six State officers, a full Legislature, and four members of Congress; Pennsylvania, a State Treasurer and county officers; Virginia, a Governor, other State officers, and a full Legislature; Wisconsin, a Governor, other State officers, half the Senate, and a full House of Representatives.

The elections passed off quietly in all the States except Mississippi, where there was a serious riot in a place called Marion, resulting in the death of several persons. In this instance, contrary to the usual state of things in the South, the negroes seem to have been the aggressors. There was comparatively little interest shown in the elections, and a light vote was polled. The Republican and Readjuster coalition party carried Virginia, electing Cameron Governor. The Republicans carried New York and Pennsylvania. Wolfe, the independent candidate for State Treasurer in Pennsylvania, polled about 50,000 votes, showing the growth of the independent vote in that State. A feature of the election in Wisconsin was the great increase in the temperance vote. The Prohibitionists are said to have drawn twelve or fifteen thousand votes from the Republicans. In summing up it may be said that the leading feature of the elections was the increase in the independent vote, and the disposition shown to go outside of party lines, especially in the election of candidates for local offices. This latter point was well illustrated in the cities of New York and Brooklyn. In the latter city Mr. Low, the Independent Republican candidate for Mayor, was elected in spite of strenuous efforts on the part of the Machine to defeat him.

Mr. Scoville, Guiteau's counsel, has outlined the course which he intends to take in the trial which is now in progress. He says that he intends to follow the prisoner's life from the time his mental weakness was first discovered up to the day of the shooting, and will show that for years his mind has been unbalanced, and that he has been unquestionably insane on certain points. He says that, as is the case with monomaniacs, Guiteau at times was perfectly rational; but that again he would become morose, and show unmistakable evidence of being mentally weak. It is said to be Mr. Scoville's intention to bring up the political situation at the time of the shooting, and to show that it had its influence upon the mind of his client.

Guiteau's trial began on Monday. Messrs. Scoville and Robinson represented the assassin. Mr. Robinson opened the case by making a speech requesting that the trial might be postponed for five days. Mr. Scoville, however, objected and said that he did not wish to have it postponed. Guiteau himself also jumped up in an excited manner and objected to the postponement. The disagreement of the counsel upon this point put Judge Cox in somewhat of a dilemma. He decided that the wishes of the prisoner and his immediate representative, Mr. Scoville, should be regarded, and ordered the trial to proceed. Guiteau acted in an excited manner while in court, attempting several times to speak and to read a paper which he had prepared. He said that he was a lawyer himself and wished to conduct his own trial, and did not need any counsel except for "technicalities." Five jurors were qualified on Monday. The paper which Guiteau attempted to read was a long, rambling account of his life and of his family. He appeals to the "liberal and Stalwart press of the nation for justice," and reiterates his statement that he was impelled by the "Deity" to "remove the late President."

On Thursday Judge Cox rendered his decision upon the legality of the method of proceeding by information in the Star-route cases. He decided that the offences charged were "infamous" in the legal and technical meaning of the word, and since, under the Constitution, proceedings cannot be begun by information where crimes of an infamous nature are charged, the prosecution was debarred from proceeding in this manner.

After Judge Cox had delivered his decision Mr. Cooke made a statement in behalf of the Government. He said that the adjournment of the Grand Jury by District Attorney Corkhill had been a great surprise to the Attorney-General and himself; that they had received no notice of it, and that it was an "unusual and extraordinary" proceeding. In answer to the assertion that the Grand Jury could have been reconvened, Mr. Cooke said that no intimation that such was the case had been conveyed to him until Mr. Corkhill made his apologies in court the other day, and that information had been resorted to in the hope of saving the case. There has been much criticism of District Attorney Corkhill's course since Mr. Cooke made his statement, some people believing that he has "deliberately betrayed" the Government.

Judge Cox's decision will not interfere with the prosecution. Cases are now being prepared for the Grand Jury, and three will be presented during the present session, but the larger number will be held for the next Grand Jury, which will be impanelled about the 1st of January.

Mr. Windom has entirely completed his funding operations. The total of the bonds continued at 3½ per cent. is $579,560,050. Mr. Windom shows that his method has resulted in a much greater saving to the Government than would have been effected by the refunding measures proposed by the last Congress.

President Arthur has finally accepted Attorney-General MacVeagh's resignation. Solicitor-General Phillips will be the acting Attorney-General until a new appointment is made. On Monday the oath of office was administered to Judge Folger, and he formally took possession of his office as Secretary of the Treasury.

The Department of Agriculture at Washington has issued a report showing the condition of the cotton, wheat, and corn crops on November 1. The returns from the ten principal cotton-growing States give an indicated yield per acre considerably less than last year. There is a decrease from last year's wheat crop of about one hundred million bushels. The quality of the crop is, however, reported to be good. There is also a decrease of about twenty-five per cent. in the corn crop. The principal cause of the falling off in these crops is said to be the prolonged droughts, followed by excessive rains.

Mr. Nimmo, Chief of the Bureau of Statistics, has published his report, in which he discusses the "railroad problem." He finds that there has been considerable reduction in the cost of transportation on the railroads of the country. He concludes by saying that there are two vitally important questions confronting public attention: first, whether there are evils connected with the railroad system of the United States which injuriously affect the public interest, and whether they are of sufficient magnitude to demand governmental interference; and second, by what means can such interference be exercised without putting upon the Government too great a responsibility and great difficulties of an administrative nature? To the first of these questions we should judge from Mr. Nimmo's report that he was inclined to answer yes. He recommends a thorough investigation of the whole question by a committee of experts who are competent to pass upon the bearings of the transportation question in its relation to the agricultural and other interests of the country, and upon the economic and practical questions connected with the actual traffic interests of the railroads.

Health Officer Townsend, of the District of Columbia, has submitted his annual report upon the operations of the Health Department for the year ending June 30. He says that the prominence and sensational coloring given to everything coming from the national capital during the recent exciting period gave undue prominence to the question of Washington malaria, and did gross injustice to the healthfulness of the climate. He publishes a comparative statement showing that Washington stood fifth in the annual death rate of the cities of the United States from zymotic diseases during the period when so much criticism was advanced about Washington malaria.

The annual report of Surgeon-General Barnes shows that among the white troops the total number of cases of all kinds reported on the sick list during the year was, white, 37,408, being at the rate of 1,768 per 1,000 of mean strength; and colored, 4,650, or 1,984 per 1,000 of mean strength. The total number of deaths from all causes was, white, 197, or 9 per 1,000 of mean strength, and colored, 48, or 20 per 1,000. The Surgeon-General invites attention to the need of a new fire-proof building for the Army Medical Museum and Library.

It is thought that the Mormon problem will be discussed in the House of Representatives very soon after the meeting of Congress. There are two contesting delegates from Utah: one, Mr. Cannon, holds the certificate of the Secretary of State; the other, Mr. Campbell, holds that of the Governor. Cannon is a polygamist. It is thought that the admission of Cannon to a seat will be objected to, and that this will bring on the discussion.

The National Civil-Service Reform League intend sending a deputation to wait upon President Arthur soon after the assembling of Congress. The Central Committee of the League, as now constituted, will be the nucleus of the deputation, which will be increased by delegates from the important Civil-Service Reform associations throughout the country. The design is not only to represent to the President the views of the associations on the subject of the reform, but particularly to impress the public with its nature and great importance.

It is said that bills amounting to three hundred thousand dollars have been received at the Treasury Department for mourning decorations on the public buildings throughout the country in memory of the President. In each case a reply has been sent that the matter will have to be laid before Congress, as there is no appropriation out of which such expenses can be paid.

Colonel Corbin, master of ceremonies at the Yorktown celebration, has stated that the total expenses will probably be found to have been not more than $40,000, and that Congress will not be asked for a deficiency appropriation of more than ten or twelve thousand dollars.

The Hon. Lionel Sackville-West called on President Arthur on Monday, and presented his credentials. The customary congratulatory addresses were made.

The Atlanta Exposition is said to be at last complete. There are nearly two thousand exhibits, filling four large buildings and several smaller ones. The attendance has been greatly increased by the reduction of the fares on the various railroads leading to Atlanta. It is thought that the Exposition will not be closed on January 1, as was originally intended, but will be continued at least to the first of February.

Deputy Attorney-General Gilbert and Insurance Commissioner Foster, of Pennsylvania, appeared in court at Harrisburg on Monday, and applied for writs of quo warranto against a number of mutual-insurance (popularly known as "graveyard" insurance) companies that had not complied with the terms of their charters. This step, which is the first that has been taken in Pennsylvania to break up these nefarious concerns, has caused much alarm among the large number of these companies in the State of Pennsylvania.

A curious attempt at blackmail was brought to light in New York on Monday. A man by the name of J. Howard Welles, who has "high social connections," has for some time past been writing anonymous letters to Mr. Jay Gould, the well-known railway operator, threatening him with death unless he would give him "points on stocks." The matter was put into the hands of the police, and Welles was lured on until he was finally discovered and arrested on Sunday.

The Canadian yacht *Atalanta*, which was sent down here to contest for the *America's* Cup, was badly defeated in two races on Wednesday and Thursday by yachts belonging to the New York Yacht Club.

Mme. Adelina Patti, the celebrated singer, is giving concerts in New York. She last appeared here in 1859.

FOREIGN.

M. Gambetta announced his new Cabinet on Monday. It is composed as follows: Gambetta, President of the Council and Minister of Foreign Affairs; Cazot, Minister of Justice; Waldeck-Rousseau, Minister of the Interior; Paul Bert, Minister of Public Instruction; Rouvier, Minister of Commerce; Cochery, Minister of Posts and Telegraphs; Allain-Targé, Minister of Finance; Compenon, Minister of War; Gougeard, Minister of Marine; Proust, Minister of Fine Arts; Devès, Minister of Agriculture; Raynal, Minister of Works. The declaration of policy made by M. Gambetta at the opening of the Chamber of Deputies on Tuesday contains pacific assurances in regard to the foreign policy, declares the necessity of revising the mode of electing senators, and advocates the introduction of the *scrutin de liste*. The Cabinet does not seem to have been received with very great favor in France, most of the men being not very well known. The London *Times* says that the new Ministry "is not so much a Ministry of Gambetta as it is Gambetta himself."

The debate on Tunisian affairs was continued in the French Chamber of Deputies on Wednesday. Premier Ferry replied to the attacks on the Government. Shortly after M. Ferry's speech, a royalist deputy proposed, "in terms insulting to the Republic," a vote of censure on the Ministry, which caused a "tremendous uproar." On Thursday M. Ferry and his colleagues sent their resignations to President Grévy, who accepted them and called M. Gambetta to form a cabinet.

In the French Chamber of Deputies on Friday, General Farre, the retiring Minister of War, presented a bill for a supplementary vote of 28,000,000 francs for the Tunis and Oran expeditions.

General Logerot has started from Kairwan on his march to Gabes. It is said that he strongly objected to undertaking the expedition, and only prepared to start on receiving stringent orders from Paris. The route lies through a difficult and mountainous country, where operations will be almost impossible after the rains which have already begun. The expedition is said to be unpopular to the last degree among all ranks, and is openly denounced as a waste of lives. Fever and dysentery continue among the French troops.

Señor Moret, who recently went over to the Government, delivered a speech in the Spanish Cortes on Thursday, in which he announced that he would support the Government as long as a liberal policy was pursued. This announcement was received with great applause, and Premier Sagasta, in replying, welcomed the adhesion of Señor Moret and his party to the present régime, and said that the Cabinet was perfectly united on home and foreign questions.

In the Spanish Chamber of Deputies on Monday Señor Castelar made a speech attacking the Ultramontane Deputies as defenders of the temporal power of the Pope. He urged the Liberal Government of Spain to assist Italy in upholding the separation of the temporal from the spiritual power. He approved the recent circular of the Minister of Public Instruction authorizing the appointment of free-thinkers to professional chairs in the universities. He also declared that he would never vary in his devotion to republicanism, no matter how progressive in its policy, or how liberal in spirit a government established on other principles might be. He contrasted the spectacle of the French republic, growing ever stronger, with the monarchy of Portugal, threatened more and more by a revolutionary crisis. Señor Castelar's utterances are interesting as a contrast to the action of Señor Moret.

There has been a Cabinet crisis in Portugal. It is said to have been caused by some proposals made in council by the Ministers of War and Finance. Senhor de Mello is forming a new Ministry.

The Austrian Reichsrath reassembled on Monday. In the lower house the Minister of Justice presented a new Penal Code Bill. The Finance Minister submitted the budget for 1882, showing a deficit of 37,809,535 florins. 15,500,000 florins of this deficit is accounted for by the redemption of Treasury bonds and the construction of the Arlberg Railway.

The slight troubles between Austria and Italy, which grew out of Austrian comments upon the recent visit of King Humbert to Vienna, seem to have been smoothed over. The Italian Ambassador to Austria has withdrawn his request for his recall, which he had sent to his Government.

All the rivers in upper Albania are reported to have overflowed their banks, and large tracts of land are inundated. At Scutari the Bazaar even has been flooded, and several lives lost.

It is stated on good authority that Prince Bismarck intends to resign, owing to his defeat in the recent elections. It is also stated that the Emperor has, as yet, refused to consider his resignation, in hopes that some arrangement may be made by which the Ultramontanes can be persuaded to support Prince Bismarck in the German Parliament without asking for a repeal of the anti-Catholic laws. Bismarck, however, refuses to propose any such arrangement.

An imperial order has been issued in Russia appointing a special commission, under the Presidency of M. Koshanoff, a member of the Council of the Empire, for the purpose of reorganizing the system of provincial administration. The proposals contained in the order are regarded as foreshadowing important changes in the direction of local self-government, especially in the way of facilitating peasant representation in all provincial district councils.

It is semi-officially announced that the Russian Government will shortly grant a general amnesty to persons convicted of press offences.

Diphtheria, scarlet fever, and smallpox are devastating the centre and south of Russia. The severity of the diseases exceeds anything before known.

The Government of Egypt has sent a letter from the Khedive to the Porte thanking him for having sent the mission to Egypt, the effect of which has been to strengthen the relations between Egypt and Turkey.

The large reduction in rents made by the sub-commissioners under the Land Act have called out many remonstrances from the landlords, and it is thought that if such sweeping reductions continue, the landlords will unite and endeavor to hold the Ministry to the pledges for compensation which were given in the debate on the Land Bill.

The Marquis of Salisbury, in speaking at a Conservative banquet on Saturday, laid great stress upon the right of the Irish landlords to compensation. He said that the sub-commissioners had acted rather as executive agents of the Government than as judicial arbitrators. He also expressed strong distrust of the proposition, which was alluded to by Mr. Gladstone at the banquet on the Lord Mayor's day, to alter the rules of debate in the House of Commons. Lord Salisbury said that the change would render minorities powerless.

The Dublin correspondent of the London *Times* states that the experience of extensive land agents is that rents are being paid in Sligo, Roscommon, parts of Galway, Limerick, Queens County, and Kilkenny; but that in Wexford, Clare, Kerry, parts of Cork and other counties there is a general determination not to pay.

A conspicuous feature of the procession in celebration of the Lord Mayor's day, which took place in London on Wednesday last, was the American flag, which was preceded by a band playing the "Star Spangled Banner." This innovation was received with great enthusiasm by the crowds which thronged the streets.

Mr. Thomas Brassey, speaking at a banquet at Bristol on Saturday, said that the cordial relations between Great Britain and the United States formed a welcome addition to Great Britain's naval strength. He said that it was not the policy of the United States to maintain a considerable navy in time of peace, but that they were Great Britain's most formidable rivals on the sea. He added that the good feeling between the two countries had been cemented for ever by what had happened lately.

Mr. Daniel Grant, Liberal member of Parliament for Marylebone, in speaking on the land question at a large meeting in London on Wednesday, declared, "amid much cheering," that the growing thought in England was toward republicanism.

Messrs. Moody and Sankey, the American revivalists, have been preaching to immense audiences in the neighborhood of Newcastle, England. They will hold meetings in Durham this week.

Sir Patrick MacDougal has been sworn in as administrator of the Canadian Government during the absence of the Marquis of Lorne, who has gone to England.

M. Legru, President of the French Crédit-Mobilier, has arrived in Montreal. He says that a capital of $12,000,000 has been subscribed in France for investment in public and private enterprises in Canada. The head office of the company will be in Montreal.

The Legislative Assembly of New South Wales has expelled the Hon. C. A. Baker, late Minister of Mines, in consequence of the report of the committee upon charges against him in connection with the disposal of the compensation awarded to the Melbourne Mining Company.

The Mikado of Japan has issued a proclamation giving notice of the establishment in 1890 of a constitution, with a Representative Assembly. The troubles in the silk trade still continue. The American and European merchants appealed to Mr. Bingham, United States Minister, and Dean of the Diplomatic Corps, to interfere in the matter, but he declined. It is thought that the silk combination will break down for want of funds before long, and that then some compromise will be made.

TUESDAY, November 15, 1881.

THE ADMINISTRATION AND THE NEW YORK ELECTIONS.

The results of the elections in the State of New York are undoubtedly of some interest to President Arthur in forming his plans of administration. He does not belong to that class of public men to whom organized party support would be a matter of secondary importance. On the contrary, he is likely to regard the cohesion and success of his party as a thing of the very first consequence, especially since from the managing leadership of a local division of it he has, as partisans understand it, been made the official head of the whole. It was therefore confidently predicted several weeks ago that President Arthur, although his particular friends had suffered defeat in the Republican State Convention, would not only not employ any influence unfavorable to the candidates nominated by that Convention, but would sincerely desire the triumph of his party in his own State, in whatever shape the party might achieve it. There is no doubt that President Arthur did desire the triumph of his party, although his wishes for the success of some of its candidates may have been more ardent than for that of others. Now it turns out that the Republican party has triumphed, at least in so far as it secured, under not altogether favorable circumstances, a majority of votes for those of its candidates (with the exception of one) who were presented to the suffrages of the whole people of the State. But it turns out also that, while President Arthur's party has triumphed, that faction in the party with which he was most intimately identified has in the same election been overwhelmingly defeated.

There was an appearance of harmonious action in the support of the candidates for State offices. But the Republican managers cannot conceal from themselves the fact that in the elections for the Legislature Stalwarts and anti-Stalwarts "knifed" each other without mercy. Hence the singular result that, in a State where the legislative apportionment is rather favorable to the Republicans, the party obtained a majority of the general vote, but lost the Legislature. It is evident that, while the animosities of factions were strong enough to bring about this result, the result in its turn will be calculated further to inflame those animosities. In spite of the success of the State ticket, the family broil in the Republican party is therefore rather worse now than it was before the election. The Stalwart faction has, as far as its official representation is concerned, been reduced to a feeble minority; but it may be strong enough to wipe out at future elections, by merely staying away from the polls, the small majority by which the Republicans hold the State offices.

There is evidently a great field for the reconciler, nor will his task be a simple one. The antagonisms in the Republican party of this State seem to have an element of vitriol in them which is not likely to yield to smooth words and bland smiles merely. But what is to be done? To the school of politicians with which President Arthur was formerly identified an alternative of two methods of reconciliation would suggest itself at once: either to make one of the factions, by the exclusive bestowal of the patronage upon it, so strong that it might entirely subjugate the other, or to divide the patronage between the two, thus trying to satisfy them both. The first method would hardly appear practicable in this case, except to those determined to rule or ruin. President Arthur's sympathies are undoubtedly on the Stalwart side. But it is evident that the anti-Stalwarts have an overwhelming majority in the Republican party. To try by means of the patronage to subjugate a large majority to a dwindling minority, is a task which a President having the least regard for the existence of the party, as well as for his own personal ease and comfort, would scarcely undertake. It would unquestionably result in still fiercer animosities and perhaps a final disruption of the organization.

The other method, a division of the spoils between the factions with a view to satisfying them both, has been so recently tried and has led to such deplorable consequences that the confidence even of the professional manager in its efficacy may well have been shaken. To reconcile by a distribution of favors differences between two men, each of whom will regard a favor bestowed upon the other as an injustice and an affront to himself, is well-nigh hopeless. Admitting that some individuals may be reached by the patronage, it is certain that a large majority cannot be so reached, but will rather be offended by any "dickering" in offices. The schism in this State is past surgery by this sort of hackneyed expedients. It will yield only to a third method, which the old school of politicians will usually think of last if ever. It is, not to use the offices for political purposes at all, but to treat them as what they were originally intended to be—places of public trust, work, and responsibility, which have nothing to do with party politics; when they are so treated the factions in the Republican party will cease to be jealous of one another, for neither will have the advantage. And, further, to inspire the party with a renewed interest in great public objects, which will withdraw the minds of its members from little personal quarrels and bickerings, and make selfish ambitions and jealousies appear in their real smallness. The municipal campaign in Brooklyn has shown once more what the party is capable of when it aims at higher things than the mere possession of offices. Unless this remedy be applied, this year's apparent success of the Republican party will prove of little advantage to it.

MORE ABOUT THE CAUCUS.

The volunteers of the Eleventh Congressional district in this city are so much elated by their recent victory over the local boss and his "district association," that they are eager to form some kind of organization which will enable them to do the same thing again. This is by no means the first time that similar successes have led to similar desires and resolves, which have in the end come to nothing. As long as the district associations, as now organized and conducted in this city, are alone recognized by the State and County conventions, the volunteers will hardly be able to play any more important rôle in the nominating system than that of critics or objectors, or, in other words, exercise any power but the veto power. What they need, to exert a continuous influence for good, is participation in making the nominations; and this they cannot have without obtaining recognition from the superior bodies of the nominating system—that is, the upper conventions. There is not much chance of their getting this at present, because conventions have to recognize "the regulars"—that is, the organizations composed of those who make politics the leading business of their lives, and work at it day in and day out. As long as human nature is what it is, a worker like Mr. George Bliss, with all his frailties and imperfections, must find more favor in the eyes of those who manage parties than volunteers who take up arms only occasionally. It is on him and the like of him the party has to depend for the regular, steady monthly and yearly working of the Machine. He has all the advantage, in their eyes, over a reformer, which a man who enlists for five years has, in a general's eyes, over the man who enlists for six months and has to go home in the summer and fall to save his crops.

Moreover, State conventions, being mainly composed of men from the country, are slow to perceive the difficulties with which people who are striving after pure politics have to contend with in the cities in the matter of caucuses. The former, like Mr. Adin Thayer, of Massachusetts, whose pamphlet on the caucus we noticed last week, are only familiar with the caucus as a meeting of friends and neighbors to consider which of their own number they had best send to the Legislature or Congress this year. Of the caucus as a mob, managed by Jakes, Mikes, Barneys, Sols, and Guses, in which an upright and well-meaning man is a ridiculous object, whose efforts simply furnish "the boys" with fun, they know nothing. Nor do they know anything about caucuses, like that of the Eleventh district, managed as close corporations, to which admission can only be obtained by ballot, and which it is the natural object of those who are already within to keep as small as possible. All these things are strange and a little incredible to them. Mr. Thayer wrote his pamphlet apparently without ever having heard of them.

It is this ignorance and incredulity on the part of country politicians of their own party, which is now the great difficulty in the way of perpetuating such organizations as did justice the other day on Bliss and his pupils in the Eleventh district. We do not mention it for the purpose of discouragement, but simply as a piece of elucidation. It is not a reason for stopping work, but for working in a somewhat different direction. The question, in what direction, has been much discussed of late, probably nowhere more effectively than in a series of letters by Mr. Larned, a Buffalo editor and practical politician, who knows all about city caucuses, and is therefore worth listening to. He agrees, as every one must agree, with Mr. George Bliss, that in cities and all large centres of population there must be some process of [sifting those who ask to be allowed

to participate in making the party nominations; that is, there must be some means of discovering whether a man's connection with the party is such as to entitle him to participate. The Republican associations in this city refuse to accept previous support of the party as a sufficient test. They exact also a promise, which no intelligent moral being ought to make, to support future nominations; and they frequently refuse to admit persons on any test at all. Mr. Larned's remedy is to surround the nominating process with the same legal checks and guarantees as now surround the electing process; that is, there should be an election day for party nominations under precisely the same conditions as the election day for the final choice. The one serious objection to this, beyond the expense and trouble, which ought to be no objection at all, is that members of the opposite party would come in and help to nominate the other party's candidates. But the answer to this is that as nobody could vote twice without going to jail, a vote cast on the Republican nominations would be lost on the Democratic nominations, and therefore, as a general rule, and for all practical purposes, men would vote on the nomination in which they were interested, and which most interested their friends and fellows.

If this system, the mere outline of which we have here given, were in operation, the power of the bosses would cease, and the simple physical terror or dislike which now keeps "the wealth and intelligence" of the city away from primary meetings would cease too. At most city caucuses, an objector or critic of the programme has to be a big, powerful man, not afraid of fisticuffs, if need be, and not sensitive to ridicule or abuse, because the law is not behind him. Put the law, the police, and the courts behind him, and the puniest man becomes a lion, as we see at the regular elections. Until some such change is made—we do not endorse this one in all its details—the reform element must content itself with watching, and in serious cases with organizing opposition *à outrance* to bad nominations. But the goal of their striving ought to be the surrounding of the caucus with the guarantees which make the casting of his vote at a regular election as easy and simple a process for the respectable citizen as dropping a letter in the street box. What would be the effect on the vote of this city of giving up the polling-places to "workers," of both parties, whose proceedings would be outside the law or uncontrolled by the law? Would it not cut it down by one-half, or two-thirds? Would it not soon make elections a farce?

MONEY AT ELECTIONS.

We hear from Republican newspapers, after almost every election in which the contest has been close, of the shameful use of money by the Democrats. The *Tribune* of Thursday, in magnifying the success achieved by the Republicans in the State election, says it was achieved "in spite of the utmost efforts of the astute managers of the Democratic canvass, and in spite of the expenditure of almost unlimited sums" of money by them. Other good party papers tell the same story, and they tell it every year. If the Democrats win, they win through lavish outlay of money; if they are beaten, they are beaten in spite of the lavish outlay of money. It is a fact, too, that all over the Union, except in two or three States, such as Massachusetts, Michigan, and Iowa, the Democrats press the Republicans hard. They maintain their organization; they poll in most of the Northern States a vote nearly equal to that of the Republicans, and at the last two Presidential elections have come very near victory. This cannot be done without very heavy legitimate outlay, to say nothing of the illegitimate.

Now, how is this money procured? How has it been procured during the last twenty-one years? Certainly not by assessments on officeholders. The Democrats have no officeholders to levy on except in a few Northern cities, and it is only in New York that these are numerous enough and well-paid enough to contribute anything but a trifle to the campaign funds. What they can get from their officeholders in the smaller country towns is not worth mention. It must be remembered, too, apropos of this, that the most brilliant and hard-fought campaign ever made in the United States was that of the Republicans in 1860, which resulted in the election of Lincoln, when they had not a single Federal officeholder in any part of the Union to aid them with part of his little salary.

Now, if it be true that the Democrats are able to command money for political purposes in this way, as it is certainly true that in 1860 the Republicans had no Federal officeholders to levy upon, what becomes of the Republican argument in defence of assessments, that they are necessary for the conduct of Republican canvasses; that if the officeholders did not contribute, there would be no money in the campaign chest, and that odious as is this fleecing of one very poor class of the community for purposes which concern them no more than their neighbors, it cannot be safely dispensed with? Is it not ridiculous as well as absurd, in view of "the almost unlimited expenditure of money" by Democratic managers, to pretend that the Republicans cannot get along without extorting by intimidation small sums from poor men, which not one in a hundred can afford to pay without embarrassment or privation? Does not "unlimited expenditure" make the Hugh Gardner raid at the Astor House and the circular of the State Committee very humiliating as well as useless performances? If it were true that Republicans out of office would not contribute voluntarily the sums necessary for the defence of their principles at the polls, would it not show that public spirit had fallen so low among them that it was time they made way for men whose interest in politics is stronger?

The truth is, however, that probably twice as much money could be obtained from the Republicans for electioneering purposes as from the Democrats, if it was sought by the proper persons and under proper conditions. Republicans who can afford to contribute have, however, rarely so high an opinion of the managers as to give them large sums to be expended at their discretion. Republican merchants and bankers and professional men who have money to spend for politics think they can make better use of it than to give it to the Gardners and Dorseys, who are usually selected to display "executive ability" about election time. The Gardners and Dorseys, it must be added, like better to "squeeze" the clerks and letter-carriers than to state their case to independent men of business. If Republican committees openly repudiated all attempts to extort money from officeholders, as wrong in principle and baneful in practice, they would have no more difficulty in obtaining money from those who can afford to contribute it, than they had in 1860.

Of all the cries by which assessments on officeholders are defended, there is probably none so baseless and preposterous as the cry that this is the only way money for party purposes can be obtained. The truth is, and it is now a notorious truth, that the greatest danger to which all free countries are now exposed, arises from the facility with which money for electoral campaigns can be obtained. The growth of wealth has produced a very large class, formerly unknown, which has the habit of giving lavishly to all sorts of things, and which gives more lavishly to election funds than to most other things, because it enjoys the excitement of political contests. In England and France what is puzzling reformers to-day is not how to get money for campaigns, but how to prevent heavy expenditure at elections by rival party managers. The money, too, only comes in a small part from candidates themselves; it comes from rich men who want to see their own side win, and it comes most freely under systems like the English, in which the elections do not disturb the repose of a single small officeholder. It may be said, and is said here, that the Democrats contribute with the expectation of getting office if they win. But then if the offices they expect to get do not promise more on the average than $1,500 or $2,000 a year each, men who are anxiously and eagerly seeking "plums" of this sort cannot possibly contribute the amounts necessary for "unlimited expenditure." They are usually readier to borrow five dollars than to give it for any purpose.

In fact, the Republican persistence in the assessment abuse in the teeth of the obloquy it brings upon them, and of the numerous proofs of its needlessness which meet their eyes in every direction, is a striking illustration of the love of ruts which long possession of power generates.

SHALL THE NATIONAL DEBT BE PERPETUAL?

Our readers are aware that an attack is being organized upon the whole internal-revenue system, including the taxes on whiskey, beer, and tobacco. The movement is in the interest of the classes who are enjoying the benefits of a high protective tariff. These people are alarmed at the rapid diminution of the public debt, since its final extinction will lead to the reduction of duties on imports. They would prefer that the national debt should be perpetual, since in that case public attention would not be forced to consider the subject of curtailing the customs revenues. They have advanced a number of queer arguments in fa-

vor of making the debt one of the permanent institutions of the country. One is, that posterity ought to pay a part of the debt; another is, that if the bonds are paid off, the national banks will have no basis for their circulation; another is, that trust estates will go begging for safe investments, and courts will be destitute of adequate security for the funds of litigants; another is, that the public are groaning under the burdens of taxation. They have revived to some extent the notion that a national debt is a national blessing, which Mr. Jay Cooke sought, with indifferent success, to propagate at the close of the war.

By sweeping away the internal-revenue system altogether these persons would well-nigh accomplish the object of making the national debt perpetual. There would still be some surplus revenue, but it would be so small that the present generation and probably the next would continue to pay an interest charge on the money expended twenty years ago in putting down the rebellion. Such a fiscal arrangement means not merely that posterity shall pay a portion of the debt, but that the present generation shall pay it and posterity pay it again and again. To pay a thousand millions at the end of ten years with 3½ per cent. interest would involve taxation not exceeding $1,350,000,000. To pay the same at the end of twenty years would require $1,700,000,000, and at the end of thirty years $2,050,000,000, and so on. This is what the repealers of internal revenue are striving for.

There are certain taxes in the internal-revenue system which might be repealed to advantage. The tax on bank deposits is a tax on the business of the country in gross, being virtually a tax on sales. Deposits are the proceeds—the signs and evidences—of property sold. Consequently the same property may be and is taxed over and over again, according to the number of times it changes hands, and as often as the seller deposits the proceeds of the sale in a bank. The tax on banking capital ought to be repealed, because it tends to discourage the growth of such capital. Generally speaking, banking capital is capital put into a form to be immediately available, and those countries which are most abundantly supplied with it have the advantage of being able to make profits out of the changes constantly going on in the world's traffic—or, in other words, to make hay while the sun shines. The tax on friction matches ought to be repealed because it bears upon the poor more hardly than upon the rich. The tax on proprietary medicines and perfumes ought to be repealed on the ground of being a common nuisance.

Here, in our judgment, the raid upon the internal revenue ought to cease. The stamp tax on bank checks is paid only by the rich or well-to-do classes, and is scarcely felt by them. It is one of the most easily collected of all taxes—one of those which produce the largest yield with the least cost. The tax on distilled spirits ought to be adjusted to the point where it will produce the greatest amount of revenue, and then left undisturbed. It is doubtful whether the present tax of ninety cents per gallon is not too high. The prime cost of whiskey is not above twenty cents per gallon. A tax of ninety cents is equal to 450 per cent., and offers great inducements to illicit distillation. Probably fifty cents per gallon would yield more revenue than ninety. However this may be, it is a tax which should never be relinquished so long as we have a government to support. It is a tax not merely on a luxury, but upon the most depraving of all luxuries. The excise duties on beer and tobacco are also taxes on luxuries and should be kept in force.

The assertion that the people are calling for a reduction of Federal taxes is sheer fabrication. Where are the public meetings, the resolutions, the petitions which usually herald a popular movement and signify the desire of great masses of men for a change in the fiscal policy of the Government? They do not exist. Mr. Wharton Barker and his coadjutors in Pennsylvania are pumping in a dry well. They have not raised a gurgle of popular approbation. We can tell them what the people do want: they desire to have the national debt paid as soon as possible. So far from being shocked at the idea of having it all paid within ten years, they would be better pleased if it could all be paid within five. As the *Bankers' Magazine* pointedly argues, the best time to pay national debts is when the people are in the mood to pay them, for the repudiator and the demagogue always stalk in the background, ready to take advantage of hard times and popular discontent to raise a hue and cry against the bondholder. The argument for continuing the debt based upon the need of bonds to secure bank circulation is shown by the same authority to be frivolous, since Congress can easily prescribe other forms of security. As regards trust funds and estates of suitors which courts commonly require to be invested in United States bonds, it is only necessary to do what was done before the war. We made shift to get on without a national debt once and we can do so again. At all events, it is downright effrontery to ask the taxpayers of the country to make an annual contribution for the mere convenience of any class, whether banks or individuals.

CHILI, PERU, AND THE UNITED STATES.

The reply of Admiral Lynch to the letter of Don Garcia Calderon on the present relations of Peru and Chili deserves attention, especially from that portion of the press which has been urging on our eccentric Minister, Mr. Hurlbut, to prevent Chili from annexing any of the Peruvian territory. What Mr. Hurlbut has done, it will be remembered, is to make a formal announcement that it is a "principle of public right" that a war indemnity should be "agreed upon by the parties or determined by disinterested arbitration," and also to proclaim another "rule," that civilized nations cannot take an enemy's territory as a war indemnity without having previously "proved the incapacity or unwillingness" of the enemy "to meet the indemnity in some other form." Mr. Hurlbut produces these rules as if they were familiar maxims of public law, recognized all over the world, but the fact is that they have no existence. They are not to be found in any book on international law, and no victorious nation in settling the terms of peace has ever admitted their existence or been called upon by other powers to do so. Such warnings, however, coming from our Minister, must seem in South America to be a declaration by the United States, for if they are not, the South Americans would naturally ask, why in the world is Mr. Hurlbut allowed to make them?

There are no two opinions, of course, as to the wisdom and humanity of our original offer of our services as mediator in the South American troubles; but our services not having been accepted, and the war having ended in the defeat of Peru and its occupation by the Chilian army, we have obviously to choose between one of two courses—either to settle the terms of peace ourselves, or to let the victorious country dictate them. To adopt the plan of urging upon Peru the importance of taking a certain course with regard to Chili, after having made one unsuccessful offer of mediation, is to take about the very weakest position in the matter that we can; for the Chilians know now very well that we have no such interests in Peru as will lead us to take overt measures of intervention, and consequently they will regard all Mr. Hurlbut's pronunciamientos as exactly what they are—so much brag and bluster, political weapons of which the South Americans are themselves masters, and of which they thoroughly understand the scope and value.

The immediate dispute between Calderon and Lynch is one in which all the advantage as to facts and sense is on the side of the Chilian admiral. The function of government which Calderon is really anxious to exercise seems to be that of issuing paper money in the name of a country hopelessly bankrupt and in a condition of anarchy. But even if he has any other and better object, his attempt to argue his "Government" into existence with the commanding officer of an invading army who has actually declared martial law as far as his occupation extends, is so puerile that it is difficult to see how any looker-on can be taken in by it. Calderon's "Government" has no physical force of any kind behind it, and Chili has refused to recognize it, and the martial law declared by Lynch has superseded it in the capital of the country where Calderon wishes to carry it on. In order to get over these difficulties Calderon has had to invent a new theory of martial law, which Lynch very justly tells him has no existence except in his own brain. Martial law is simply the will of the commanding general. It supersedes all civil government, so far as he wishes it superseded, and consequently the only way to ascertain whether any civil government is left in existence is to ask him. To argue with him that martial law is not what he says it is, reminds one of the old argument by the lawyer of the unfortunate man who is locked up in jail to the effect that he cannot be put there.

Now, as we have said, we have a very remote interest in the difficulties of Peru. Our trade with her is insignificant; indeed, it has been for some time one of the standing cries of our press that the decay of American shipping had cut us off from the South American trade, and that all South American interests are

in consequence much more closely connected with Europe than with us. It may be said, indeed, without exaggeration, that while the legal ownership of the Peruvian concern is still vested in the Peruvians, the equitable interest by pledges of credit to secure bonds has been transferred to a body of European creditors. It does not seem to be generally known, but it is nevertheless true, that this strong European interest led two or three years ago to the formation of a scheme for the subjection of most of the financial functions of the Peruvian Government to the supervision of representatives of foreign bondholders—a step in the direction of a protectorate which, to any earnest advocate of the Monroe Doctrine, ought to have been far more alarming than the absorption of the whole country by Chili.

For these reasons we are still unwilling to believe that the strange performances of Mr. Hurlbut, by his open interference in the quarrel in the name of the United States, were authorized in any way by the State Department. The State Department would hardly undertake, after having had an offer of mediation between two countries refused, to dictate certain terms of peace as required by international law, leaving the international law to be simply invented by our Minister, while it is perfectly obvious that in the last resort we shall do nothing, but be obliged by the circumstances of the case to let the combatants settle the matter for themselves.

The strangest part of the whole matter is that there is supposed to be something intensely "American" in all these queer transactions, and Mr. Hurlbut is loudly applauded by a certain portion of the press for his vigor in Peru. But it is difficult to see why it should be considered especially "American" to place the United States either in an untenable or humiliating or irrational position. Vigor that leads to no practical result but talk, is generally mistaken by spectators for qualities which reflect credit on no one. If pronunciamientos like Hurlbut's in South America were backed up by force, if we were to tell Chili in so many words that we and not the Chilians must settle the terms of peace, and that a refusal to let us do so would be followed by war, our action might be open to the charge of wanton interference with our neighbors' affairs, or disregard of public obligations, but to think it very "American" and something to be proud of would be intelligible. It would be a formal announcement to the world that we were going to abandon the policy of peace and good-will to all the world which we have steadily pursued for a generation, and to enter upon one of aggression and interference for our own aggrandizement. A policy of "manifest destiny," backed up by ships and troops, might fill our hearts with delight; but "manifest destiny" on paper only will always in the end seem absurd.

BENJAMIN CONSTANT AND MADAME RÉCAMIER.

PARIS, Oct. 27, 1881.

MADAME LENORMANT, author of the interesting 'Souvenirs of Madame Récamier,' has just published a volume of letters addressed by Benjamin Constant to her aunt, Madame Récamier. A few of these letters appeared in 1849, a few weeks after the death of Madame Récamier, in the *feuilleton* of the paper *La Presse*, edited by Émile de Girardin. The two families of Constant and of Madame Récamier protested at the time against this publication, and the Paris court ordered the restitution to Madame Lenormant of the seventy-five letters which were announced for publication. Madame Lenormant judged that Benjamin's letters could now be published; but on the very day when her volume came out there appeared a protest from a member of the Constant family. We may therefore expect a new law-suit to begin; meanwhile we shall profit by the publication.

Madame Lenormant has prefixed to the letters a notice of Benjamin Constant written by M. de Loménie for his 'Gallery of Illustrious Contemporaries' (M. de Loménie married a daughter of Madame Lenormant). She adds only a few notes to this notice. She says that Benjamin Constant made the acquaintance of Madame Récamier at the house of Madame de Staël. He became more intimately acquainted with her in 1806, when Madame Récamier made a visit of two months to Madame de Staël at Coppet, on Lake Geneva. "Benjamin Constant," she says, "appreciated her better there, as he lived near her in the intoxicating (*enivrante*) existence which Madame de Staël made for her friends and guests by her fascinating wit and her kindness. However, Madame Récamier, confidante and often witness of the stormy scenes which sometimes disturbed the echo of these fine places, was only for Benjamin Constant the object of a distant admiration." The first letter which he addressed to her was dated 1807. The correspondence became active only in 1814, at the time when Napoleon I. was fallen and in exile on the Island of Elba.

Benjamin Constant had followed for a few years the fate of Madame de Staël. He had been married in 1808 to Charlotte von Hardenberg, in Germany, had spent several years in Germany with her, then returned without her to Paris. He found there again Madame Récamier, who had spent three years in a forced exile. He found also Madame de Staël, likewise returned from exile, much altered, but at the very height of her literary glory. Caroline Murat was very anxious to remain on the throne of Naples. She knew Madame Récamier, and asked her if she could recommend to her some eminent writer, who could in a pamphlet defend the *rights* of King Murat, and plead for him at the Congress of Vienna. Madame Récamier thought of Constant. She had been very well received at Naples in 1813, during her exile, and she pressed Benjamin Constant to undertake the task of defending the King and Queen of the Two Sicilies. "They spoke first," says Madame Lenormant, "of the destinies of a kingdom, then of old and dear memories; and he, while she spoke, forgetting the grave political interests confided to him, saw only the woman whose sweet voice penetrated him." He fell in love; he conceived the ambition of securing the love of Madame Récamier. He struggled for eighteen months, till she gently reduced him to friendship.

The volume before us is a collection of love-letters, but of the love-letters of a very eminent man. Sainte-Beuve said once that Benjamin Constant was a grown-up cherub; he had, indeed, always something of the *gaminerie* of Beaumarchais's *Chérubin*. His morality was the morality of a page; his emotions were as instinctive, his passion was as shallow, his tenderness was as feminine, his morality as loose. Madame Récamier was of a finer clay. She could not love Benjamin Constant; she could only love what she respected, and she had not much respect for the brilliant and changeable writer. She knew that his only real and constant passion was gambling, and that his whole life was constantly devoted to chance. He was not, in short, a safe man. In politics he was as fickle as in love. In the year 1813 he wrote an admirable pamphlet, "De l'Esprit de conquête et d'usurpation." It was an eloquent protest against the Napoleonic system of war and of conquest. He announced the fall of the French Empire as inevitable. When the Empire fell he offered his services to the Restoration, and wrote articles in its defence in the *Journal des Débats*. On March 19, 1813, when Louis XVIII. had already left the Tuileries in haste, when Napoleon, who had come back from Elba, was already at Fontainebleau, Benjamin Constant wrote a last article, in which, under his own signature, he said: "I will not go as a miserable transfugee, and crawl from one power to another. I will not cover infamy with sophisms, and mutter profaned words in defence of a shameful life." This article made a great sensation. A month afterward Benjamin Constant was a Councillor of State of Napoleon's, and took his part in the drafting of the famous "Acte Additionnel," which was a new Constitution given by Napoleon to the French people.

How did such a change take place? The correspondence shows that at the moment of the return from Elba, Benjamin Constant was engrossed with one idea: he wished to please Madame Récamier, to conquer her placidity, her godlike indifference. He became chivalrous, hoping thus to astonish her; he fought the last battle of the Bourbons; he remained last on the battle-field; he shot his Parthian dart at the returning Emperor—the man who had again the fate of the world in his hands. As M. de Loménie well says:

"At the moment when the soil was trembling under the feet of the Emperor, when all Paris was in a state of stupor, Benjamin Constant, this *blasé* man of forty-eight, was occupied with a single object: he looked in this great upturning of things for some means of making himself beloved. What could he do—defend the cause of the Bourbons? That was not enough; others defended it also. There are young and brave men who, at the first news of Napoleon's landing, take their swords and declare themselves ready to die under the gates of Paris. He will do better: he will take his pen, and, when the game is lost, will strike a last blow, do a thing which can condemn the author of it to proscription or to death, and thus make himself interesting."

Madame Récamier, who knew Constant well, cannot be held responsible for his conduct; she did not ask him to make himself "interesting"; she probably understood what was coming. She can only be accused of coquetry; she could not help being a great coquette; she was a virtuous *Célimène*. When you read the letters of Constant you cannot help thinking of Madame de Maintenon, who sent away Louis XIV. "toujours malheureux, jamais désespéré." Louis XIV. ended by marrying secretly Scarron's widow; Benjamin Constant could not marry Madame Récamier—he was already married.

When Napoleon entered Paris, Constant asked Lafayette to conduct him to the American minister. He left for Nantes, and was on the point of embarking for the United States, when suddenly he changed his mind. He could not bear the idea of placing the Atlantic Ocean between himself and the "délicieuse" Juliette, the chaste Helen of our times, the beauty of beauties, the woman who was the incarnation of the most divine Madonnas of Raphael. After five days spent in Nantes he returned to Paris, without stopping. Napoleon, who had fathomed the soul of Benjamin Constant, understood at once that he could use him in his attempt to create a constitutional government. He flattered his

vanity, and asked him to draft the model of a constitution. Benjamin Constant did not understand that Napoleon only wished to gain time, to amuse France with liberalism in order to get new levies more easily. He became the prisoner of Napoleon I., as Émile Ollivier afterward became the prisoner of Napoleon III. In his pamphlet, published in 1820, on the Hundred Days, he says:

"I have been reproached for not having sacrificed my life for the throne which on the 19th of March I had defended. It was because on the 20th of March I lifted my eyes; I saw that the throne had disappeared, and that France was still there. To isolate one's self from the government which Bonaparte instituted was to expose France to three chances equally disastrous: the military dictatorship in all its violence; the complete enslavement of France by foreigners; the counter-revolution, with all its fury. It must be remarked, besides, that one of the three chances did not ensure us against the other two. It was necessary, in order to escape from these dangers, to join the new government, and to limit and regulate it. It was no small sacrifice to make for men who had resisted Bonaparte or stood aloof from him for thirteen years."

Alas! words cannot undo facts, or words which are equivalent to facts. The conduct of Benjamin Constant in 1815 was fatal to his reputation. Madame Récamier was not an ardent royalist, but she was a royalist. Her society was chiefly composed of royalists; they all looked upon Constant as a traitor. Madame Récamier was kindness and gentleness itself, so that Benjamin Constant did not, like Adolphe, the hero of his novel, turn his love into hatred; but he abandoned her society, he contented himself with communicating with her from time to time. She never dropped him completely. He left for England in 1815, returned to France in 1816, and became one of the most active members of the Chambers between 1819 and 1827. His private life was a constant disorder: he was covered with debts. Laffitte and Louis Philippe helped him in 1830. He died on the 8th of December, 1830, leaving the reputation of a man who had much talent and no character, nervous, uneasy, full of egotism—not the calm and robust egotism of the self-satisfied worshippers of instinct, but an egotism which would have all the emotions of virtue, of self-sacrifice, of love, of moral greatness. His speeches will be forgotten; his letters to Madame Récamier and his novel 'Adolphe' will show exactly what he was.

THE LIBERAL TRIUMPH IN GERMANY.

BERLIN, November 1.

THE late elections for the Reichstag have turned out much more favorable to the Liberal cause than the most sanguine could expect. The Liberal under-current had daily gained more strength from the attacks of the Chancellor and his satellites in the press, and so the Conservatives and middle parties have lost at least forty seats, and all the chosen tools of the Government policy have been swept from the surface. Although it is as yet impossible to state exactly the proportion of the different parties, this much is certain, that an alliance with the reactionary and Catholic parties in the Reichstag can do no harm, and that the united Liberals are stronger than the two together.

According to our constitution, a candidate must have an absolute majority of votes in order to be elected. Whenever, therefore, there are more than two candidates competing for the same seat, the two obtaining the largest vote must submit to a new election. This time about a hundred such "test elections" (*Stichwahlen*) must take place. As they must be held within ten days after the official count of the first election, we can only learn the exact complexion of the next Reichstag on November 10 or 11. It is, however, already a settled fact that Bismarck's candidates and the most obnoxious Conservatives have been defeated—for instance, young W. Bismarck, whose only merit consists in being his father's son. In several towns where young Bismarck appeared before his former constituents, he was met with enthusiastic hurrahs for his opponent. The author of the present protective tariff, Herr von Varnbüler, makes room for a Würtemberg Democrat, a prominent champion of compulsory guilds; a Herr von Helldorf has to yield to a Liberal judge; and Von Kardorff, an ardent admirer of Mr. Carey, and Mirbach, an agrarian leader, will have to undergo a second election.

Bismarck's official candidates, too, succumbed to the general scorn and contempt of the electors. In Bremen, for instance, Herr von Kusserow, a young and ambitious diplomatist, obtained only 560 votes out of about 13,000, which triumphantly elected Herr H. H. Meier, a leading merchant of Germany and the President of the North German Lloyd Steamship Company. Von Kusserow had expressly been ordered by his master to Bremen, to praise the tobacco monopoly and to promise subsidies to the shipping merchants of that port, which on several former occasions had been flatly rejected by them. Herr Bosse, a director of the Prussian Board of Trade, had been despatched to Duisburg, a large manufacturing town in Rhenish Prussia; but in spite of the protective predilections of that district, this gentleman, too, remained in a hopeless minority, as the people would not submit to have their representative dictated by the Government. Against Herr von Forckenbeck, the Mayor of the city of Berlin, another of Bismarck's advisers, a Count Limburg-Stirum, a gentleman with a great mustache, but with little brains behind it, likewise had to run as official candidate; but the obedient servant has been deplorably beaten, and Forckenbeck was not only elected with 3,000 majority in this district, but also in two others. In Lauenburg, in which a large part of Bismarck's estates is situated, his special candidate was also defeated. Adolf Wagner, Professor of Political Economy at the University of Berlin and an intimate adviser of the Chancellor, suffered a thorough defeat in five different districts. The electors distrusted that gentleman, not only for the reason that he is in the habit of changing his opinions, but for the further reason that he too eagerly supported the Chancellor's vague schemes. He is the same State Socialist who some years ago advocated the idea that the Government should buy all the real estate in the large cities in order to prevent every kind of speculation in houses and houserents.

To give a few more instances: Bismarck's endeavors to elect his friends and defeat his most obnoxious opponents, failed in Danzig (Rickert elected), Hirschberg (Bunsen), Meiningen (Lasker), Berlin (Virchow), Wiesbaden (Schulze-Delitzsch). Of newly-elected members, I mention Dr. Friedrich Kapp, of Berlin, who has reconquered his old district, Salzwedel-Gardelegen; Herr Hobrecht, the former minister of finance; Eberty, the syndic of the city of Berlin and successful antagonist of young Bismarck—all Liberals; and Professor Arnold, a Conservative of Marburg. In my next I shall be able to give you exact figures. The Reichstag itself will be convoked on or about the 20th instant. It is presumed that its first session will be a very short one, as it will confine itself to the examination and passage of the budget.

To recapitulate, the result of the last elections shows that the people have done much better than was expected, and that politically they have proved riper than was anticipated. The reactionary period had reached its climax, and progressive tendencies will again prevail. All earnest men who do not consider politics a mere business job or speculation begin to take more hopeful views of the future, and appreciate the important change just brought about by the elections. It is impossible that the anti-Semitic and other reactionary elements should longer be held together. Terror-stricken, they try to make up by braggadocio for what they have lost in confidence and success. The so-called Social Christians, a mean set of demagogues under the leadership of a court preacher, a certain Stoecker, also a defeated candidate,* have already lost the support of their former wealthy Conservative friends, who appreciate the cruel fact that this kind of political business does not pay. The same official and officious press organs which did their utmost in backbiting and stirring up the worst passions, now desert their own camp, and confess that their attacks have only advanced the Liberal cause. Their sole consolation is that the Chancellor will soon dissolve the Reichstag. If he should do so—I for my part believe that he will not—he will get a majority which is still more opposed to his economical schemes. The election, burdensome as it may be, has diffused a large amount of knowledge among the people, who have become more enlightened as to their own interests, and no longer believe in the liberal promises which have been made, but cannot be kept. Each succeeding election will meet with fewer prejudices, and will consequently offer better chances for a Liberal majority. † † †

Correspondence.

MR. ASTOR'S OPPONENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Is it not mean of the *Tribune* to poke ill-natured sarcasm at its own defeated candidate for Congress in this way?

". . . Mr. Astor went into the fight with heavy odds against him. It is always dangerous for men of great wealth to expose themselves to the suffrage. The passion of envy is the most deeply planted and most insidious of the human heart. It exists often unknown to the men who harbor it, and takes on the form of conscience, public virtue, and a desire for reform. Many poor young men voted against Mr. Astor because he was reputed to be the heir of vast riches; many polo-playing youths of his own set voted against him because he preferred public life to polo and them."

Besides the envious creatures to whom the *Tribune* alludes, there are, seriously speaking, a number of Republican voters in Mr. Astor's district whose feelings toward him are of so kindly a nature that they sincerely hope he will no longer let his unselfish patriotic yearnings interfere with his private pleasures.

ONE OF THE LATTER.

NEW YORK, Nov. 9, 1881.

THE VINDICATION OF CEDARSWAMP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have thus far, I believe, understood the *Nation's* jokes. This may plead for me in my present perplexity about the suggestion, at the close of the lively article in your last issue, entitled "The Vindication of Cedarswamp," of incarceration as a remedy for the "practice of putting real characters into books." Being disposed to take the suggestion seriously, and for "books" mentally substituting "print," I became, as I pursued my study of your columns,

*He has finally been returned from Minden.—ED. NATION.

deeply anxious about the personal liberty of the publisher of the *Nation*. I am not a lawyer, and am therefore not tempted to point out to the injured parties the singular resemblance between their wrongs and those of Miss McLean's victims, even if you were indiscreet enough to permit it. The temptation did beset me, however, as I proceeded and found a reviewer almost complaining of an author who has put real characters into his book for generally withholding "names, localities, and dates," and quite forgetting to blame him when he does not withhold them. In another review, furthermore, the necessity of yielding to the popular demand for information about the private lives of distinguished persons is, under protest, conceded.

The truth is, as these references to the very columns in which Miss McLean is sentenced illustrate, literature must have its portrait-painters, and why may they not introduce their subjects into well-executed *genre* pictures? The use of one's acquaintances in a novel, where it cannot be assumed that all they do and say is literal fact, is surely not more objectionable than the use made every day of both characters and names in newspapers, magazines, books of travel, published correspondence, and the like. Of course grave wrong may be and is done in this way, and good taste would often expunge passages in which nobody is really injured, but we cannot spare the literary artists who must paint from models if they paint at all. And I may appeal to your own discriminating criticism of 'Cape Cod Folks' in vindication of its author's instinctive wisdom in relying more on those powers of description which she possesses in so marked a degree, than on a creative faculty which is at all events not much developed.

Of course the offence for which a civil process is begun is not the use of character, but of names. If this be the ground of your proposal to send the author to jail, the proposal is still painful, but ceases to be perplexing. Nevertheless, I have little doubt that a good criminal lawyer, with some help from Miss McLean's "youth and experience," would carry the jury in her favor. It has, I believe, been publicly stated that her own title for the book was set aside for the one actually used. It would seem, therefore, that she was not altogether a free agent in the matter of publication. Perhaps the real names of her characters, which she might naturally have employed for the sake of convenience in the first draft of her story, would have disappeared along with other blemishes had she had her own way.

There is evidently a comic side to the conspiracy against the public entered into by author, publishers, lawyers, and "peasants" for their own emolument, which "the learned and benevolent counsel" are about to reveal. All the same, it is to be hoped that your reflections will be soberly laid to heart by others than those whose misdeeds or misfortunes have directly occasioned them. X.

November 8, 1881.

[The perplexity of "X" must have arisen from a failure to observe the distinction between criminal and civil proceedings for libel referred to in our article. If Miss McLean has committed libel (as to which we have no opinion one way or the other), for the purpose of punishing her and deterring others from repeating the offence, incarceration would be a far better remedy than such peculiarly farcical civil suits as the "Cedarswamp" suits promise to be. The personal liberty of the publisher of the *Nation* is in no danger, because he never commits libel.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Messrs. D. Appleton & Co., heretofore merely the publishers of the *North American Review*, will cease to retain even that connection with the quarterly after the close of the present year. "In view of recent articles that have appeared in it," they say; meaning, no doubt, the Black-Ingersoll symposium.——J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in press 'Indian Tribes of the United States,' their history, antiquities, etc., by Francis S. Drake. The work will make two volumes, 4to, illustrated.——"German Philosophical Classics for English Readers and Students" is the title of a series to be published early next year by S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago. Prof. Geo. S. Morris, of Johns Hopkins University, will have general editorial supervision, with the assistance of President Porter, of Yale, Dr. W. T. Harris, of St. Louis, Prof. John Watson, of Kingston, Canada, Prof. Robert Adamson, of Manchester, England, and other scholars. "Each volume will be devoted to the critical exposition of some one masterpiece belonging to the history of German philosophy," embracing only the works of Leibnitz, Kant, Fichte, Schelling, and Hegel, and filling ten or twelve volumes, of uniform price.——Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are about to publish 'Biographical Notes and Personal Sketches of James T. Fields'; a new edition of Mr. Fields's 'Yesterdays with Authors,' containing ten fine steel portraits, some after originals not heretofore copied in black and white; Mr. Henry James, Jr.'s 'Portrait of a Lady,' which is on the eve of completion in the *Atlantic;* and an additional supplement to Baxter P. Smith's 'History of Dartmouth College,' having reference to the late dissensions in the governing corps. ——T. Whittaker promises his 'Churchman's Almanac' by the first week in December, with a complete parish list corrected to November 15. ——'Around the World Tour of Christian Missions,' by W. H. Bainbridge, and 'Round the World Letters,' by Lucy Seaman Bainbridge, are announced for the present month, by D. Lothrop & Co., Boston.——T. B. Peterson & Brothers will bring out a new edition of 'Helen's Babies,' by John Habberton.——The fourth and last volume of the new edition of Jamieson's 'Etymological Dictionary of the Scottish Language' is now in the press of Alexander Gardner, Paisley, Scotland, and those who desire to subscribe to this important reprint—in which, by the way, the supplement has been incorporated with the leading text—will soon have no longer an opportunity.——Mr. Christern will receive subscriptions to the chromo-lithographic fac-simile of Frau Mauro's 'Mappemonde,' now publishing, as a souvenir of the third International Geographical Congress, by F. Ongania, Venice. The original is preserved in the Royal Library of St. Mark's. The copy will be 4.48 metres square.——The library of Baron Taylor is for sale—the richest dramatic collection since Soleinne's, which cost 500,000 francs. Baron Taylor's is estimated at 25,000 francs, which does not appear dear, seeing that there are 600 manuscript plays, mostly autograph, 2,100 volumes of foreign plays, and 100 volumes devoted to the plays performed at the Opéra Comique alone. It is said that when Scribe's widow wished to publish a complete edition of her husband's plays she was obliged to borrow several manuscripts of Baron Taylor.——That the Germans are a nation of philosophers is strikingly illustrated by the fact that of Reclams's twenty-five-cent edition of Kant's 'Critique of Pure Reason,' ten thousand copies were sold in one year.——Recent issues of *Notes and Queries* have contained bibliographical papers on the 'Fight at Dame Europa's School,' a pamphlet which had an extraordinary success ten or eleven years ago.——The *Revue Politique et Littéraire* of October 8 has an article by M. Léo Quesnel on the later years of Lope de Vega's life after he had become a familiar of the Inquisition. On the testimony of Montalvan, it has been assumed generally that on joining the priesthood Lope reformed and settled down to a reputable way of living. By the aid of newly published letters M. Quesnel shows that the old age of Lope did not differ much in morality from his rather stormy youth. Incidentally he cites an order of a Spanish literary society to the winner of one of its prizes to omit all reference to Lope's later frailties.

— 'The Whittier Birthday Book,' compiled by Elizabeth S. Owen (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is of all the series thus far the best justified and the aptest. No poet of his rank has in our time so studded his verse with historical allusions; none has, all things considered, kept so high a level in his "occasional" poems; and none has done so much to embalm the memory of his contemporaries—Webster, Sumner, J. Q. Adams, Garrison, Pierpont, Follen, Howe, Stearns, Fremont, Torrey, Bayard Taylor, Lincoln, and more than we can mention. Finally, Mr. Whittier's besetting fault, diffuseness, is happily corrected in a book of extracts, though undeniably the fine memorial stanzas to Daniel Neall suffer by being cut in two. We wish that room could have been found for the effective translation from Pastorius, a perhaps solitary example of the poet's powers in this direction.——August Kluckhohn's discourse on Queen Louise, of Prussia, mother of the present King, delivered in the Schrannenhalle at Munich on March 22, 1875, and afterward revised for publication in the Virchow-Von Holtzendorff 'Sammlung gemeinverständlicher wissenschaftlicher Vorträge' (Berlin: C. Habel, 1876), has been skilfully translated by Elizabeth H. Denio, instructor in German at Wellesley College, and printed at the Riverside Press, Cambridge. The local color has been taken from it by suppressing the author's patriotic "we" and "our"; and the notes have not been retained. The special translation of Körner's verse, by another hand than Miss Denio's, is not remarkable. The German pamphlet was accompanied by a superb Albert-type of a portrait of the Queen in pastel. The heliotype based upon the former has not been successful, and it would have been worth something to procure the Albert-type or the admirable engraving from it given in *Harper's* for July, 1880. The familiar full length of the princess descending a flight of stairs is made a frontispiece of the translation, and may be compared with similar views in No. 1 of Spemann's new *Vom Fels zum Meer*.——Prof. Wm. F. Allen, of the University of Wisconsin, has published (Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.) a very neat and scholarly edition of the 'Agricola' and the 'Germania' of Tacitus. These two little works of the greatest of the Roman historians are complete in themselves, and the Latin language offers nothing more worthy of a place in a college course. Prof. Allen's commentary embodies the results of the latest investigations of the best German scholars, so far as the narrow limits within which he has confined himself permitted. The plan of triple grammatical references to the grammars of Allen and Greenough, Gildersleeve and Harkness, which was noticed with approval by the *Nation* some months ago in a review of Prof. Allen's 'Introduction to Latin Prose Composition,' is also applied in the present work. It is thus made equally convenient to those having any one of these grammars.——To any one desirous to become acquainted with Hamilton's theory of Quaternions we can recommend the 'Elements of Quaternions,' by Prof. A. S. Hardy of

Dartmouth College (Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.). For those who have never studied the subject, this treatise seems to us superior both to the work of Prof. Tait and to the joint treatise of Profs. Tait and Kelland. Having mastered its 230 pages, they will be well prepared, if their enthusiasm has not become exhausted, to attack Hamilton's huge volume of 'Lectures,' or his almost equally ponderous and still more abstruse 'Elements.' We say this on the supposition that they have access to these works; they have, we believe, long been out of print.

—Messrs. J. B. Lippincott & Co. announce in their last *Monthly Bulletin* that they "have been unusually fortunate in their relations with the younger novelists of Great Britain and Europe. They discovered 'Ouida.'" Shall we follow the practice of the naturalists and name this species of author *Ouida lippincottii?* We have always been inclined to pity the unfortunate doctors who were the first to notice the one a curvature of the spine, the other an ailment of the kidney, and had their names linked for ever to Pott's disease and Bright's disease. Messrs. Lippincott appear to think differently; they envy the discoverers of diseased organs, and boast of having discovered a diseased author. We wish they had let her alone. Fortunately, they have other claims to the gratitude of their countrymen than that of having introduced "Ouida."

— The first of the larger and more costly holiday publications to reach our table is Jacob von Falke's 'Greece and Rome' (Henry Holt & Co.), of which Mr. Wm. Hand Browne, the accomplished librarian of Johns Hopkins University, has made a capital translation. The scheme of the work is identical in the two parts—namely, to give a summary view of the political history of the state, and of its art and literature, while dwelling at much greater length on the life and manners, in accordance with the author's special knowledge and training and his relations to the Museum of Art and Industry at Vienna. General notions can alone be conveyed in an undertaking of so great a scope, and the text hardly needs to be criticised by any other standard than that of its readability. This quality it undoubtedly has along with its authority in matters archæological, and at the same time a leisurely perusal is enforced by the size of the volume, and still more by the great store of wood-cuts scattered through it, illustrating every phase of antiquity and including not a few landscapes. These engravings are not as a rule of the highest order, and their average is not equal, say, to those which superbly illustrate Ebers's 'Egypt'; still, they are far from mediocre, many fill an entire page, and all are well selected. The book is beautifully manufactured, and yet perversely a printer's error conspicuously mars the table of contents, where the headings of the first and third Grecian sections are interchanged.

—Curiosity can no longer be piqued by the announcement of a work illustrated by Gustave Doré, and before opening the costly edition of Milton's 'Paradise Lost' just issued by Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co., one knows exactly what to expect from the designs. They are hardly to be called interesting even, and, what is more, the engraver's art in them has been cheapened along with the draughtsman's. Indeed, one feels that Doré's colorless drawings need a decided change of interpreters to invest them with anything like freshness. There is much relief, therefore, in turning from these monotonous plates to the varied styles involved in the illustrations to Chatto and Jackson's 'Treatise on Wood Engraving' (J. W. Bouton). This is the second or Bohn edition of 1861, and it is doubtful if there will be another, except in the sense of the reprint before us; and yet this is likely to remain the standard work on the subject in the English language. No other enterprise could more clearly evidence the great advance made in the past twenty years in the mechanical production of fac-simile relief-plates. What engraver of the present time would ever undertake, except for his own practice, to recut the work of his predecessors? Yet this is what Jackson did, with unavoidable shortcomings. Let any one critically compare the originals of the vignettes on pp. 487, 488 (the upper one), and 500, for examples, with the copies, and he will see that the essence has gone out of them. The composition and story conveyed remain, but the mastery of drawing and of each graver stroke is lost utterly, and yet a dozen dollars nowadays would procure us absolute reproductions, in metal, and our improved press-work would practically obliterate, in the printing, the superiority of the wood-cut. It may be well to remark, for the generation now coming on the stage, that this treatise also contains a chapter of instructions in the art of wood engraving, and that the historical portion of course includes a discussion of the invention of printing. On every account, therefore, the book is a most desirable one to own.

—The place of honor in the current number (ii., 7) of the *American Journal of Philology* is occupied by Dr. Fitzedward Hall's "On the origin of '*had rather go*' and analogous, or apparently analogous, locutions." Addressing himself to scholars, the author does not scruple, as in his previous writings of this kind, to overweight the text with notes, illustrative, critical, and polemic; though, as regards the last adjective, Dr. Johnson and Landor are the chief sufferers, and call for as little sympathy as any two dogmatists that could be named. The historical deduction of "had rather" is from "have liefer," and the time at which the former expression first appeared in English literature Dr. Hall finds to be, in his extensive reading, about 1471, when Sir John Fortescue made use of it. As usual, Dr. Hall is pertinently discursive, and touches many points of interest. For instance, apropos of the use of *have* in the sense of "hold," "deem," "regard," "rate," etc., which constitutes the basis of the locution under examination, it is observed in a footnote: "The Biblical '*had* in derision,' and '*had* in reverence,' present no difficulty to the run of readers; but it is all but certain that 'I pray thee *have* me excused' is generally misunderstood, and by the uneducated as well as by the educated." Shaksperian criticism intervenes in the remark that *lief* occurs otherwise than in the positive only in the "Second Part of King Henry VI.," of which the authorship is held in doubt by commentators; that the passages in this Part containing the forms *alderliefest* and *liefest* "are in the old play of 1594, on which it is founded"; that Robert Greene, among the poet's early contemporaries, "has the adjectives *lief*, *liefer*, *alderliefest*, and *aldertruest*," and that one might suspect his hand in a form of the "Second Part" which is not known to have survived unless in the passages indicated. Finally, some statistics are given, showing the gain of "had better" over "had rather" in the best writers during the past eighty years. Macaulay uses "had better" six times; "had rather" only three. And in the pages of Jane Austen, Lord Byron, George Eliot, Matthew Arnold, Leslie Stephen, and W. H. Mallock Dr. Hall finds "had better" twenty-nine times; "had rather" only twice. Cowper's ratio, on the contrary, was four to seven.

—"The untimely death of the late Sidney Lanier removed from the sphere of American letters one of the rarest spirits and most accomplished and lovable of men, just as his work was beginning to receive a full national recognition, and to yield a livelihood for his family, whose future welfare was to him the object of his tenderest solicitude." Such is the opening paragraph of a circular signed by Messrs. George William Brown, W. H. Perot, E. G. Daves, Lawrence Turnbull, and William Hand Browne, of Baltimore, and expressing the sentiment of a commemorative meeting held on October 22 in that city, under the auspices of the Johns Hopkins University, in which Mr. Lanier held a lecturer's chair. The best memorial to his genius and character his friends conceive to be a fund to ensure the support of his widow and the proper education of his children, and this it is proposed to raise, "the income to be paid to his widow during her lifetime, and the principal at her death to be equally divided among his children as they respectively attain or may have attained their majority." A review of Mr. Lanier's literary productions would show a singularly wide circle of minds in which, it is to be hoped, a lively sense of indebtedness inheres for his poesy, his musical disquisitions, his guide to the Southern paradise for invalids, and finally his graceful and scholarly abstracts of Froissart and the Arthur legends for children. The local Baltimore committee, consisting more than one-half of ladies, embraces the best-known names in that cultivated community; while the coöperating committee finds eminent literary or financial representatives in all parts of the country. Funds may be sent to Messrs. Alex. Brown & Sons, bankers, Baltimore, or to any of the sub-committee first named.

—Census Bulletin No. 269 is descriptive of the density and area of settlement of the country at the date of the census. The settled area is defined as that having a population of two or more to the square mile, the portions outside of that being peopled, if at all, by a few scattering graziers, hunters, or prospectors. Under this definition, the settled area is mainly comprised in one large body, stretching from the northern to the southern limits of the country, and from the Atlantic coast to the plains. In this body is comprised ninety-five per cent. of the population, the remainder being in detached bodies of comparatively small size, the largest of which is on the Pacific slope, in California and Oregon. Within this great settled area, however, there are several detached regions which contain practically no inhabitants, as in the northern part of Maine, the Adirondack region of New York, southern Florida, and northern Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota. For purposes of discussion, this settled area is divided, according to density of population, into five groups—viz., that having 2 to 6 inhabitants to a square mile; 6 to 18; 18 to 45; 45 to 90; and 90 or more, to a square mile. The first of these may be regarded as a region newly reclaimed from the wilderness, peopled only by cattle-raisers and scattering ranchmen. It is represented mainly in the frontier States and Territories. Some of the poorest farming regions of the older States also fall into this class, which is accordingly represented to a certain extent in the region of the Appalachian Mountain system, and in the swampy region on the Gulf coast. The second group indicates an agricultural region. In the older States it presupposes rather unfavorable conditions of surface, soil, or climate, and in the newer States an early stage of settlement. The third group, 18 to 45 to the square mile, indicates successful agricultural pursuits, with perhaps some minor manufactures. As is to be expected, this group is the predominant one in the Southern Atlantic and Gulf States, and, owing probably to an admixture of manufactures, in the north-

ern part of New England. The fourth group indicates the existence of manufactures and commerce. It is found very largely represented in southern New England and the Middle States, including Ohio and Indiana. The fifth group indicates a very advanced condition of industry. It is only in the States of New Jersey and Rhode Island that this group is more largely represented than any other, although it is found in nearly all the Northeastern States.

—The following table shows the present area in the different groups, compared with that in 1870:

	1870.	1880.
Total area of settlement	1,272,239	1,569,570
2 to 6 per square mile	240,807	384,820
6 to 18 "	363,475	373,890
18 to 45 "	470,529	554,360
45 to 90 "	174,036	229,010
90 and above "	18,302	24,550

Notwithstanding the constant passage of lower groups into higher, by increase of population, yet the lower groups have in every case made gains. This is particularly the case in the lowest group, 2 to 6 per square mile, owing to the immense migration to the extreme West during the past five years, and the consequent reclamation of great areas of public land. During these years the inroads upon the public domain have been unprecedented in extent. In the second group the increase has been but slight, but in the higher groups it has been very great. In the bulletin the analyses of the settled area are extended back to the first census in 1790, and to the different sections of the country, from which are deduced many important generalizations, which, however, it is impossible to discuss here. It concludes with a table showing the extent of the different classes of the settled area in each State.

—After an absence from this country of more than two decades Madame Adelina Patti again appeared before an American audience on Thursday night, at Steinway Hall. Although Madame Patti was born at Madrid, she lived in this country from her fifth to her seventeenth year—those years in which an artist's character is formed; and New York has the honor of having discovered in her the greatest Italian operatic singer of the present generation. That Patti has not been able to make up her mind to leave Europe and return to this country until now is not to be wondered at, since the sums she has been able to demand for every appearance in any foreign capital have been so fabulous that she could hardly hope for greater profits in this country. In part, also, she seems to have been deterred by an uncommon dread of the discomforts of a sea voyage; and as if to punish her for this timidity, the Atlantic has seldom behaved so badly as during the week she was tossed about on it. Probably the inclemency of her voyage, and the disagreeable weather we have had since her arrival, have somewhat affected her voice. At any rate it was not so absolutely perfect in every detail on Thursday as it has been heretofore. Her highest forte notes were somewhat metallic and forced, and her lowest notes a trifle out of tune. But the remaining notes of her register, which is one of extraordinary range, are still superb and in perfect order, hardly betraying the least influence of age. The ordinary epithets applicable to a voice—such as sweet, sympathetic, powerful, flexible, expressive—sound almost too commonplace to be applied to Patti's voice at its best, as it was when she sang the valse "Ombra Leggiera" from Meyerbeer's "Dinorah," and "Home, Sweet Home." Her voice has a natural sensuous charm, like a Cremona violin, which it is a pleasure to listen to irrespective of what she happens to be singing. It is a pleasure, too, to hear under what perfect control she has it: how, without changing the quality of the sound, she passes from a high to a low note, from piano to forte, gradually or suddenly, and all without the least sense of effort. Indeed, her notes are as spontaneous and natural as those of a nightingale, and this, combined with their natural sweetness and purity, constitutes their great charm. It is a pity that so fine a voice should belong to one who for years has made such unworthy use of it. It is well known that Patti's *répertoire* at the present day includes only about half a dozen of the stalest operas, which she continually repeats wherever she goes, like a living music box. She has none of the ambition of a great artist who longs to employ her talents in new fields, and to show her devotion to art by reviving by her efforts undeservedly neglected old operas, or making the world familiar with the works of the composers of the day. Her sole aim and object seems to be to accumulate money, and as long as she succeeds in filling a hall by the announcement that she will sing a few florid and popular songs sandwiched in between the stale and unprofitable performances of a lot of third and sixth-rate musicians, all the ardent aspirations of her artistic soul are fully satisfied.

—It is with extraordinary satisfaction, therefore, that we record the fact that Patti and her managers have at last come to grief through their impertinent presumption that they could fill the capacious Steinway Hall six times in succession with an audience willing to pay the unheard-of price of ten dollars for the privilege of listening to such a shabby and miserable programme as was presented on Thursday. Besides the two selections already mentioned, Madame Patti sang the cavatina "Ah forse è lui" from "Traviata," and took part in the terzett "Qual voluttà" from Verdi's "I Lombardi." But apart from these and the encores she had to add, there was nothing in the whole programme which a musician would have given a button to hear. Such artists as Patti has brought along can be picked up in this city by the score at any musical entertainment. Not one of them, excepting Nicolini, has ever been heard of here or elsewhere, and there is no probability that they ever will be heard of again after these concerts. Signor Nicolini and most of his colleagues, indeed, served as a useful contrast to Madame Patti's art. But Patti is too great an artist to need contrasts, and she has now discovered, to her grief, that New Yorkers are not fond of them. Before the first performance the management was compelled to reduce the price of the tickets of one-half the floor from ten to five dollars. Yet even this device failed to fill the house, so that about one-quarter of the seats remained empty. The truth, is Patti should never have appeared in a concert hall, but on the stage, where she properly belongs, and where she has won her laurels. We have an opera here at present which stands in great need of a prima donna, and we are perhaps not far wrong in conjecturing that we shall hear Patti at the Academy of Music before she leaves this country. It is of course natural that she should deny any such intentions, as that would injure the prospects of her concerts. Meanwhile, what we have said here must not be interpreted as implying that the first Patti concert was a failure. It was, as far as Patti was concerned, an immense success, the applause during the whole evening being so demonstrative and so genuine that Patti, who is used to such demonstrations as perhaps no one else besides Liszt, could hardly conceal her agitation on several occasions. In appearance she is still attractive, although she has lost the charm of her early days. Her theatrical inclinations revealed themselves in her change of dress during the concert, and in the coquettish way she ran from the stage before she had quite finished her last note. The audience included many persons well known in society and letters, but the general appearance was rather "mixed," and the display of toilet was by no means equal to what it would have been on a similar occasion in London, Paris, or St. Petersburg.

—Brahms, Tchaikoffsky, Beethoven, and Liszt were the composers represented on the programme of the first concert of the Philharmonic Society. If this programme was sufficiently modern to satisfy the most advanced taste, we may at once add that the execution of it was so finished that the most critical audience in the world would have been delighted with it. Brahms's Tragic Overture, which opened the concert, is in almost every respect inferior to its companion, the Academic Festival overture, and has been generally recognized as such in those German cities where it has hitherto been produced. The latter, thanks to the student-songs introduced in it, has some clear and tangible ideas on which the mind can dwell with satisfaction, while the Tragic Overture is one of the most vague and intangible of Brahms's compositions, consisting almost entirely of glittering generalities, without any conceivable reference to the spirit of tragedy. It might be of use as an introduction to a commonplace, bombastic historical tragedy in a theatre, where it would be more in place than in a concert hall. A pleasant contrast to this overture was formed by Tchaikoffsky's second pianoforte concerto, op. 44. We are quite in accord with Dr. von Bülow, who has more than once referred to the refreshing influence on jaded ears of Tchaikoffsky's compositions. They are modern in conception and execution, and although in general suggestive of German workmanship, yet receive an additional charm from the Russian characteristics with which they are flavored. The new concerto is one of the most interesting of recent works of its class. It is not intended as a mere bravura piece, but is animated by a poetic spirit one hardly looks for in a concerto. In the first movement there are several good motives and some harmonic progressions of original effect; in the melodious second movement a violin and 'cello obligato are added to the piano, thus making a sort of triple concerto; while the third, which is often used as a means to show off the possibilities of the pianoforte, fully sustains the interest of the other movements. Of Madame Schiller, who played the pianoforte part, we can say that her execution has always been good, and, although her touch in the staccato chords seemed occasionally hard, she soon entered into the poetic spirit of the work in a way which showed that her emotional powers have greatly matured since last we heard her. She was repeatedly recalled. Of Beethoven's Fourth Symphony, which if not equal to the "odd numbers" is perhaps the best of the "even numbers" among his symphonic works, nothing new is to be said besides stating that the performance was simply perfect, revealing the minute care Mr. Thomas bestows on every bar of the music. It is perhaps not generally known that when this symphony was for the first time played at a concert for the benefit of its author, in 1807, it was preceded by his first three symphonies—a programme which would have delighted the soul of Hans von Bülow. A spirited performance of Liszt's two episodes from Lenau's "Faust" brought Saturday's concert to a close. This work reveals the influence both of Berlioz and of Wagner, between whom Liszt is a sort of connecting link, but is still of sufficient originality to claim a place of its own at a concert. The general spirit of Lenau's poem is strikingly reproduced, and if the musical form of this composition seems at first disjointed and chaotic,

careful study and attention gradually reveal the fact that there is as much method in this madness as in the often tiresome thematic treatment of the older masters.

MR. EMERSON'S PHILOSOPHY.

Ralph Waldo Emerson. His Life, Writings, and Philosophy. By George Willis Cooke. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1881. 8vo, pp. 390.

TRANSCENDENTALISM is so rapidly becoming a thing of the past that already its history has been written; and now in this volume before us we have an account of the life and writings of its chief exponent while yet his friends can gather round him in his honored old age. There seems something premature, something of restless Yankee overhaste about it; but the truth is that the whole bent of the thought of the day is toward a scientific positivism so entirely alien to transcendental idealism that that philosophy seems already antiquated. We have been forced reluctantly forward by the movement of thought in England to a distasteful but unavoidable positivism: Darwin has replaced Coleridge, and we weigh facts instead of ideals. The old way of thinking is outgrown; and as we look back upon that philosophy which a generation ago we greeted as the rising dawn, it seems only an electric aurora, an illusive northern light—beautiful, indeed, in the past night's gloom, but fading in the clearer morning light of the science of today. We admire its delicate grace and beauty, and praise the aspiration which, however fitful, flamed ever upward toward the zenith in pulsations of luminous flame. But we cannot find its foundations in the earth or harness it in our looms; it has a ghostly air of unreality about it; and we do not clearly realize that, although it was not all we thought it to be, yet it was nevertheless a bright manifestation of a spiritual force as old as the human soul—an idealism that in some shape is a permanent element in the mental life of humanity.

To this generation, which has forgotten the personal influence of Margaret Fuller and the group of enthusiasts that gathered about her, transcendentalism is personified in Emerson, and we may probably expect that the judgment of the future, looking mainly to the literary remains of the members of the group, will so regard it. Mr. Emerson's was the most marked literary individuality, not only in his own generation, but in the century. The descendant of eight generations of New England ministers, his profound insight into abstract speculations, his freedom and nobility of thought and high poetic imagination, his peculiarly impressive and original style, his fine bearing, and the deliberate high-bred oratory whose unaffected realism and repressed enthusiasm bore the listener irresistibly along—all combined to make Ralph Waldo Emerson the leader of a movement which, although really but a temporary reaction from a stronger current, seemed then to be rising to an overwhelming tide of success. Transcendentalism was certainly the great movement of the first half of this century here, and its influence upon us, both for good and ill, is still very plainly perceptible. Yet it is not very generally understood except by its votaries, the rest of the world thinking it too abstruse or unintelligible to deserve much attention. This seems very mistaken when we remember that transcendentalism is no American idiosyncrasy, no novel product of a virgin soil. It is the oldest and proudest of human philosophies, and we can follow it down almost unchanged, except in the coloring given by the spirit of each successive age, from its appearance in the earliest records of India, through the glories of Grecian speculation, the Neo-Platonic school, and the despairing nobility of Roman stoicism, even in the dark ages not losing sight of it entirely among the advanced thinkers. Reviving with civilization, and showing itself characteristically in mediæval mysticism, we see it mathematically demonstrated by Spinoza, shaped into orthodoxy by Swedenborg, carried to the uttermost extreme of speculation by the German idealists, and taking more disguises than one in modern thought, not only among the idealists, but the positivists.

The peculiarities of its transcendental form are little more than we should expect from the selective influence of modern surroundings. The key to both the oldest and the newest idealism is the conception that underneath all the changing phenomena of this noisy world, below all the jarring strife of atoms and men, lies a single unchanging First Cause—an infinite eternal and perfect substance, a divine noumenon, of which all earthly phenomena (whether material or mental) are alike manifestations, and without which they would not for a moment exist. It is only just to say that Mr. Emerson grasped this thought with more intelligence and imagination than any of our other thinkers. To him it was no dark unknowable, but the eternal source of life and light, illuminating and giving real existence to everything. Nature and the human soul were alike informed by it, and governed by the same universal laws, nature being embodied mind. Her laws were progress and righteousness, and humanity purified and elevated itself by yielding wholly to her. Each soul was independent, individual forever—its own guide, its fate and freedom both self-determined; but bound to subordinate its selfish desires to universal law, and becoming thus divine; opening itself to the ideal, and in its loftiest moments submitting itself to the direct inflowing of the Oversoul in a tide of ecstasy that merged the human in the divine. Thus all are, or may be, inspired; Christ was one of a series of prophets, the noblest of whom is yet to come in the eternal progress; while all religions are alike imperfect and alike useful to the wise man, whose mind is ever open and receptive to everything of good that floats by from whatever source.

These are the main features of transcendentalism, and their peculiarities were due far more to the selective influence of the age than to any force of logical development; logic being, indeed, a weapon for which the transcendentalist had little liking. If Emerson rejected the dogma of the personality of the Divine Substance with the mystics, so do Herbert Spencer and Matthew Arnold. If he adopted the Neo-Platonic view of the unity of the Godhead, and saw in Christ only one of many gifted ones with whom the Oversoul had direct communion, we must remember that the impulse of Unitarianism was then passing over both continents. His doctrine of intuition and inspiration is the living element of Quakerism and Radicalism to-day, as it has been of every religious revival. The revolt from church forms and return to the individual consciousness of absolute right and wrong, has been the essence of every great religious movement, as Froude showed in his fine essay on Calvinism; and individualism had then received a new impulse from the success of our democratic institutions. Even Mr. Emerson's view of nature as the expression of infinite wisdom in laws applicable alike to mind and body, Eastern in its origin, was in close accord with the nature-worship that had been so strong for half a century both as a political force and a poetic inspiration.

If, however, we cannot allow that the main points of transcendentalism were really new, it does not follow that Mr. Emerson was a copyist. On such subjects novelty is an impossibility, and it would be an anachronism to expect it. But his was a mind of high poetic imagination and of great original power, both of insight and expression, and he never overtaxed it or printed anything poor. He made these great conceptions his own, made them his so thoroughly that the stamp of his personality is plainly to be seen on every product of his mind. His poetic conception of abstractions reaches, indeed, the loftiest height of imaginative genius. Yet we must acknowledge not only the unnecessary harshness and obscurity of his style, but that he worked within such narrow limits and by such faulty methods that his genius will seldom be truly realized except by his devotees. But it is none the less there; and it is necessary to appreciate the poetical nature of his mind in order to do justice to his prose, which, indeed, is often more melodious than his verse. In a time of small men and wide intellectual barrenness, Mr. Emerson raised the thoughts of his hearers high above earthly things, appealed to their nobler imagination, and set again before them the eternal beauty of the Platonic idea. To many a mind it was a wonderful awakening and a permanent impulse. Its morality might have been insufficient for the common herd (instinct is a dangerous guide and universal laws of nature are weak safeguards); but it did not appeal to them, and the intellectual class to whom he did address himself were stimulated, and not maddened.

On the other hand, with the credit must go blame. Mr. Emerson's method of work was very faulty, and its defects he imparted to his followers—defects which, while they assisted the immediate spread of his views, tended finally to bring upon them a not altogether undeserved discredit. His course of study was miscellaneous and not overbroad, and he skipped everything he did not agree with, thus keeping his mind in a very narrow track, and he refused to discuss the views of those who opposed him, or even to reconcile the logical contradictions of his own theories. Though his later volumes were as well written as his first, they revealed no progress of thought. Nothing showed more plainly his wonderful mental constitution than that he could preserve his just mental equipoise for nearly half a century under such an enfeebling regimen. His favorite mode of teaching was from the lecture platform, that ready-made mental clothing-shop where the customer receives what appears to be a complete intellectual outfit without an effort of his own. His manner of composition was by noting down miscellaneous ideas as they occurred to him from time to time, and assorting them under their several heads as they accumulated. Then when he had a lecture to deliver he put together the several paragraphs upon that subject and trimmed and corrected them with great care, producing, however, a work that was more a string of sibylline oracles than a complete essay, and, notwithstanding its brilliancy and beauty, lacked the ordered strength and clear convincing power of a theme written to express a definite thought from which the minor points naturally followed as corollaries or illustrations. The student was taught to put himself in a negative attitude, with his mind merely receptive, as if culture could come without work. The whole tendency of the teaching was to put passive intuition in the place of thought and vague imagination for definite conception. Everything coöperated to this end, and his followers quickly caught his method without his genius. It was so pleasant to seem to learn without any mental effort, to be able to depend on one's own insight without regard to conflicting facts or irreconcilable arguments; so satisfactory to be able to

solve every question of the universe by laws too vague to cause any trouble at closer quarters. Dreamland is a charming spot, and here the dreamers were taught that everything outside was unreal.

In the hands of the master the instrument worked not ill. On the great questions of the time—slavery and war—Emerson spoke boldly to the point. But much of the feeble talk of our own day about inalienable rights to vote or to circulate improper books, and the like, substitute indolent assertion for sound thought, and rest on the strength of transcendental teaching. And we can observe a wider influence on contemporary literature. While our living novelists and poets may well hold their own, our thoughtful literature is wofully weak. Instead of works of deliberate, careful, exact investigation, such as England produces every year by the score, we have Orphic sayings and aspiring philosophic speculations, as loose and flimsy in thought as they are obscure in form. Much of this is due to our want of culture and lack of thorough criticism, but more, we think, to an evil habit of thought for which transcendentalism is fairly responsible.

The execution of the book before us is very good. It is convenient in size and print, and has a useful index. The author has studied his subject thoroughly, and expressed himself clearly. He hardly pretends to be judicial, and makes little attempt to point out the weaknesses of his hero or the defects in his philosophy. He goes evidently too far once or twice in praising Mr. Emerson's scholarship and comparing his observation of nature to Tyndall's or Darwin's. But the study of Mr. Emerson's philosophical relations to early thinkers is very good, and Mr. Cooke is generally just in his appreciation and happy in his praise. The great fault of the book is that it is not very interesting. It does not give enough of the attractive personal flavor of Mr. Emerson's home life, or impress the reader sufficiently with his peculiar individuality as a man—omissions explainable in part, no doubt, by the courtesy due to a living friend, but nevertheless dulling the edge. The account of the philosophy is full and sound, but it has neither the contagious poetic fervor we expect from the disciple, nor the incisive comment of the critic. Thus, with all its value, it is rather hard reading, and will hardly remove transcendentalism from its former position—the delight of a small and diminishing body of enthusiasts, the object of a contemptuous but not unkindly ignorance on the part of the rest of the world.

DE AMICIS'S SPAIN.

Spain. By Edmondo de Amicis. Translated from the Italian by Wilhelmina W. Cady. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1881.

THIS interesting work relates to the author's tour through Spain during the brief period when Amadeus I. was reigning, or rather, "residing at Madrid as a distinguished visitor." No longer heir-presumptive to the throne of Italy, the Duke of Aosta had accepted General Prim's repeated offer of the crown of Spain, and, elected by 191 votes of the Cortes, had entered Madrid amid great rejoicings in January, 1871; in the early part of 1873 he resigned the crown and retired to his own family and home. He preferred to say with Don Rodrigo,

> "Ayer fui señor de España,
> Y hoy no tengo una almena
> Que pueda decir que es mia,"

rather than possess a mimic sovereignty over an unwilling people. It was during this period that our author set out, "one rainy morning in February," to go to Spain, leaving "his mother and his empty room and his little library" behind him at Turin. His book contains a succession of "word pictures" cleverly drawn. We have read it through once, but there remains photographed on our memory a succession of scenes and "interesting situations" which make the book like one of those charmed works of childhood, a part of our stored-up picture-life.

Arrived at Marseilles, he had to pay "deux sous pour les Prussiens," in vindication, we suppose of France's right to exclude the Prince of Hohenzollern from the Spanish throne, and suffer defeat in consequence; and then away to Perpignan and across the Pyrenees. And now fairly in Spain, his first question was: "Well! what is your King doing?" "Está reinando," was the reply; turning round and seeing "the proprietor of the inn looking at the ceiling," he immediately changed the subject. At Barcelona he was greeted by a waiter who accompanied him to his room, with the inquiry whether "he had finished from arriving," and whether "he had descended this very hour from the iron road"—questions intended to show the speaker's knowledge of Italian. The explanation is that, at Barcelona, there are a great number of hotel waiters, café employees, cooks, and servants of every description, who are Piedmontese, and speak, with Italian travellers only, a horrible jargon of French, Italian, Castilian, Catalan, and Piedmontese, just to show that they have not forgotten their native tongue.

Catalonia is perhaps the most agreeable province of Spain, and the people are energetic and enterprising. At Barcelona our author is impressed with "the villas, little palaces, and factories which dispute the ground, jostle each other," and rise in succession along the surrounding heights until they form a great wreath round the city. "The people work and prosper," he adds, "and Barcelona flourishes." The Catalans of Barcelona appear to look with as much contempt on the Castilians as these do on the "Gallegos," or the Galician peasants, who do all the hard work that the Castilian is too proud or lazy to do. It is amusing to read of the Catalan shopkeeper who replied to the question, "What he thought of the character of the Castilians?" by saying that, "In his opinion, it would be a good thing for Catalonia if there were no railway between Barcelona and Madrid, because business with that people corrupted the character and customs of the Catalans." But the little episode told us by our author about the Barcelona barber is still more characteristic. We will give it in his own words (p. 20):

"I found a furious Carlist in a barber who, discovering from my pronunciation that I was a compatriot of the King, tried to draw me into a discussion. I did not say a word, because he was shaving me, and a resentment of my national pride might have caused the first bloodshed of the civil war; but the barber persisted, and not knowing any other way of beginning the argument, he said at last, in a gracious tone: 'Do you know, Caballero, that if there arose a war between Italy and Spain, Spain would not be afraid'? 'I am perfectly convinced of it,' I replied, out of regard for the razor. Then he assured me that France would declare war with Italy as soon as Germany was paid; there is no escape from it. I made no response. He was silent for a moment, and finally said maliciously: 'Great events will occur before long!' and so the matter ended."

From Barcelona to Saragossa across the Montserrat is not a very long journey, but it supplied our author with one or two pleasing encounters. At the foot of the mountains a lot of schoolboys crowd into the carriage, going to the convent of Montserrat on an excursion. "Is this the first time you have made an excursion to Montserrat?" he asks, in his own language, of one of the little fellows. The boy was silent for a moment, and then replied very slowly: "I—have—already—been—there—several times." The father of the boy had lived several years at Naples, and so the lad had picked up a little knowledge of Italian; but now "the train stopped, the priest bowed, the boys dashed out of the carriage. I put my head out of the window to salute my little friend. 'A pleasant walk,' I cried; and he, detaching each syllable, replied: 'A-di-o.'" It is not hard to agree with the author that trifling incidents like these are the greatest pleasures experienced in travelling.

The town of Saragossa seems to have been built "for a battle"; and it has certainly fulfilled its destiny. "I felt once more all the emotions which the narratives of the horrible siege of 1809 had caused me. I ran from street to street with increasing curiosity, as if in search of the traces of that gigantic struggle which astonished the world." At length our author enters the Church of Nuestra Señora di Pilar, the terrible Madonna from whom protection and courage were sought by the squalid crowd of soldiers, citizens, and women, before they went to die on the bulwarks. The shrine of the Virgin is surrounded by a crowd of kneeling worshippers. Not a rustle, not a murmur is heard; the life of the crowd seems to have been suspended. Even he who does not believe is forced to fix his eye upon the object on which all are gazing, and the course of his thoughts is arrested in a species of anxious expectation.

"Oh, for a sound of that voice! I thought; oh, for some apparition, even if it were only a word or a sight that would turn me gray from terror, and make me utter such a shriek as was never before heard upon earth, so that I might be freed for ever from this horrible doubt which gnaws at my brain and saddens my life!"

The portent was not granted, and our author leaves the cathedral and proceeds to quiz the pretty little faces at the windows. He did not meet, indeed, with any types of that beauty properly called the Spanish—"the deep tint and the dark eyes full of fire"; but at least, we may hope, he forgot for awhile his gnawing doubts and embittered life.

Passing by the descriptions of Burgos and Valladolid, we find in our author's accounts of the bull-fights and cock-fights of Madrid vivid pictures of a people's amusements. He devotes forty pages to a description of the first; it is a striking and powerfully-worded account of a detestable scene of cruelty. To have visited Madrid, however, and not devoted his Sundays to the circus, would have been folly; and as we now "know as much about it" as our author, we gladly allow him "to keep silent about the matter." Nevertheless, to see disembowelled horses running across the path of a bull maddened with pain inflicted by *banderillas* planted in its neck, while the beast, "with foaming nostrils, bloodthirsty eyes, neck streaked with blood, stamps the ground, struggles, strikes the barrier, demands revenge, wishes to kill, thirsts for a massacre," and all the time more *bandarilleros* advancing, more horses struggling in pools of blood, wounded, bleeding, maimed, galloping round in "phrenzy"—all this may give rise on the part of the spectators to a sort of pleasurable excitement for the time, but it is nevertheless not quite human or, one would think, *tolerable*, to lovers of fair play. But the bull-fights sink into insignificance when compared with the scene described as a "cock-fight." The horror, however, is rather in the description than in the thing itself, and the recollection of that "victorious cock pecking at the wounds, digging out the eyes, hitting the bare cranium of its antagonist, as if it wished to pick its victim to pieces without killing it; at times, when the poor thing [*i. e.*, the dying bird] was motionless for a moment, the victor looking down at it with the at-

tention of an anatomist, at times moving off with the indifference of a grave-digger, then dashing at it again with the avidity of a vampire, pecking at it, sucking it, torturing it with fresh vigor"—this recollection still haunts us with its minute details of revengeful cruelty like a bloody nightmare.

Space does not allow us to follow the traveller through the tortuous streets of Toledo, or to visit with him "the forest of columns" in the Cordova mosque; suffice it to say, the interest of the book lags nowhere. It will repay, and more than repay, the time, or the cost of the time (where time is money), spent in reading it. And for those who have not the opportunity of travelling, nor the time for reading heavy books of history or research, this volume will supply the place of actual experience or the acquirement of special knowledge, and also afford genuine pleasure and delight.

The translation of the book is, on the whole, a faithful one, and pleasant to read. The frequent repetition of the idiomatic "*one* never can tell," "*one* hardly knows," and so on, is rather tiring, and might be easily avoided; but otherwise the translation runs freely and easily from first to last, and in some parts is evidently accomplished in entire sympathy with the marvellous descriptive power of the original.

CAMPAIGNS OF THE CIVIL WAR.

Campaigns of the Civil War. The Outbreak of Rebellion, by John G. Nicolay. From Fort Henry to Corinth, by M. F. Force. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1881.

THE Prussian staff account of the war of 1866 appeared in 1869; the first instalment of the history by the same staff of the war of 1870-71 made its appearance in 1872, and the nineteenth and last instalment of this great work, which has no rival in military literature, has been published during the present year. Our Civil War ended a year before the first of the German wars, but we have as yet no history of it which is universally recognized as authority; the unfinished work of a foreign visitor—the Comte de Paris—being the nearest approach to it which we have yet had. This singular deficiency cannot be accounted for on the ground of lack of materials. Of personal memoirs, histories of regiments, papers read before historical societies, etc., there is a great abundance; and, beyond all this, there is a mine of wealth in the War Department Records, which have now been printed for office use as far as 1864, and arranged in such form that they can readily be consulted by any responsible writer, although only three volumes of the ninety composing the series have as yet been published.

To supply this deficiency, the Messrs. Scribner have undertaken to publish a series of volumes, each treating of a single campaign, and the whole forming a history of the war. With but two exceptions, the authors who have been announced are all well-known officers, who served in the campaigns which they describe, and some of them, such as Generals Humphreys and J. D. Cox, held high command and achieved a national reputation. The exceptions are in Pope's campaign, of which probably no participant could write with impartiality, and which has therefore been consigned to Mr. John C. Ropes, of Boston, a well-known military student and writer; and in the semi-political introduction, which was entrusted to Mr. Nicolay, the private secretary of President Lincoln. All things considered, therefore, we have every right to expect that these volumes will give a clearer view of the operations of the war than has yet been afforded; and they must be judged by the highest standard of historical literature. Of second-rate histories we have had already more than enough, and there is no excuse for the appearance of any more.

Of the two volumes which have just appeared, the first is entitled 'The Outbreak of Rebellion,' and in it Mr. Nicolay tells how the Southern States left the Union; how the national flag was fired upon; how the North responded; how both sides skirmished on the border, and, finally, came into pitched battle at Bull Run. He tells it—as it appears in his mind—admirably well. That is to say, he narrates those events, and those only, which are worth remembering; his style is never dull, often brilliant, always clear and concise; he speaks directly and to the point; and whether we agree with his opinions or not, he gains and holds our undivided attention.

The manner in which Mr. Nicolay discusses the causes of rebellion will necessarily give rise to much controversy. He says:

"Directly and indirectly, the South had practically controlled the Government during its whole existence. Excited to ambition by this success, she sought to perpetuate that control. The extension of slavery and the creation of additional slave States was a necessary step in the scheme, and became the well-defined single issue in the Presidential election. But in this contest the South for the first time met overwhelming defeat. The choice of Lincoln was a conclusive and final decision, in legal form and by constitutional majorities, that slavery should not be extended; and the popular vote of 1860 transferred the balance of power irrevocably to the free States."

This no one can gainsay; but such calm and judicial statements are the exception, not the rule, in his book. The key in which his story is pitched is fairly indicated by the following:

"The discouraging tone of these answers [to Governor Gist's letter] establishes, beyond controversy, that, excepting in South Carolina, the rebellion was not in any sense a popular revolution, but was a conspiracy among the prominent local office-holders and politicians, which the people neither expected nor desired, and which they were made eventually to justify and uphold by the usual arts and expedients of conspiracy."

The word conspiracy appears on every other page, and the tone in which the quick succession of disunion acts is described is everywhere one of utter contempt and scorn; so that one would gather from what he says that a few bold leaders had carried six millions of freemen into rebellion merely to gratify their own selfish ambition. That the apparent Union sentiment at the South was real, hearty, and genuine—that is, inspired by any higher motive than prudence—is very doubtful. As late as December, 1860, Floyd "still avowed himself a Unionist"; at the Georgia Convention Stephens pleaded hard for the Union; so with hundreds of others. Yet Stephens, in his speech, "declared that if Georgia seceded he should bow to the will of her people." This is the kernel of the whole matter; the South was so inoculated through and through with the destructive doctrine of State Supremacy that it could not possibly have any real Union sentiment. It hesitated at disunion, as all people hesitate at a step of momentous importance, the results of which cannot be foreseen; but people everywhere were ready to follow their State. Public opinion at the South was not heartily in favor of disunion, but it was in that lame and impotent condition which Mr. Nicolay ascribes to Mr. Stephens, and from which the descent to rebellion and ruin was easy indeed. Therefore, we think that Mr. Nicolay gives undue prominence to the acts of the Southern leaders, intolerant, overbearing, scheming, and unscrupulous as they undoubtedly were; that he overestimates the force of Southern sentiment in favor of the Union; and that he entirely fails to bring into sufficient prominence the underlying causes which had been gathering force for many years, and but for the existence of which no conspiracy could have succeeded in creating the mighty conflict of 1861-65.

In describing the fall of Sumter, the uprising of the North, and the assembling of troops at Washington, the author is much happier; and he gives us a lifelike picture of the stirring events of those anxious days of April, 1861, the relative importance of which he justly estimates as follows:

"In comparison with the unmurmuring endurance that trudged through the Yazoo swamps, and the unflinching courage that faced the dreadful carnage of the Wilderness, later in the war, this march of the 'Seventh' was the merest regimental picnic; but it has become historic because it marked a turning-point in the national destiny, and signified the will of the people that the capital of the Union should remain where George Washington planted it."

Equally good is the account of the battle of Bull Run. General Scott, judging from a military standpoint, was of opinion that it was injudicious to attempt more with the three-months' volunteers than to garrison Washington and hold the Border States, and that offensive operations must await the arrival of troops of longer service. But "the highly excited patriotism of the North, eager to wipe out national insult and vindicate national authority, was impatient of what seemed tedious delay. . . . It saw rebellion enthroned in the capital of Virginia; it saw a numerous Union army gathered at Washington; the newspapers raised the cry of 'On to Richmond!' and the popular heart beat in quick and well-nigh unanimous response to the slogan." An offensive movement on Manassas was therefore determined upon, "at a council of war at the Executive Mansion, on June 29," and, once determined on, General Scott gave it all possible aid. The battle, as all know, was well planned, and it was fought with stubborn determination, though the men on both sides lacked that confidence in themselves which is the result of practical experience in war or other affairs. Success favored the Union troops during the morning and until two o'clock in the afternoon. Then, as their further advance was arrested, the tide began to turn. "Lacking long drill and discipline, they acted upon individual judgment and impulse, rather than as organized bodies merely executing the orders of their officers." Finally, at half-past four, the remainder of Johnston's army, together with Early and Ewell's brigade, fell upon the exposed right flank of the Union line, and then "the battle came to a speedy termination by a sort of universal consent—a realization and acknowledgment of coming defeat pervaded the whole army, and found instant expression in increased disorganization and immediate movement toward a general retreat." The panic and flight described by various writers existed more among the camp-followers and sight-seers than among the troops; still, the latter were so disorganized that it was found to be impossible to rally them at Centreville, and they rapidly moved on till they reached Washington, a footsore and hungry mob.

"It is in its political aspects that Bull Run becomes a great historical landmark. To say that the hopes and enthusiasm of the North received a painful shock of humiliation and disappointment, is to use but a mild description of the popular feeling. This first experience of defeat, or recognition of even the possibility of defeat, was inexpressibly bitter. Stifling the sharp sorrow, however, the great public of the Free States sent up its prompt and united demand that the contest should be continued and the disgrace wiped out. Impatience and over-eagerness were chastened and repressed; and the North reconciled itself to the painful prospect of a tedious civil war all the more readily because of the necessity of bending every energy to immediate preparation on a widely extended scale."

Judge Force's volume treats of the early operations in the West, and, though called 'From Fort Henry to Corinth,' its "preliminary" chapter recounts at wearisome length the movements of Price and Curtis and Van Dorn in Missouri. Though every page bears evidence of careful research—of an earnest desire to adhere strictly to truth, to avoid opinions, and steer clear of controversy—yet it must be confessed that the story is tedious. It lacks animation, and the great events are not sufficiently emphasized to make any impression on the mind. At rare intervals the story is enlivened by a sketch like the following :

"Halleck was sedate, deliberate, cautious. He had written a book on strategy and logistics, and his attention appeared sometimes to be distracted from the actual conditions under which the present military operations were to be conducted by his retrospective reference to the rules which he had announced. Grant, under his extremely quiet demeanor, was full of restless activity. His purpose seemed to be to strike and overcome the enemy without waiting ; to use whatever seemed the best means at hand ; ready at all times to change for better means if they could be found, but never to cease striking. Halleck was worried by being jogged to new enterprises, but heartily supported them when once begun."

But there are not half a dozen pages in the whole book of variation from strict narrative.

Nearly half of it is naturally devoted to the battle of Shiloh. Johnston had already abandoned Bowling Green when Donelson fell, and he received news of the surrender while halting at Nashville on his retreat.

"Johnston found the Tennessee, running from Alabama and Mississippi up to the Ohio, in the possession of the National fleets and armies. The force under his immediate command was therefore separated from the force under Beauregard that was guarding the Mississippi. Unless they should join, they would be beaten in detail. To join involved the surrender either of Central Tennessee or of the Mississippi. Johnston resolved to give up Central Tennessee until he could regain it, and hold on to the Mississippi. But to hold the Mississippi required continued possession of the railroads, and such points especially as Corinth and Humboldt. Corinth, both from its essential importance and its exposure to attack by reason of its nearness to the river, was the point for concentration."

On March 24 he reached Corinth with 20,000 men, and was there joined by other troops which swelled his numbers to 40,000. Grant, meanwhile, with 33,000 men, was advancing up the Tennessee, and Buell, with 37,000, was marching across from Nashville. Hearing of Buell's approach, Johnston determined to strike Grant's army a fatal blow before his arrival. The result was the battle of Shiloh or Pittsburgh Landing, fought, on April 6 and 7, 1862, with a fierceness which was never surpassed till the days of the Wilderness. On the first day Grant was driven back to the river. He prepared, however, to make a counter-attack the second day, and, with the aid of a part of Buell's army, did make it, and drove the enemy back beyond their original line. They promptly returned to Corinth.

No battle of the war has given rise to more bitter jealousies or recriminations. But little suspicion of this, however, meets the reader of this book ; the author quotes the well-known despatches of the day before the battle, in which Grant and Sherman reported that they had no expectation of an attack—but he makes no comment on them. In fact, it was a partial surprise, at least. What would have happened but for the arrival of Buell's army, is one of the unsolved questions which can be argued indefinitely, one side maintaining that Grant's army would have been destroyed, and the other that it alone would have driven Johnston back, on the second day. Into this discussion Judge Force does not enter. He shows that on the first day none of Buell's men arrived in time to take any active part ; on the second day both armies were engaged ; and the total losses were about 10,000 in Grant's army and 2,000 in Buell's. But little is said by way of judgment on the battle, except a criticism of Johnston's formation in three long, thin parallel lines, which threw his men into confusion as they all became engaged. In general, "the battle sobered both armies. The force at Pittsburgh Landing saw rudely dashed aside the expectation of speedy entry into Corinth ; the force at Corinth, that marched out to drive Grant into the river, to scatter Buell's force in detail, and return in triumph to Nashville, was back in the old quarters, foiled, disheartened."

With the cautious advance of Halleck on Corinth and the capture of that place the volume ends, and the results of the campaign are thus summed up :

"The objects proposed in the spring were accomplished, though not in the manner designed. The railway connection at Corinth was broken, though not by a mere dash from the river. Fort Pillow was possessed, Memphis was occupied, and the Mississippi open to Vicksburg. The volunteers had been through a hard military school. After their experience in fighting, they had practice in the slow advance to Corinth, in picket duty and field fortification. They had learned something of the business of war, and were now ready for campaign, battle, and siege."

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

THE readers of *St. Nicholas* will warmly commend to the public 'Phaeton Rogers,' the much-devising boy, whose adventures the Scribners have now published in book form. Dab Kinzer and the three friends who make up 'The Quartet' are also old acquaintances in the *St. Nicholas*. They are all genuine, honest boys, with due capacity for fun, yet all the while steadying into real manliness. There is unexpected merit in the author's development of the character of the black boy, Dick Lee. His tender skill in nursing attracts the attention of the physician, who helps him to fit himself for a surgeon in a Southern hospital, where his career will be adequate for his own ambition, and for the hopes of his early friends of the Grantley Academy. We question if 'Phaeton Rogers,' wherein love enters only through the hearty sympathy of the boys in the happiness of their older friend "Jack-in-the-box," would not be more satisfactory to real boys than 'The Quartet,' which spans all academy and college life, and closes as the hero departs upon his wedding journey. A good story may easily be turned into a poor novel by the addition of just that element. The tone of the book, however, is throughout refined, but the differences between city and country seem rather unduly accented. Little more could be said of a first experience under fire than is said of Dab's first sight of the opera. "Little he knew how tremendous a 'first lesson' he was getting," and so on, and so on, with other episodes of city life. In fact, a boy or girl brought up like Dab, though never so quietly, where his family were considered of the first and best, and his mother was regarded with special respect, would simply accept all the outside accidents and mind them very little. Instead of thinking how different were his really noble and beautiful city friends from "people who had less money, and who knew nothing about dress and style and music," he would simply have recognized that in them akin to what he had always known. It is fair to say that his motives and acts are always manly and high-minded. It is only the author's own reflections that suggest some small beggar suddenly raised to fortune.

Among illustrated juveniles 'The Cat's Arabian Nights,' published by D. Lothrop & Co., can hardly be surpassed for number and variety of pictures. That of a hundred-odd all should be equally good was not likely ; but between the soft grace of Pussy Gray and the comical pertness of Frisky Spekkum with her ear-trumpet, every child will find something after its own heart. The cover is a sumptuous field of white and silver, on which are grouped all the kindred: pussy-clover, pussy-willow, cat-tails, catkins, and kitties. The text, by Mrs. Diaz, is slender. Pussyanita is supposed to tell the stories to the cruel King Tommybus to save the lives of the white and the yellow cats. But the wonder grows where he could have lived not to have heard before such very old stories, and there is no reason to dissent from his judgment, that Pussyanita had told "the silliest story that ever was."

'Mammy Tittleback' (Roberts Bros.) is a refreshing contrast for its very evident reality. "H. H." has put together from the talk of no less than twelve people a droll story of thirteen cats, all one family, in one summer ; and very droll it is, though it is not only with a smile that one reads Rosy's question in her despair over the deserted kittens : "Isn't there some cat that hasn't any kittens that would like some?"

'Dimple Dopp' (J. R. Osgood & Co.) is one of two stories very obviously made up on the 'Alice in Wonderland' pattern. A third, "Cat-Lore," completes the book—evidently a wholesale *mis*-appropriation of "Frau Holle" from Grimm. This would not so much matter, but the children are all of the naughty kind, about whom it is painful to read.

'Cross-Patch' (Roberts Bros.) and 'Mrs. Overtheway's Reminiscences' (Lee & Shepard) introduce us to the same type of unkind, passionate, unhappy children. To name a book 'Cross-Patch' is to perpetuate what had best be forgotten. Of the heroines, Patty beats her little cousin on her neck with the heavy buckle of her belt until the blood comes ; little "Tommy Tucker" is the victim of a termagant stepmother ; a wicked gipsy child repays the faith and sympathy of Persis, who is poor enough, by stealing her only cloak. "Miss Jane" has, of all things in the world for a child, "a favorite cry-place"; while her brother Dick is nearly stung to death by bees, and Matty and Reggy set the house on fire. There are some well drawn side-figures, but but it would be worth something to know where is to be found the maiden lady, austere but sweet, who, true to the loves of her childhood, reads to Patty 'Rosamond and the Purple Jar,' and then follows it with 'The Wide, Wide World' and 'Little Women.' There are impossibilities even in a story-teller's world. Mrs. Overtheway herself is all that is sweet and gentle ; but the author makes her choose, as a fit story to tell a sick and pining orphan girl, how she always hated brown satin because of a disappointment never to be forgotten.

It might be thought that only books for girls were of this sad kind; but Mr. Trowbridge's 'Pocket-Rifle' (Lee & Shepard) has its full share of the same thing. A prize for spelling is offered. It could not have done the school much good, for, after the whole winter's work, on the last day "the word *separate* swept the class." The effect of the offer upon the two head boys is disastrous : Chase suspects Worth of mean treachery ; a bitter feud arises, involving both families, and leading at last to the trial of Worth for stealing the prize—the "pocket-rifle"—which Chase won. Chase is nearly drowned by a spring flood ; Worth saves his life ; and then it appears that Chase was mistaken—Worth did not do that first mean thing. So the whole book seems a very useless heap of misery. Moreover, young boys have not the power, even if they had the wish, to go back over such a story and reconstruct it in the light of the conclusion. They

take it as it comes, and this one certainly gives its approval to devious ways.

It is a rare pleasure to find such a book as 'Hector' (Roberts Bros.), a little tale of French country life. It tells of the love and the sorrow of grown-up people, but from the child's point of view, and with such exquisite skill as to make it one of the most beautiful of children's books. It is a pure idyl, sweet and fresh as the songs of the birds that carol through its pages. Zélie, a young girl, records her memories of a summer which her English cousin Hector, a lad of twelve, spent with Gran'mère and herself at the old grange of Salaret. For his arrival the drawing-room floor "was fresh waxed and polished; a faint scent of honey rose from the shining boards. . . . The peach-trees outside were in full blossom, and their pink boughs crossed each other before the open windows, throwing rosy reflections on the floor." They walk in the woods.

"The sun was so low that the shadows of the trees crossed each other, in long drawn-out perspective, over the patches of shining white and mauve anemones and green tufts of daffodil spikes which broke the russet of last year's fallen leaves, and the wood was alive with the cries of little birds going to roost. Sweet and harsh, low and shrill, they answered each other across the hollow, till we could have believed that every bud and branch had its voice, and that the trees were singing in chorus."

There they meet the lovers, Georges, the farmer-soldier of Saint Loubouët, and Irma, the peasant-girl. Zélie remembers them long after. Hector describes Irma's beauty to her possible rival:

"Then her lips—she really has lips, as they say in story-books, the color of cherries; and nice little feet, with good sensible shoes that she can walk in; and hands burnt a pretty brown color in the sun. And sometimes, when she laughs, she puts her head on one side just like a blackbird. Doesn't she, Zélie?"

Irma's father is poor; the loss of his ox threatens the family with ruin. It is now the rich miller's time to press his suit. Georges is far away with his colonel at Montfort, and who shall bring him to save Irma? Hector and Zélie secretly set forth on this errand. The oft-told tale of runaway children is related with such pure simplicity as makes it inexpressibly charming. At the fourth nightfall, in the rain, they reach Montfort, footsore, fainting, almost starving; but Hector is still brave for loyal little Zélie's sake. "A gentleman must not fail the people who trust in him," he says. He will sing in the street to win a few sous. The first verse of the English "Home, Sweet Home" is scarcely finished when the astonished voice of Georges greets their ears. They are safe, though Zélie falls unconscious in his arms. Their affectionate, impossible errand has succeeded. Irma and Georges are happy, and Gran'mère forgives the anxiety of those four days of searching and waiting, for the sake of the generous daring of her children. The author, Miss Flora L. Shaw, had already achieved an enviable success in her 'Castle Blair,' to which this book must greatly add.

Of at least one element in a book boys may be conceded to be competent judges. Improprieties of course excepted, if it be "interesting," that alone will make up for almost any deficiencies of style, subject, or execution. Mr. Ballantyne's 'Giant of the North'; or, Pokings Round the Pole' (T. Nelson & Sons), neatly printed and bound, is well calculated to impart to the audience for which it was written all the old misconceptions in regard to the Polar regions, and many new ones, some of which would be startling were they not presented in a manner so particularly tedious. Impossible physical conditions, impracticable pseudo-scientific masquerading by an ungrammatical father, an ill-bred son, a preposterous negro, and an Esquimaux who talks like Joseph Cook—these are the materials by the aid of which the author would rivet the attention of the boy of the period. We venture to predict that he will not succeed, and that it will be an unusual boy who will not find him out at once. Were it not so tiresome, the book would be objectionable on account of the bad breeding exhibited by one of the family described in it, and which the author appears to have mistaken for wit. As it is, however, the work is its own most efficient antidote.

Of the three boys' books on Boston which, by a singular coincidence, one and the same season has brought forth, Mr. Butterworth's is easily the poorest, though quantitatively it may offer most for the money, and it brings the story down to date. But its literary defects are great and its accuracy is not to be relied on. Mr. Samuel Adams Drake's 'Around the Hub' (Roberts Bros.) is, on the other hand, much the best; for though the author is not as skilful with his pen as Mr. Scudder, he is not a slovenly writer, and we think he has done well to drop the burdensome fiction of *dramatis personæ*. His book ends with the Revolution, as does Mr. Scudder's, but its scheme is quite different, dealing rather with epochs than with men, and this in a way which betokens first-hand knowledge such as neither of the other books we have mentioned implies. This is especially felt in the descriptions of primitive manners and customs in Boston, as well as in the laudable reference to authorities with a "look it up." Mr. Drake sedulously avoids painting the Puritan forefathers in rose-color, though perhaps the indirect reproach that the better geographical knowledge of the Dutch secured the latter the glory of founding the greatest city on this continent, may be thought whimsical. Another good feature is justice to the character of the British soldiery, a point worthy of a little more expansion by reference to the nature of standing and mercenary as compared with patriot armies. In the last chapters, on the siege of Boston, Mr. Drake's archæology gets the better occasionally of his dramatic purpose. The illustrations of this book are generally good and useful, yet might easily be improved upon; and we cannot account for the total lack of portraits and maps.

Nineteen Christian Centuries in Outline. A Guide to Historical Study, for Home Reading and Literary Clubs. By Lewis O. Thompson, formerly President Northwestern University, Watertown, Wis. With an Introduction by Rev. J. R. Miller, author of 'Week-day Religion.' Chicago: A. Craig & Co. 1881. 12mo, pp. 379.

THIS book, published as a guide to historical study, appears from the preface to have been itself the outcome of the practical work of a literary club. Except for the assurance given, however, we could hardly believe that the programmes here presented "were substantially followed" in the course of study pursued by such a club. Imagine a single evening spent upon the following topics for the fifth century (p. 169): Characteristics of this age; Hypatia; the Council of Ephesus; St. Patrick; the idea of ancient liberty; the battle of Châlons; the Seven Sleepers; St. Augustine; the Council of Chalcedon; the fall of the Roman Empire; St. Jerome; monastic life; St. Simeon Stylites! What can result from so crowded a course but scrappy superficiality? Nothing could save it but great skill and strong personal power in the conductor of the club, and these we may fairly assume to have been present. As to the book, it is in its later chapters hardly more than a catalogue of names and events. The earlier centuries are much fuller—in fact, very discursive in some parts, especially in the history of Christianity; the first six centuries make up just half of the volume. A good deal of useful, but not very well digested nor always accurate, information is given, and for each century there is a pretty full chronological table, in which we find such remarkable statements as: "56. Rotterdam is built; 486. Rise of the Feudal System in France under King Clovis; 580. Latin ceases to be spoken in Italy; 996. The German Empire is made elective by Otho III."

My First Holiday. By Caroline H. Dall. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1881.

UNDER the title of 'My First Holiday,' and in the form of letters to friends at home, Mrs. Dall has given to the public an account of a few months' travel, during the summer and autumn of 1880, in Colorado, Utah, and California. The last-named State receives the largest share of attention; and whatever other errors the writer may have fallen into, she has at least escaped the hitherto somewhat common one of bestowing unlimited admiration upon almost everything connected with that country and its people. Those of Mrs. Dall's readers whose ideas concerning California have been drawn from some of the popular books on the subject that have appeared within the last ten years, should be prepared to have some pleasant illusions destroyed. The first page sounds the warning note of disenchantment in a dedication of the book "to the dear cousins who turned desolation and dreariness into delight"; which, however complimentary to the cousins, is such very plain language about the place they live in that one searches the pages impatiently, in advance, to see whether their lot was cast in the arid waste of Death Valley or on some glaring alkali flat of the Ninety-Mile Desert, or, possibly, the disfigured hillside of some abandoned mining gulch. It will probably surprise some readers to discover that Stockton, one of the principal cities of California, could be thought capable of furnishing (outside of its lunatic asylum) a background of "desolation and dreariness" dark enough to set forth anybody's virtues so conspicuously as the dedication of Mrs. Dall's book implies.

Mrs. Dall has not suffered herself to be imposed upon with any extravagant notions about "the finest climate in the world," or the boasted excellence of the fruit, or anything else, in fact, for which the Californian claims superiority over the rest of the universe. The so-called uniform climate of California she finds only a uniformity of change, each day giving greater variations of temperature than any Atlantic town can show. She spent weeks in San Francisco during which neither the rising nor the setting of the sun could be seen, so heavy were the fogs. As for fruits, the market was full of peaches, pears, plums, grapes, nectarines, apricots, and figs, all lovely in color, but without any pleasant taste, and compared with them Mrs. Dall declares one Northern peach to be worth the whole lot. She went to California especially to eat grapes in their season, but they were all sour and watery and unfit to eat. The strawberries were beautiful to look at, but so disagreeable and bitter in flavor as to be past recognition if taken into the mouth with the eyes shut. The melons were not so sweet as those from Boston fruit-stands; and a month's search in the markets failed to produce a single ripe tomato. Moreover, the fish markets are poor and not nicely kept, and the meats are

very inferior to those in the Eastern stalls. These things, the reader is assured, are not said captiously, "but to comfort those who fancy everything good can be found in California." The book is rich in this kind of comfort. Its author saw little or nothing in California which was thoroughly good; but then she did not see the Yosemite Valley, which Mr. R. W. Emerson, another ill-satisfied critic, is said to have pronounced "the only thing in California quite up to the brag."

This tone of the book, however, will not diminish its interest for a multitude of readers, especially in the West; and much that it contains will meet with a hearty response of approval from many who have gone over the same ground. Not the least interesting portion of Mrs. Dall's narrative is the description of her visits to Leadville and to Salt Lake City, and her comments on the state of education and morals in those communities. Her observations on Pullman-car conductors and porters will doubtless arouse some sympathetic recollections on the part of almost every one who has made the overland journey. Throughout her book, Mrs. Dall offers frequent observations on the geology and botany of the country passed through; but the use of terms like "volcanic limestone" implies little knowledge of rocks and their classification; and "escholtzia" is not the proper spelling of the name given to the California poppy in honor of the botanist, Dr. Eschscholtz.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barth, A. The Religions of India. London: Trübner & Co.
Beecher, Rev. H. W. Norwood. New York: Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $2.
Beecher, Rev. H. W. Yale Lectures on Preaching. Three vols. in one. New York: Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $2.
Benson, E. Gaspara Stampa. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Blackie, Prof. J. S. Lay Sermons. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. $2.
Chatto, W. A., and Jackson, J. Treatise on Wood-Engraving. New ed. New York: J. W. Bouton.
Elliott, Rev. C., and Harsha, Rev. W. J. Biblical Hermeneutics. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1 50.
Fothergill, Jessie. Kith and Kin. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Glider, W. H. Schwatka's Search. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. $3.
Godet, Prof. F. Lectures in Defence of the Christian Faith. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1 25.
Hardy, Prof. S. S. Elements of Quaternions. Boston: Ginn & Heath. $2 30.
Havergal, Francis R. Compensation, and Other Devotional Poems. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 75 cents.
Heard, F. F. Oddities of the Law. Boston: Soule & Bugbee.
Jacob, Major G. A. Manual of Hindu Pantheism: The Vedántasára. London: Trübner & Co.
Lanier, S. The Boy's Mabinogion. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. $3.
Ludewig, J. Geist und Stoff. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Macarthur, Blanche, and Moore, Jennie. Lessons in Figure Painting in Water Colors. New York: Cassell & Co. $3.
Mathews, Joanna H. Jessie Bradford's Secret. New York: Cassell & Co. $1 25.
Mateaux, C. L., and Lawson, Lizzie. Old Proverbs with New Faces. New York: Cassell & Co. $2 50.
McCaskey, J. P. Butler's Literary Selections. Philadelphia: T. H. Butler & Co.
Milton's Paradise Lost, illustrated by G. Doré. New York: Cassell & Co. $6.
Miot de Melito, Count. Memoirs. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Mysteries of Heron Dyke: a Tale. New York: Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
My Wife and My Wife's Sister: a Tale. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Oberländer, R. Fremde Völker. Part 1. New York: L. W. Schmidt.
Owen, Rev. J. Evenings with the Skeptics. 2 vols. New York: J. W. Bouton.
Owen, Elizabeth S. The Whittier Birthday Book. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Peck, Prof. W. G. Introductory Course of Natural Philosophy. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. $1 20.
Porter, Rev. N. Books and Reading. New ed. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. $2.
Raymond, Prof. R. R. Shakespeare for the Young Folk. New York: Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $2 75.
Reiss, W., and Stübel, A. The Necropolis of Ancon in Peru. Part 4. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $7 50.
Rosemary and Rue: a Tale. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1.
Schasler, Dr. M. Das System der Künste. Leipzig: Wilhelm Friedrich.
Schurman, Prof. J. G. Kantian Ethics and the Ethics of Evolution. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Selected Proofs from *Scribner's Monthly* and *St. Nicholas*. New York: The Century Co. $6.
Shaw, Flora L. Hector: a Story. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Spurr, G. G. The Land of Gold: a Tale of '49. Boston: A. Williams & Co.
Stern, S. M. and M. Studien und Plaudereien im Vaterland. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1 50.
Stewart, A., and Long, G. Plutarch's Lives. Vol. III. London: George Bell & Sons.
Stockton, F. R. The Floating Prince, and Other Fairy Tales. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. $2 50.
Stoddard, W. S. Esau Hardery: a Tale. New York: White & Stokes. $1 50.
Stoughton, Rev. J. History of Religion in England. 6 vols. New and revised ed. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son.
Stowe, Mrs. H. B. Domestic Tales:—My Wife and I.—We and Our Neighbors.—Pink and White Tyranny.—Poganuc People. New York: Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $3.
Thurber, F. B. Coffee: from Plantation to Cup. Am. Grocer Pub. Association.
Trowbridge, J. T. A Home Idyl, and Other Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 25.
Trowbridge, J. T. The Pocket Rifle. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1 25.
Tyler, Prof. M. C. History of American Literature—1607-1676. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.
Valentine, Mrs. Shakspearian Tales in Verse. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. $3.
Vandegrift, Margaret. Under the Dog-Star. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Verne, J. Tribulations of a Chinaman in China. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1 50.
Wagner, P. Klänge aus Vergangenen Zeiten. New York: L. W. Schmidt.

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The Week.

THE Wall Street markets were disturbed during the week, first by a report that the Tradesmen's National Bank of this city was in trouble, which report proved to be an invention, and then by rumors that two Boston banks were in trouble; these latter proved to be correct. The Pacific National Bank of that city was obliged to close its doors after a most disgraceful exhibit of mismanagement. The other embarrassed bank was the Central National, which was compelled to stop payment, but only for about two hours, thanks to the assistance of the banks of the Boston Clearing-House Association, of which it is a member; so that at the close of the week it was apparently in a strong position. The Pacific National was put in the charge of the Bank Examiner, who reported that its entire capital of $1,000,000, and a good part if not all of the additional liability of the stockholders, would be needed to meet its obligations. The trouble with the bank was that, without the knowledge of its ornamental Board of Directors, it had undertaken to "carry" a speculator in mining and low-priced railroad stocks; for some of its loans to him it had received collateral security, and for others nothing except his personal obligations. The cashier of the Central had lent money of that bank to the Pacific, but received security for the larger part of the loans; and it appears that he had done this without the knowledge of the directors.

Altogether, the disclosures had the effect of creating widespread distrust respecting bank management generally, and of temporarily disturbing the Boston and New York money markets. At the New York Stock Exchange the most was made of the matter; and after the crisis in Boston had passed, rumors of other troubles in banks were kept afloat in Wall Street; so that one of the favorable conditions for a "bear speculation" in stocks may be said to have existed through the latter part of the week. Prices of speculative stocks fell during the week from ¼@4½ per cent. for stocks actively dealt in, and 2 to 13½ per cent. for "specialties," in which transactions are more limited. United States bonds fell ⅛@⅝, except for the extended 6's, which advanced ⅝, and railroad bonds declined ¼@2¾ per cent. The money market became active, and needy borrowers paid daily commissions in addition to 6 per cent. per annum. The high rates for money lowered the rates for foreign exchange, but not to the point at which gold could be imported. The new Secretary of the Treasury has not yet called in a large amount of extended 6 per cent. bonds, as it was reported he would do, but offered to take $4,000,000 of these bonds at par and accrued interest; he failed, however, to get any part of these, and the money market, therefore, received from the Treasury no extraordinary help to offset the shipments of currency to Boston, and the ordinary drain at this season of the year to the South for the movement of the cotton crop.

There is good ground for believing that banking mismanagement, of which several startling illustrations have lately come to light, may work its own cure by the magnitude of the losses in which it has involved stockholders. Of course every improvement which experience suggests should be introduced in the system of examinations and reports; but if a theoretically perfect law should be passed it would still be ineffectual without a faithful and thorough administration; and even with it a shrewd rascal by new tricks may elude the closest vigilance. Not only expert and industrious examiners are wanted, but honest tellers and cashiers, presidents with their eyes wide open, and directors who do something more than nod over official reports at regular meetings. No statute can take the place of good business management. Such management can be secured in the end only by the efforts of those to whom the business belongs, who divide its profits and bear its losses—the owners of the bank's shares. If they do not take pains to appoint competent and trustworthy agents, their interests will suffer as surely as will those of other neglected business. The money stolen from the Mechanics' Bank of Newark, and the money loosely lent without sufficient security by the Pacific Bank of Boston, comes out of the pockets of the stockholders. Not only do they lose their capital, but they are responsible for an equal amount to make good the losses of the depositors. The stockholders, therefore, have the first and largest interest in good management.

The Republican Central Committee of this State has appointed a committee to report what amendments to the constitutions of the district associations are necessary to change them into real Republican primaries. The chairman of the committee is Mr. George Bliss, who only a few weeks ago, in the Convention held in this city, opposed and succeeded in defeating a resolution providing for just such a reorganization. The appointment of the committee is a matter of no ordinary importance, because it shows that the managers of the Machine in the city have been startled by some of the results of the late election, and see that they cannot any longer ride roughshod over public opinion in their party through a system of nomination by oath-bound clubs from which the majority of Republicans are excluded. Mr. Elihu Root, one of the committee, stated in an interview on Saturday, that the requirement of the district organizations of a pledge in advance to support the candidate, bad or good, would probably be amended in some way. He thinks that the great mass of voters are too indolent or too much engaged in business to trouble themselves about primaries—which is undoubtedly true—but believes that by repealing the pledge clause "we shall deprive this class of voters of all grounds of complaint that they cannot enter our ranks." This shows that the Machine leaders have begun to reflect, and when a Machine leader begins reflecting there is always hope for the honest voter who is ready to exert himself.

The large independent vote polled by Mr. Wolfe in Pennsylvania has not unnaturally convinced him that he was right in believing that he could do more for reform outside the party lines than within them. He therefore would have nothing to do with a Republican conference held in Philadelphia on Wednesday week, designed to take measures for restoring party harmony and at the same time overthrowing "bossism." He said that while he regarded the purposes of the conference as excellent, he did not think that it would result in the control of the next State Convention; but his principal objection was, that "if those who met together in conference in the Continental Hotel should fail to control the next Convention, they would abide by and sustain its action just as they did in the case of Mr. Baily, though it means in its results the perpetuating and strengthening of the power of the bosses for another four years, thereby enabling them largely to control the name of the next Republican candidate for President and the election of the next Republican United States Senator to succeed Senator J. Donald Cameron." This would be a mere prolongation of Machine rule. For these reasons Mr. Wolfe and his supporters (who are much bolder now that their leader has shown that he can bring out an independent vote of fifty thousand against the Machine) decided not to go into the Convention, and not to be bound by its decision, but to go on and strengthen their own organization throughout the State, and keep it as a permanent and serious threat hanging over the bosses' heads. The latter have evidently not heard the last of the Wolfe movement, nor of that sickening idea, reform.

The recent Tariff Convention at Chicago, according to the *Tribune* of that city, was a melancholy affair. The large Music Hall had been hired for the occasion, but the number of delegates and spectators was so small that the Convention adjourned to the room of a singing society in the same building having a seating capacity of 250 persons, but even this was too large for the purpose, the room being at no time more than half full. One-quarter of the delegates were residents of Chicago, and they included a number of distillers who were interested in the whiskey tax. There was also the usual number of parasites—editors of weekly newspapers, lecturers, and colporteurs—who make a living by preying upon the protected classes. The proceedings were tame and altogether perfunctory, and the demonstration was far from being an impressive one.

The resolutions of the Tariff Convention are very strange reading. The first ascribes to the "protective system" the supply of the money which crushed the Rebellion, which revived the national credit, and discharged in large part the national debt. This totally ignores the services of the internal revenue, which every year since 1861 has brought in almost half the national income. The statement of the Convention, therefore, admitting everything it would claim as to the wisdom of "the protective system," is not simply wildly inaccurate, but a gross slander on direct taxation. The resolutions further thank the protective system for "turning the balance of trade steadily in our favor," but, as Mr. Chamberlain pointed out in his speech in England the other day, this same thing has been done for France by going to war, getting well thrashed, and having to pay the expenses. Nothing so effectually "turns the balance of trade in your favor" as contracting a big foreign debt, which compels you to export a great deal of your products without getting anything back in return. One of the most curious crazes of the nineteenth century is the satisfaction some men take in contemplating this state of things. "Ha, ha!" they say, "look how much we sent abroad last year, and how little we received in return! God bless debt; it has been the making of us!"

The recommendation of the Convention that the Government should "so discriminate in favor of American vessels" engaged in foreign trade as "to secure to them a fair and lucrative share of the world's carrying trade, proportionate to the dignity and power of the country in other respects," has all the vagueness of the resolution of a Socialist meeting. We cannot discriminate in favor of American ships trading to foreign ports by a tax on foreign shipping, because the foreigners would retaliate. We can only discriminate by a bounty—that is, by hiring American shipowners to to carry on a losing business. If the bounty were needed, the business could not, from a national point of view, be considered "lucrative." No business is lucrative which has no profits, and in which those who carry it on are saved from bankruptcy by gifts. Whether the gifts come from the public or from family friends makes little difference. Nor can such a business be proportionate to "the dignity and power of the country." There can be no relation between "the dignity and power of the country" and a business which does not pay. We might as well say that every rich man's dignity required him to have a lot of poor relations and lame horses.

The *Sun* published on Tuesday a sworn statement by Mr. M. C. Redell with regard to the alleged attempt made by Attorney-General MacVeagh to induce him to steal Dorsey's books for the benefit of the Government in the Star-route cases. The correspondent who furnishes the statement, says that Mr. Redell is a man of "good standing." He will not remain a man of good standing hereafter, however, for he appears, according to his own account, to be a brazen liar and accomplished spy. His story is that he is Dorsey's "stenographer and business agent," and in this capacity has acquired great skill in imitating his employer's handwriting. In fact Redell can sign Dorsey's name "so near like he does" that he has succeeded in signing checks that "passed the bank." What was done with the proceeds of such checks he does not say, but as it is improbable that he would accuse himself under oath of forgery, it may be assumed that this practice in imitation of handwriting was merely a pleasant "little game" between the two, pursued out of business hours, in order that the stenographer might increase his sphere of general usefulness. The substance of Redell's story is that he, knowing Dorsey to be a perfectly innocent man, thought it advisable to worm himself into the confidence of the Attorney-General so as to find out all he could about the case against him. For this purpose he hinted to Senator Clayton, who was taking an active part against Dorsey, that he would be a valuable witness for the Government. Clayton then brought about a meeting between him and Mr. James. Redell frankly told Clayton that he wanted in return for his testimony, first, the reëstablishment of a steamboat route on the Savannah River; second, the payment of the claim of one Isaac Jennings against the Post-Office Department; and third, a position for his father-in-law, whom he was then supporting, in one of the departments. Clayton said that he would do what he could with Mr. James.

It was then arranged that he should see the Attorney-General, whom he met the next day. At this interview he told Mr. MacVeagh a long story about certain "books" of Dorsey's, containing valuable evidence, which he said were in New York, but which in reality had no existence. The Attorney-General, he says, urged him to steal the books, and told him in a pleasant but general way that he should not suffer by the loss of Dorsey's employment. Redell never mentioned anything of all this to the innocent Dorsey, because he knew it would receive that moralist's condemnation. At one time he not unnaturally thought of leaving the country, but Mr. MacVeagh, in order to impress upon him "the fearful consequences of such a step," gave him "a history of the Udderzook trial," which was, if we remember right, a murder case. He also mentioned incidentally that "he held Cook in his grip, and could make him an outcast on the face of the earth." In what precise words the Attorney-General urged Redell to steal the books he does not say, but probably he whispered hoarsely in his ear (as villains usually do under such circumstances): "I must have the books. Steal them, and you shall have that you demand. Steamboat route No. 15,099 shall be reëstablished, the Jennings claim shall be paid, and your venerable father-in-law shall no longer be a burden to you. All this shall be yours if you will but steal the books"—which, by the way, Mr. MacVeagh somewhat inconsistently stated he did not need, as he could convict Dorsey "forty times over" without them. Redell was greatly shocked by this behavior of the Attorney-General, and sent this full account of his nefarious proposition to the President last June. He and the Cabinet must have had a good laugh over it.

About the wisdom of Mr. MacVeagh's resignation there are two opinions. We incline ourselves to the belief that it would have been better for the country and better for his own fame had he made up his mind to remain in office, as President Arthur wished him to do, until the Star-route cases were disposed of. But we recognize the fact that he himself, who holds the opposite opinion, knows more of the facts than we do, and that the very reasons which make it seem desirable that he should continue in office, also make his view *prima facie* respectable. In other words, no final judgment can be passed on the matter until his side of the case is heard, and it seems to us he would do well to let it be heard. In the meantime the attempt to "break him down," and by breaking him down to discredit the cause which he represents and has served, will probably fail through excessive lying. Moderate and careful lying might have damaged him, for, as we have said, many good people doubt his judgment as shown in his present course; but the gross self-indulgence of his detractors has been carried almost far enough to save him the necessity of explanation.

Mr. Thurlow Weed says he has often thought that if three of the most successful business men the country has produced—Commodore Vanderbilt, George Law, and Dean Richmond—"had to undergo a competitive examination in these days of civil-service reform as candidates for positions in the custom-house or post-office, they could not get places as night watchmen in the Collector's office, or letter-carriers in the postal service." It may do for a gentleman in the enjoyment of well-won leisure like Mr. Weed to think such things as an amusement, but they are hardly worth thinking as contributions to the world's stock of wisdom. The competitive examinations in the custom-house or post-office are intended to test the capacity for the discharge of routine duties of persons of moderate ambition who are satisfied with a small salary paid monthly. They are not intended for persons who expect to be millionnaires. Men like young Law, young Vanderbilt, and young Richmond do not seek places in the custom-house and post-office; they prefer other lines of life. They are, therefore, not shut out by the examinations, and it is no more an argument against the examinations that these men could not pass them than it is an argument against the exaction of writing and spelling at West Point that Napoleon wrote illegibly and never could spell, or that some generals have risen from the ranks. The custom-house and post-office tests are, in short, applied to ordinary men who are to keep accounts or deliver letters, and not to men who mean to run railroads and lines of steamboats. The Government has no occasion for the services of great speculators. If it had, however, it would be far better to subject them to examinations such as naval officers undergo, or as to the course they would pursue in stock operations under given circumstances, than to let the Senators and Representatives pick them out, because in the latter case they would get their places by secretly

giving "points" to their "influence," and not through their superior merits.

The contest over the representation of Utah in Congress which is going to come up this winter will probably lead to the publication of a good deal of "news" with regard to Mormonism and its spread in the West, in the course of the next month or two. A Washington correspondent of the *Tribune*, for instance, sends word that the Mormons have been for years "quietly but industriously laying their plans to control in a measure the local governments of the Territories in the neighborhood of Utah, and have in a great measure succeeded in their preliminary efforts." It is also stated that the Mormon priests are civil judges as well, and try temporal cases, which the correspondent says is "a pretty plain admission of the charge of connection between the Mormon church and state." This connection has notoriously existed ever since the Mormon Church was founded, and the exercise of temporal functions by the Mormon priests was one of the reasons which led years ago to the passage of the so-called "Poland" Bill by Congress, which took away their general civil jurisdiction from the "Probate" or Common Judges and transferred it to the District Courts. This legislation has probably, however, not broken up the Mormons' habit of resorting voluntarily to their own tribunals, and no mere legislation will ever make them do it.

In Ireland the Land Act seems to be working as well as the enormous number of applications for the benefits of it will allow. Of course these applications are so many declarations of willingness to pay rent, and therefore so many proofs of the failure of the no-rent manifesto of the League. In fact, there are numerous indications of a desire on the part of the leaders to drop the land question altogether now and go back to Home Rule, and this is probably the turn things will take during the coming winter. When Parnell comes out of jail he will find a very large proportion of the tenantry settled for fifteen years certain on farms the rent of which has been reduced from one-quarter to one half, and the remainder looking forward to the same thing. Under such circumstances a revival of the League, in anything like its former strength, will be impossible, and he will have to raise the old banner of Home Rule. There is little question that this will furnish materials for a very respectable agitation, but the Leaguers will, after their late failure, never again be able to speak with the same authority. They will, however, be able to say, and with a great deal of force and effect, that as tumult and disorder produced the Land Act, they may be relied on to produce Home Rule also.

It seems as if Gambetta's appointment of Paul Bert as Minister of Public Instruction really was a mistake. It has produced, at least in the official class, numerous signs of disgust, which will undoubtedly be greatly increased if the story be true that Gambetta proposes to detach Worship from the Ministry of the Interior, and attach it to Public Instruction instead of Fine Arts. Paul Bert as Minister of Public Worship would be so grotesque a spectacle that one would naturally expect that his self-respect would not permit him to hold the place. In fact it is difficult to see how any Positivist can hold any position giving him the direction or superintendence of religious organizations. A public officer ought to respect his work in order to remain an honest man.

The latest diplomatic news from South America is not of a reassuring character. Great excitement, as was only natural, was produced in Chili by the publication of General Hurlbut's letter to Admiral Lynch informing him that he could not annex any Chilian territory without violating international law, and M. Balmaceda, the Minister of Foreign Affairs at Santiago, at once addressed a note to General Kilpatrick, our Minister to Chili, asking for an explanation. In the ordinary course of diplomacy this would have been a rather singular step. If the Chilian Government felt aggrieved by Mr. Hurlbut's behavior, the natural thing to do would be to instruct the Chilian Minister at Washington to make representations and ask for explanations from the State Department. General Kilpatrick knows nothing about Mr. Hurlbut's instructions, and Mr. Hurlbut knows nothing about General Kilpatrick's. But the reason why the Chilians at once called upon General Kilpatrick to find out whether Mr. Hurlbut was acting within his powers was, that they knew in advance what the answer would be—that General Kilpatrick was no "red-tape" diplomatist, and that he would have no hesitation in hauling Hurlbut over the coals in a thoroughgoing way. This he promised at once to do. He declares that he has read Mr. Hurlbut's "memorandum" and his speech at his reception by Calderon, and that the first "cannot be considered of official or diplomatic character"; he then quotes his own instructions, which were to the effect that the United States regarded the war between Chili and Peru as ended, and the opportunity for friendly intervention on our part as probably gone by. He was also emphatically told "under no circumstances" to offer any advice to the Chilian Government unless it should be asked for.

If this were all, there would be nothing to say about the instructions, except that they made it very improbable that General Hurlbut could have any authority for what he has been doing. But the reply concludes with the following statement:

> "Another clause refers to the Provisional Government of Señor Garcia Calderon, which the Washington Cabinet hoped to see established, and instructs me to encourage it only in a manner becoming the dignity and neutrality of a plenipotentiary without interfering in any manner which might appear officious."

Hurlbut is said to be preparing a reply to General Kilpatrick which will show that he has not exceeded the limits of his authority at all. Kilpatrick is understood to be just as zealous a friend of Chili as Hurlbut is of Peru, and it is said he offered his services to the Chilians at the outbreak of the war. Both of them were given their places as a reward for campaign speeches. Hurlbut, as appears from his proclamations, is grossly ignorant of the elementary principles of international law, and completely indifferent to the decorum of diplomatic intercourse. But it is entirely impossible for the Administration any longer to escape from the responsibility for such disputes as these. The affair is gradually assuming the proportions of a diplomatic scandal, gravely involving the credit and reputation of the country abroad.

The Emperor's speech at the opening of the German Reichstag, delivered this time, on account of his indisposition, not by the Emperor in person, but by the Imperial Chancellor, is a curious document. With regard to the foreign relations of the empire its tone could not be more pacific. It expresses the most absolute confidence in the maintenance of peace, and refers particularly to the meetings of the Emperors of Germany, Austria, and Russia as "expressions of close personal and political relations between the sovereigns and their empires," all of which is reported to have been received in the capitals of Europe with great satisfaction But the passages of the Emperor's speech concerning home affairs produced a very different effect upon the members of the Reichstag who listened to their delivery. The Emperor speaks as if the recent elections, and the popular sentiment which through them found expression, were things of no consequence whatever. In the campaign preceding those elections certain measures urged by Prince Bismarck upon the Reichstag at former sessions were distinctly and avowedly in issue before the voters, and a formidable majority of the latter pronounced themselves against those measures. Although the newly elected Reichstag is divided into a considerable number of parties and "fractions," a strong majority of its members is known to be opposed to the Chancellor's present programme, the principal features of which are the tobacco monopoly, appropriations for two years, legislative periods of four years, the invalid workingmen's insurance by the state, etc. All these propositions are, in the Emperor's speech, urged again upon the attention of the Reichstag as if the people had never expressed any opinion about themnd and they are pressed with that characteristic paternal unction which Bismarck knows how to infuse into the Emperor's official utterances. It is no wonder that the members listened to these things "with icy coldness, and that not one sentence was applauded." The speech shows that the Emperor and the Chancellor are in perfect accord. The latter will, of course, remain in office, but he will probably find it more difficult than ever to form out of the obstreperous elements in the Reichstag combinations and occasional majorities by which to carry his measures. The Opposition has not only made respectable gains in point of numbers, but it has also gained in spirit. It feels the people at its back, and will not be so easily overawed by Bismarck's towering will and renown as on former occasions. An early dissolution of the Reichstag, when the Chancellor finds the majority intractable, may therefore be looked for.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

THE selection of jurors for Guiteau's trial was completed on Wednesday, and on Thursday the case was opened for the prosecution by District Attorney Corkhill, who delivered a very effective address showing that over a year ago Guiteau had conceived the idea of getting a foreign office under the Garfield Administration. He first applied to General Garfield for the Austrian Mission, but afterward wrote to Mr. Blaine that he had changed his mind and concluded to apply for the Consul-Generalship at Paris, as he "preferred Paris to Vienna." He followed up this last communication by "persistent personal appeals, and by writing notes and letters urging in various ways his claims for this position." On the 8th of June, finding that his efforts to secure the Consul-Generalship had proved unsuccessful, he borrowed fifteen dollars from a friend, with which he purchased a pistol "of the largest calibre." On the 18th of the same month he went to the depot intending to kill the President as he started for Long Branch with Mrs. Garfield. He concluded, however, to forego the accomplishment of his purpose on this occasion, and on returning to his room he sat down and wrote that he had been deterred from committing the act by the appearance of Mrs. Garfield, who, to use his own words, "looked so thin, and clung so tenderly to the President's arm, that my heart failed me to part them." After the close of Mr. Corkhill's address the examination of witnesses began. The object of the opening address for the prosecution was to show that Guiteau's act had long been premeditated and was the outgrowth of his failure to obtain office under the Garfield Administration. Mr. Blaine and Señor Comacho, the Venezuelan Minister, and other witnesses of the shooting, were examined on Thursday and Friday. No testimony of any importance, with which the public was not already acquainted, was elicited from them. Mr. Brown, President Garfield's private secretary, was also examined on Friday. He produced eight letters from Guiteau to the President. The first three were on the subject of the Consul-Generalship, and the last five referred in addition to the contest which was then going on between the Administration and the Senators from New York. In these letters Guiteau says that he "stands by" President Garfield. On Saturday Mr. George C. Maynard, who lent Guiteau the money with which he bought the pistol, was examined and the pistol identified. Dr. Bliss was also examined and a part of President Garfield's vertebræ was exhibited in court. A great sensation was created on this day by an attempt which was made to shoot Guiteau in the van in which he was being conveyed back from the court to the jail. The man who made the attempt, and who was mounted at the time, is said to be William Jones, a farmer residing in the neighborhood of Washington, and notoriously eccentric and a hard drinker. He was arrested, but he denies that he was the man who did the shooting, and his identity is a matter of doubt. On Monday Mr. Robinson, who has been the associate counsel for the defence, requested Judge Cox to relieve him, owing to the impossibility of his agreeing with Mr. Scoville as to the manner in which the case should be conducted. Judge Cox granted his request. Two or three more witnesses were examined, and the prosecution then closed its case. Mr. Scoville then began his opening address.

The treasurer of the Garfield Memorial Hospital Fund announces that the contributions now amount to $80,000, and that assurances have been received from all parts of the country that this sum will soon be increased by large additional subscriptions.

The committee appointed by the Medical Society of Washington to investigate the reports of the prevalence of malarial diseases in Washington report that the statements which have been published during the last year or two, that an unusual amount of sickness has prevailed in the city, are entirely unfounded, and that Washington is "unquestionably as healthy as the most favored cities of this country or Europe."

Proceedings in the second of the Star-route cases were begun in a very unsatisfactory manner on Monday. The suit was brought against F. B. Lilley, ex-Deputy Auditor for the Post-office, who was charged with having taken a bribe from a mail contractor, Brott by name. Brott, who was the Government's only valuable witness, did not appear in court, and Colonel Cook, the counsel for the Government, failed to make much of a case. It is stated that had Brott been present the Government might easily have made a *prima-facie* case. The story is that "interested persons" persuaded Brott to leave Washington so that he might not appear in court.

The Pacific National Bank of Boston suspended payment on Friday. The immediate cause of the suspension was the failure of a stock broker named Theodore C. Weeks, who had been allowed to overdraw his account by a large amount. The Central Bank of Boston also suspended payment for two hours on Saturday. The bank examiner said that it was impossible for any director or official of the Pacific to have learned by examination of the books that the bank had been placed in a perilous condition, as the President of the bank had made no record or entry of the transactions with Weeks, but had "carried it all in his head."

Postmaster-General James has published his report for the fiscal year ending June 30. The report estimates the deficiency for the next fiscal year at less than a million dollars; urges the establishment of postal-savings depositories after the pattern of those in operation in Great Britain; denounces the extravagance in the service, and particularly in the Star service, and states that the legislative branch of the Government is largely responsible for the "scandals attending the administration of the Post-office for the past quarter of a century, because the power to remedy the evil could have been exerted at any time." The report concludes with an appeal for a method of minor appointments in the civil service which shall be "independent of personal or partisan influence."

The Postmaster-General has decided that upon all paper sent as merchandise there may be printed any matter not having the character of an actual or personal correspondence.

The Commissioner of Indian Affairs has made his annual report to the Secretary of the Interior. The whole number of Indians in the United States is 261,912, all of whom, except about 15,416, are more or less in charge of agents of the Government. The report urges a radical change of the Indian policy in some respects. The present system, the report says, never will and never can civilize the Indians. "If white men were treated as we treat the Indians, the result would certainly be a race of worthless vagabonds."

General Walker, ex-Superintendent of the Census, has submitted a statement to the Secretary of the Interior containing some interesting facts concerning the representation in the next House of Representatives. The total population of the States is 49,371,340. Upon this basis the following changes in representation would occur in the Forty-eighth Congress: Arkansas, California, Michigan, Mississippi, South Carolina, and West Virginia would gain one representative each; Minnesota and Nebraska two each; Alabama, Illinois, Maine, Maryland, New Hampshire, Ohio, Tennessee, and Vermont would lose one each; Pennsylvania two, and New York three. The other States would show no change.

The project of dividing the Territory of Dakota at the forty-second parallel and admitting the northern half into the Union as a State, is receiving considerable attention in Washington and in the Territory itself. Several of the "prominent representative men" of Dakota held a meeting at Fargo recently to discuss the projected division of the territory. Delegate Pettigrew made a speech, in which he said that during his travels throughout the Territory he had found the citizens all in favor of a division.

The three and a half per cent. uncalled bonds purchased in New York under the circular of November 4th not having reached the sum of two million dollars weekly, the Secretary of the Treasury authorized the Assistant Treasurer at New York to accept before Wednesday such additional amounts as would make, with what has already been purchased, four million dollars

The annual report of the Chief of the Secret Service Division of the Treasury Department states the number of arrests made to have been 279. The amount of counterfeit money captured aggregated $389,978.

Many letters of complaint have been received at the Treasury Department of late from the District Superintendents and Keepers of the Life-Saving Stations relative to the small compensation now allowed to the keepers. They only receive $400 a year, and they maintain that they cannot live comfortably on that amount, and many of them have declined to serve any longer. The attention of Congress will be called to the matter.

The Kennebec *Journal* has published what purports to be an "authorized" statement that Mr. Blaine will not be a candidate for any public office after he leaves the Cabinet, but will "devote himself entirely to his private affairs."

It is stated that President Arthur is not giving professional officeseekers much encouragement. There have been numerous attempts made of late to persuade him to remove postmasters on the ground that they were not "Grant Republicans." The President has stated in each case, in decided terms, that he did not see how that made any difference, and that such considerations would certainly not control him.

The French and American Claims Commission met on Wednesday, and granted leave to the claimants in twelve of the sixteen cases submitted to amend their memorials.

The National Tariff Convention met at Chicago on Wednesday last. Speeches were made by Congressman Aldrich and others, expressing sympathy with protection. A platform was adopted, which declares that the protective policy of the Government provided the revenue with which the Rebellion was subdued, revived the national credit, discharged in large part the national debt, quadrupled the industries of the country, turned the balance of trade steadily in our favor, and that, however well established our manufactures may be, a tariff for protection and revenue is still needed, that skilled laborers and producers may have constant and remunerative employment; recommends that American maritime property be exempt from the burdens of State, municipal, and local taxation, and that American vessels be made the carriers of American mails, at rates proportionate to the value of the services performed, without regard to the rates at which foreign vessels, subsidized by their own governments, may be willing to carry them, and that "the United States should regard an American commercial marine as an integral element of our American nationality." There was a large attendance at this meeting of men interested in the continuance of a protective tariff.

There were heavy storms in the West on Thursday and Friday. The rain washed out the road-beds of many railroads. Railroad communication between Chicago and St. Louis was practically cut off for a day or two.

The establishment of a new stock exchange is contemplated in New York by several large capitalists who are not satisfied with the management of the present board. The chief movers in the enterprise are said to be Messrs. Jay Gould, Cyrus Field, Russell Sage, and Sidney Dillon.

FOREIGN.

The German Reichstag was opened on Thursday. The Emperor was prevented by illness from being present, and the speech from the throne was read by Prince Bismarck. The speech says that the budget shows the gratifying results of the economic policy of the Government, and "emphatically points out" that the social evils are not to be remedied by repression alone, but rather by concurrent promotion of the welfare of the working classes. In regard to foreign affairs, the Emperor said that at no time during the last ten years could maintenance of peace be anticipated so confidently as at present. No allusion was made to the Liberal majority in the Reichstag. The 200 deputies present are reported to have listened with "icy coldness" to the speech, and not a single sentence was applauded. A Berlin despatch says that the general opinion in regard to the Emperor's speech is that it means "peace without and war within." Herr Levetzow, the candidate of the Conservative coalition, was elected President of the Reichstag, on Saturday, by a vote of 193 against 143 for Herr Stauffenberg, the Liberal candidate. The measures announced by the Government are these: the incorporation of Hamburg in the Zollverein; quadrennial Parliaments; biennial budgets; the Accident Insurance Bill, the tobacco monopoly, and the liquor tax.

A decree has been issued by the new French Government announcing the separation of the Ministries of Agriculture and Commerce, and pointing as an example to the United States and other countries which have made agriculture a distinct department. A London despatch from Paris reports that the retirement of General Chanzy and Count de St. Vallier, from the embassies at St. Petersburg and Berlin respectively, has produced a very unfavorable impression.

M. Gambetta has appointed M. Magnin to supersede M. Denormandie as Governor of the Bank of France. The shares of the Bank declined to 6,175 francs at the announcement of this change. A deputation of the Governing Council of the Bank had an interview with M. Gambetta on Saturday to endeavor to induce him to overrule his decision, but he replied that it was impossible to maintain at the head of such a great establishment a man who had taken up an attitude in opposition to a Republican government.

The appointment of M. Paul Bert as Minister of Instruction and Worship seems to have met with more disapproval in France than any of M. Gambetta's recent acts, and it is said that the defeat of M. Hérold, the Government candidate for Life Senator, which has since occurred, is regarded as a retaliation for the appointment of M. Bert.

It is stated that M. Gambetta, being desirous of participating personally in the conclusion of the Anglo-French treaty of commerce, has asked Sir Charles Dilke, British Under Foreign Secretary, for a delay of two or three weeks, after which he will be able to give his attention to the treaty; and that Sir Charles Dilke has agreed to the postponement. The Paris correspondent of the London *Times* says that accord now exists in regard to everything except woollens.

Continued fighting is reported to be going on between the Arabs and the French columns which are advancing southward. The Bey of Tunis has appointed Colonel Allegro Governor of Gabes and the district bordering on Tripoli. The latter is a personal friend and supporter of M. Roustan, the French Minister.

The Arabs who retired before the expedition to Kairwan are now reported to be ravaging undefended points on the coast.

The latest advices from Tunis report that the insurgent chief Ali Ben Amar, against whom the French columns have been operating with the intention of capturing him, has escaped to the South with his tribesmen.

Lord Granville has sent a despatch to Mr. Mallet, the British diplomatic agent at Alexandria, to say that the English Government is convinced that the tie uniting Egypt to the Porte is the best safeguard against foreign intervention, and that if this tie should be broken, Egypt "might soon be endangered by rival ambition." Sherif Pasha, the Egyptian Premier, has expressed his satisfaction with this communication, and has ordered it to be translated for publication in all the Egyptian papers. The elections for the Egyptian Assembly of Notables are said to have passed off quietly, and Sherif Pasha is reported to have expressed his satisfaction with the result.

It is stated that the want of discipline in the Egyptian army is increasing, and that if energetic measures are not soon taken, the Khedive's authority will fall to pieces.

Mr. James Caird, the President of the English Statistical Society, delivered an address before the Society on Wednesday, in which he said that for the last ten years, ending with 1881, 828,000 acres of grain land and 228,000 acres of green-crop land in Great Britain had been converted into permanent pasture, and that an annual return of £8,000,000 formerly derived from these crops had thereby disappeared. Mr. Caird attributed the agricultural depression not to American competition, but to bad seasons. He said that the burdens, difficulties, and uncertainties of American agriculture would always place it at a disadvantage with British agriculture in the British market.

Wednesday, the 16th inst., was the anniversary of Mr. John Bright's seventieth birthday. It was celebrated with much enthusiasm at Rochdale and elsewhere in England by the display of flags and the erection of triumphal arches. Mr. Bright delivered an address in the evening at Rochdale in which he alluded to the land question, saying that unless means were taken to stimulate production by putting increased capital and skill into the soil, there was no remedy whatever for the agricultural distress but a great and permanent reduction of rent.

Outrages of all kinds, from murder to cutting off the tails of cattle, continue in Ireland, and a Dublin correspondent says: "The most sanguine prophets of peace and order must be sadly disappointed at the present state of things and the prospect for the winter." The Ballina, County Mayo, Sub-Commission of the Land Court has pronounced several decisions, reducing rents, in a majority of cases, below the Poor Law valuation.

The Conservatives have won a victory in the election of Mr. Thomas Salt as Member of Parliament from Stafford, which has caused considerable surprise in England. The result is said to have been mainly due to the Irish vote, which until the night before the election had been promised to Mr. George Howell, the candidate of the Liberals and working classes.

The betrothal of Prince Leopold of England to the Princess Helena of Waldeck is announced.

There was a very severe gale in England, Scotland, and the south of Ireland on Monday. Many houses were unroofed and much damage was done. Part of the Caledonian Railway was washed away at Dundee.

There has been a great robbery at the Hatton Garden Post-office, in London. Registered letters, which are believed to have contained diamonds and watches to the value of £40,000, have been stolen.

The interesting debate in the Spanish Chamber of Deputies on the address in reply to the speech from the throne was terminated on Wednesday, and the address was adopted by a vote of 279 to 33. The last day of the debate was occupied by the Government in defending itself against the attack made upon it by Señor Canovas del Castillo. Premier Sagasta pointed out among other things that greater liberty of discussion was now allowed in Spain than when Castillo was in power, and contrasted the course of the present Government with the prohibition of a Republican banquet by Castillo. The debate which has just been closed has shown that the present Government has a very firm foundation in Spain, and that its liberal policy has enlisted in its ranks some of the ablest men of the Democratic party.

The declaration recently made by the Spanish Minister of the Colonies, that autonomy for the Island of Cuba was an impossibility, and the unanimous approval of this declaration by all parties in the Cortes, have caused a great sensation in Cuba. It is regarded in most quarters as very discouraging to the friends of the Home Rule movement. Several members have advocated the dissolution of the party.

In the Dutch Chamber of Deputies on Monday the Minister of Finance said that, pending the result of the monetary conference in April, he could not propose measures to check the outflow of gold. He added that if the conference did not succeed in securing the adoption of bimetallism, Holland would be obliged either to demonetize silver at an enormous cost or revert to a simple silver standard.

The accounts of the Russian Department of State Control show that the budget for 1880 resulted in a deficit of 50,308,000 roubles as compared with the estimates. The deficit was chiefly caused by extraordinary military expenditure.

A fresh number of the Nihilist organ made its appearance recently in St. Petersburg. On the title-page was an editorial paragraph, surrounded by a deep black line, in which the crime of Guiteau was condemned in the strongest language.

Signor Depretis, President of the Council, stated in the Italian Chamber of Deputies on Sunday that the Government had not yet discussed the proposal of the Minister of War relative to the completion of the army organization, but that it hoped to be able to provide gradually from the ordinary estimates for the increase of the active army and for indispensable works of territorial defences.

A despatch from Constantinople says that two thousand sailors of the Turkish navy have been dismissed and that several ironclads will be dismantled.

The reduction of the Greek forces in Thessaly to a peace footing has been ordered.

Count Kálnoky, late Austro-Hungarian Ambassador at St. Petersburg, has been appointed Austrian Minister of Foreign Affairs.

It is reported that the complete annihilation of the village of Elm in the Canton of Glarus, Switzerland, from a land slide, appears to be only a question of time and bad weather, for the summit of the peak nearest the village is moving.

The Bavarian Ministry has refused to advise the Crown to give effect to a resolution of the Chamber of Deputies in favor of the repeal of the obligatory civil marriage law.

The Chilian Minister of Foreign Affairs addressed a letter to General Kilpatrick, the United States Minister to Chili, in regard to General Hurlbut's course in Peru, and General Kilpatrick in his reply categorically contradicted General Hurlbut, and assured the Chilian Minister, "in the most emphatic manner," that his Government had nothing to fear from the intentions or attitude of the United States with respect to the war in the Pacific.

The Mexican town of Manzanillo was completely destroyed on the 26th of October by a storm. The loss is estimated at $500,000, independent of the shipping destroyed.

TUESDAY, November 22, 1881.

THE GUITEAU CASE.

From what has already taken place in the trial of Guiteau, it is evident that the imposing solemnity which most people probably anticipated for the proceedings will be wholly wanting, at least as long as Guiteau is allowed to remain in court and continue his farcical and wild interruptions. Judge Cox has announced that if he does not keep quiet, he will be removed from the court-room, and such a removal would certainly, on appeal, raise the question, often settled before now in favor of accused persons, as to the common-law right of the prisoner to be present during the entire trial. This right is not a technical one, but is founded on the idea that natural justice requires that the witnesses for the Government should be confronted by the man against whom they are testifying. There are, however, one or two important considerations which will have to be taken into the account before it is decided that this is an absolute right in Guiteau's case, the denial of which would vitiate the verdict. The first requisite for the administration of justice is an orderly trial. A trial in which a prisoner should be allowed freely to interrupt witnesses, browbeat the judge, and reprimand his counsel, and insist on their retiring from the case, would not only be a farce, but would tend really to confuse the minds of the jury about the facts of the case, and as to what was in evidence and what was not, more than the charge of any ordinary judge could enlighten them. Therefore it seems to be evident—though we do not know that precisely this case has arisen before—that with such a defendant as Guiteau, supposing him to remain violent, the rule as to the presence of the prisoner would have to give way to the necessity of having a decent and orderly trial.

It should be observed, also, that Guiteau's behavior in court is either the result of insanity, or the result of an attempt to simulate insanity. His counsel says that he is insane, and if he is, his right to be present in court for the purpose of confronting witnesses against him is of little value to him.

A third reason for not regarding the right as of so much importance as formerly is, that it has been handed down to us from a time when accused persons had no right to counsel, and when consequently their right to be present in court, and not only to confront but to cross-examine the Government's witnesses, was of the last moment to them. Now that the protection of persons on trial is carried so far that the Court itself assigns counsel if they have none, the prisoner has, if he is wise, as little to do with the actual trial of the case as possible, beyond making suggestions to his counsel as it proceeds.

Nevertheless, although these considerations show the right to be of very little practical value to a prisoner as violent and unreasonable or insane as Guiteau, it must be admitted that the right has generally been treated as an absolute one, and it is therefore, to say the least, doubtful whether the exclusion of Guiteau from the court-room would not result, as he himself insists, in a reversal of any verdict against him, and it is this which makes Judge Cox so unwilling to order it.

Mr. Scoville, who is evidently heavily handicapped in the trial by his want of experience, gave notice last week that, his defence being insanity, he should insist that the burden of proof with regard to this was on the prosecution, and that if the Government intended to introduce evidence on this point, they must introduce it before they close their case. Stripped of technical verbiage, this means that the prosecution must show that Guiteau not only killed the President, but was sane at the time. But what is meant by the "burden of proof" being on the Government is merely that they must satisfy the jury beyond a "reasonable doubt" that the defendant is guilty. This is done when the fact of a deliberate killing is established. Insanity, like any other affirmative defence, has to be established by the accused. A really nice question with regard to this branch of the case is whether a "reasonable doubt" solely as to insanity is enough to require the jury to acquit. Supposing at the end of the trial the jury, as reasonable men, entertained a doubt whether, at the time of the killing, Guiteau was or was not sane, would he be entitled to an acquittal? As to this the law is decidedly in the prisoner's favor. A reasonable doubt as to insanity is a reasonable doubt as to guilt. On the other hand, in considering the question of the preponderance of evidence, it is always well to bear in mind the amusing illustration once given by an English judge, in telling a jury that they would probably be told by a lawyer in a case then on trial, that there was "some evidence" in his favor. This, the learned judge said, was true. So, he continued, if in a suit on a bill of exchange, six witnesses were to swear that they had seen the defendant sign it, and six others swore that they had heard him promise to pay it, while one old man, who had not had anything to do with the defendant for many years, swore that he had some question as to the handwriting of the signature, "there would be, gentlemen, *some* evidence for the defendant, but it would not be important for you to consider it." In Guiteau's case, the amount of evidence required to establish the fact of insanity, or in other words to prevent a "reasonable doubt" of guilt, is not different from the amount of evidence required to prove any other fact in a court of justice.

The trial has already brought out one fact clearly with reference to criminal procedure of no small importance to the public—and that is that much of the scandalous delay and expense which such cases always involve, arises from the retention of an antiquated system of pleading. Guiteau has only one substantial defence, which is insanity, but instead of being obliged, as he would in any other kind of proceeding, to admit the killing of the President, and set up his affirmative defence, leaving this as the sole question to be tried by the jury, he is enabled, merely because he pleads "not guilty," to force the Government to summon a number of witnesses, and waste valuable time and money, simply for the purpose of proving a notorious fact which he does not even deny. In civil proceedings it was just such absurd results as this which led to the abolition of the old system of pleading, and there seems to be no reason why, in criminal cases as well, the defendant should not be compelled to set up in his plea precisely what his defence is: whether he admits the fact of the killing, and insists that it was done in self-defence, or from an insane impulse, or how. In fully half the cases of murder which get into the courts there is no dispute as to the main facts. The only question which the jury has really to decide is some affirmative defence set up by the prisoner. It is said in the present case that Guiteau's counsel think the circumstances connected with the killing indicated insanity. But if so, why should they not show the circumstances themselves? No hardship is imposed on anybody by requiring him in a court of justice to admit or deny facts within his own knowledge; and there is obviously something so farcical about a solemn inquiry whether District Attorney Corkhill can make out that Guiteau actually shot the President, that there ought to be some better reason for the continuance of a system which makes it necessary than mere respect for tradition.

WHY DEMOCRATIC MANAGEMENT IS IMBECILE.

What we may almost call the usual post-election lamentation of the Democratic newspapers over the management of the party has already begun. One of the ablest—the Buffalo *Courier*—asks pathetically whether "there is not some degree of imbecility about the management of the Democratic party." The answer must be that though there may be some imbecility about it there is not nearly so much as sometimes there seems to be. What the Democratic party is suffering from is rather its own want of principles than the mistakes of its leaders. There is no use in calling on party leaders for a policy: they cannot make a policy out of nothing. The policy of a party is the means by which its managers seek to embody its principles in legislation. If there are no principles which the party seeks to embody in legislation, there can be no policy; the leaders have no materials to work with. They have of course to keep up some appearance of activity, but this is hardly worth criticism, any more than a man's movements in keeping his feet warm while waiting in cold weather.

The Democratic party is in fact in the condition through which the Conservative party in every country has now and then to pass. It is like the Conservative party everywhere, rather a party of temperament than of ideas. Men belong to it, not because they think alike on any subject, but because they feel alike about all change. Its members desire nothing so much as to be let alone. The ordinary result of this is simple sluggishness; and if there were no Republicans or Liberals or Progressists or Radicals in the world, Conservatives would pass life in a long lazy afternoon. But the Liberals do not stay quiet. They are constantly trying for change. Once in half a century or so they bring about, or seem to be on the point of bringing about, tremendous changes. When this crisis arrives the Conservatives rouse themselves, produce platforms, give out that they too have a creed and plans about the world's future, and that it is

to them the nation must look for real improvements. This activity lasts till the changes are accomplished. Resistance is then useless, and it appears plainly once more that the Conservatives really had no plan at all, and nothing to rely on but the half-physical dislike of the party to movement.

The English Conservatives are in just the same plight at this moment as our Democrats are. They have no principles, and therefore no policy, and the Liberals have won in the late struggle. The result is that the Conservative leaders seem imbecile, and are casting about for something which they can call the Conservative creed, but find nothing, and will find nothing until the Liberals propose something new. The party management will always seem foolish until there comes up from the rank and file the force and impetus of some great desire. A great popular desire is to party management what "way" is to a ship. There can be no steering unless there is motion, and motion the man at the wheel cannot supply There are many good questions lying about which the Democratic chiefs might and would turn to good account if the voters of the party felt any interest in them. The trouble is that there is apparently no question about which they care at all. Mr. Pendleton, for instance, is laudably busy about civil-service reform, but how much support does he get from his party? Then, again, the leaders are abused for playing fast-and-loose with the question of free trade, but of course they would not think of doing so if the main body of the party cared anything about free trade. In short, they find themselves catering for a master who is not hungry, and feels a little sleepy, and dislikes noise, and yet does not like to see his servants idle.

RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT IN GERMANY.

THE radical difference between the constitutional system of Germany and that of England could scarcely have been put in a stronger light than by the Emperor's speech at the opening of the Reichstag, and the construction given to that speech by the official press. The *North German Gazette*, known as Prince Bismarck's organ, announces the measures recommended in the speech from the throne—the tobacco monopoly, the workingmen's insurance by the state, the biennial budget, etc. —as "the Emperor's programme," whereupon the Liberal press unanimously express regret "that the august person of the sovereign has thus been put forward in opposition to a majority of the nation in favor of Socialist and political projects for which Prince Bismarck ought himself to assume sole responsibility." An attempt to protect a Minister by shifting the responsibility for his measures upon the sovereign would be looked upon in England as a violation of the most fundamental principles of the Constitution. The Liberal press in Germany evidently seeks to put its disapproval of the Emperor's and the Chancellor's assumed relations on the same ground. It would be right in doing so if in Germany the same system of ministerial responsibility existed. But it does not. While in England the Ministers of the Crown are held responsible to Parliament, being subject to a vote of the Parliamentary majority, under the Constitution of the German Empire the Chancellor is responsible only to the Emperor, no matter whether the majority of the Reichstag be for or against him. In this respect the German system bears a certain resemblance to that of the United States, where the Ministers are not, as to their measures, subject to a majority of Congress, except in cases of impeachment—with this fundamental difference, however, that the heads of the executive departments are in the first place responsible to the President, while the President is responsible for the conduct of the executive branch of the Government generally, holding his office only for a stated term, and also subject to impeachment, which the Emperor of Germany is not. And as the Emperor is responsible to nobody, no system of personal responsibility really exists under the Constitution of the Empire. It is clear, however, that under such circumstances the Emperor, like our President, may do what the Queen of England cannot do: announce certain measures of policy as his own personal programme without violating any principle of the German Constitution.

While for this reason it would be wrong to condemn the attitude in which the Emperor has been placed, on the ground of the Constitution as it is, the German Liberals are clearly right, in view of what the Constitution ought to be, in saying that the responsibility for the declarations of the Emperor's speech should be assumed by the Minister who originated the measures which that speech recommends. It is not at all improbable that this occurrence, which has put the irresponsible character of the Imperial Government in so glaring a light, will serve to make the question of the constitutional responsibility of Ministers again the subject of debate and agitation. We do not mean to say that such an agitation would be likely to lead to immediate results. It is, indeed, apparent that when Prince Bismarck feels himself obliged to seek support for his measures by entrenching them behind the venerable figure and the popularity of the Emperor, he must think his own popularity and power over public opinion no longer strong enough to secure their success. Nor is it likely that by such a manœuvre the popular or Parliamentary opposition to the Chancellor's measures will be overcome. The same trick was tried during the campaign which preceded the elections, when the people were told every day by the organs of the Government in the press and on the hustings that every vote against the Conservative candidates would be a vote against the Emperor, and still the Liberal Opposition gained ground constantly. And now it is well enough understood that it is the Chancellor's programme for which the Emperor is merely serving as a breastwork. The Emperor's proclamation will therefore be less calculated to strengthen the Minister than to weaken himself.

But, after all, as long as the Emperor lives and Prince Bismarck holds sway under him, the agitation for constitutional reform will scarcely result in a movement strong enough to overturn their favorite principles of government and to put in their place a system with which they think they cannot carry on the affairs of the Empire. The popular respect for the person of the aged monarch and for the eminent services rendered by the Chancellor, as well as the belief in the latter as the "necessary man" to conduct the foreign policy of Germany, are still too strong to encourage a movement which, to succeed, must not shrink from general and uncompromising hostility to them. But the Emperor is old and cannot in the course of nature hold the reins much longer. Whether his successor would be as firmly wedded as his father to the system at present existing, and whether under him Prince Bismarck may hope to wield the same power with the same devoted support of the sovereign as heretofore, is at least questionable. It is popularly believed that he would not, even if he were to remain in his present position, and this popular belief will be sufficient to stimulate to fresh, more vigorous, and more hopeful efforts the aspirations for a government of constitutional responsibility, the want of which has now become once more so strikingly apparent.

THE RELIGIOUS CRISIS IN FRANCE.

THE news of the rejection by the Senate of M. Hérold, the Government candidate for a life Senatorship, seems to indicate that the majority in the Senate is not afraid of the "revision" which M. Gambetta threatens, and was ready for a conflict with the Ministry almost as soon as the Cabinet was announced. That the Senate does not shrink from such a conflict can only be accounted for by remembering that the revision scheme was distinctly defeated at the last election, and that it is still extremely doubtful how M. Paul Bert's appointment to the Ministry of Instruction will be received by the community at large. If Gambetta has made a mistake in this appointment, it is an immense mistake, from which his Ministry cannot recover. If he has not made a mistake, it will show that the attitude of the French people toward religion has undergone modifications of which most recent observers, whether native or foreign, have not dreamed.

That the country was prepared for taking education out of the hands of the clergy altogether, and for making the district schoolmaster independent of the parish priest, was shown clearly enough by the indifference or approval with which the expulsion of the teaching religious orders was received. But the Bert appointment goes far beyond this. It indicates the settled hostility of the Government to religious teaching of any kind, and its determination not simply to refuse it to the children, but to prevent their receiving it, as far as its influence goes, from any quarter. M. Bert has been as outspoken in his hostility to religion as Colonel "Bob" Ingersoll, and then he is a scientific man of considerable eminence, so that his words have a weight which is denied to those of an itinerant humorous lecturer. To put him in charge of the French schools is, therefore, either to assume that every government which has reigned in France since

Napoleon became First Consul has been mistaken in supposing that strength with the people was to be got from an alliance with the Church, or that a very remarkable change, of which the knowledge has been hitherto confined to M. Gambetta and a small knot of his friends, has since 1871 taken place in the feelings of the French people in a matter that has hitherto played a very prominent part in the national existence. The Republic of 1848 made peace with the Church one of its first objects, and in the interest of this peace undertook the nefarious expedition to Rome; and the Empire, as we all know, made clerical support one of its great buttresses, not because the Emperor had any more religious faith than Gambetta, but because the clergy were supposed to be able to influence votes. The Monarchists, too, who held power under republican forms down to 1877, acted on the same theory, and in the opinion of most foreigners acted wisely.

If it should now turn out that Gambetta is right—that the French people are ready for Paul Bert as Minister of Instruction, and for schools as secular as he thinks they ought to be—it will be in some ways the most momentous "new departure" the French nation, or for that matter any nation, has taken since the first Revolution. It cannot but have a profound influence on the other Latin countries, and notably Italy and Spain, and must before very long lead to successful attack on the clerical stipends now paid by the State. The suspension or even serious diminution of these stipends would, in form, be only the substitution of the voluntary system for a state church. In reality it would, as every one knows, be the extinction of religious worship over a very large part of France, if not now, before very long. We should then witness the trial of an experiment which has long been talked about in religio-scientific discussions, but hardly anticipated in our time—the experiment of supplying a nation with its morality without even as much religious aid as comes from formal service in churches.

THE "PLUNGER'S" RETURN.

During the past racing season an American made his appearance in England whose career there has created an unparalleled amount of excitement and curiosity. The newspapers have recorded his movements from week to week, and day by day; scathing articles have been written denouncing him, and philosophical articles explaining him; a popular nickname has been found for him; dismal prophecies have been made with regard to his future, and ingenious legends invented as to his past. Crowds have collected to see him when he went out to take a walk, and altogether as much attention and speculation have been lavished upon him as if he had been a distinguished public character or a notorious criminal. His time has been occupied while in England in betting on horses. What made him occupy so large and important a place in the public eye was that he bet very large sums, in other words "plunged" heavily, and that he appeared, notwithstanding this, to win. Anybody who has a large amount of money can easily be a "plunger," but to "plunge" and win is contrary to the traditions of the English turf, for very good reasons. The book-makers, against whom every "plunger" stakes his money, are the capitalists of the turf, and have not only unlimited supplies of funds but the accumulated knowledge and experience of a regular business. The chances are all in their favor just as the chances are in favor of the bank at Monaco, or against the "lamb" in Wall Street. They live by book-making, and their profits are, economically considered, governed by the same causes as those which regulate the profits of any other extra-hazardous business.

When an American, therefore, appeared in England and began betting large quantities of what was known in the slang believed in England to be American as his "dollars" on American horses, it was deemed certain that, whatever his temporary winnings might be, he was destined in the end to go home bankrupt, and the book-makers accordingly made him welcome in the spirit in which Captain Rook makes welcome his dear young friend Mr. Pigeon. But when, instead of losing, he continued to win heavily, and, as the turf is the great national sport in England, to become an eminent person, their feeling about him began to change, and the most searching inquiries were instituted as to his origin, sources of revenue, and the probable length of his purse. Very little could be found out about him except that he was an American, but a legend soon sprang up to the effect that he was the agent of the owner of one of the American horses, this owner being a gentleman who carries on his operations in Wall Street, and is recognized as a "monopolist." If the English book-makers had known what a Wall Street "monopolist" is—how he is able, by putting this stock up or the other stock down, or by cornering wheat, or iron, or lard, to take out of the pockets of the business community just what sums he pleases; how his "squeezing" power is limited simply by his own sense of justice or mercy—they would never have gone on betting with the stranger after they had discovered, as they thought, that he stood in the relation of agent to one of this class. But, not knowing much about it, they went blindly on, thinking that he or his principal must eventually come to the end of his rope. Meanwhile the mystery of the "plunger's" success led, as any such success always does, to the belief among the innocent public, who were parting with their spare cash to the book-makers from whom he was winning it, that he must have some secret or system by means of which he was enabled to defy ordinary rules and make sure of success in advance. On the other hand, the fact that he was observed to be on remarkably intimate terms with the jockeys led to the circulation of an unpleasant rumor that he was not giving the book-makers a "square deal." He, however, being aware that envy and calumny always follow in the path of success, paid no attention to this idle gossip, but continued to bet assiduously and to win continuously.

He has now returned home and has given to a reporter an account of his operations on the other side, which shows how curiously simple they really were. He is, it seems, no agent of a monopolist, but, as he says, a plain business man; in fact, a "hotel proprietor," who does not like to have his "outside operations of this kind heralded about any more than any other man." He makes a public statement of them now, he says, simply because they have been much talked about, and "they may as well be put straight." He did then, as a matter of fact, get away with £93,000 of British gold, or nearly half a million in our money—an addition, by the way, to the wealth of this country as well as his own fortune of which no true American can complain, as it calls for no export of bonds, or manufactures or grain in return. The explanation he gives of his success is that he beat the English book-makers at their own game simply by making a better guess as to which was going to be the winning horse than they did. The chances of any one horse winning in the same season three of the great English races are so remote that it would have been considered perfectly safe to predict that a "plunger" who should take such a risk would be absolutely ruined. But this was just the chance which he did take, and he won by it £75,000 of his £93,000. As to bribing the jockeys, he says that he only promises a large sum to a jockey to win, if he has a large amount on the horse he is to ride. According to turf ethics we believe this is allowable, while giving money to a jockey to lose a race is of course a fraudulent proceeding. This the "plunger" says he never does.

He gives a most amusing and at the same time pathetic account of the ingratitude of Sir John Astley, a well-known sporting baronet, who, after imploring the "plunger," not in vain, to make bets with him, which, presumably, turned out to the baronet's disadvantage, suddenly turned upon his benefactor and asked him in very profane language why he did not stay in his "bloody country." To this the "plunger" replied with the dignity and forbearance that seem to have marked his behavior throughout, that he supposed that England was a "free country," and that "when the numbers go up it's public property." On this Sir John broke out more offensively still, again suggesting a return to the United States, upon which the "plunger" turned his back upon the baronet, and has "never spoken to him since," and "would not any more than to a dog."

It will be seen that the reality falls far short of the legend. There is a painful descent from romance to prose when, after reading the brilliant writing about the "plunger" which has been produced during the summer, we find that Mr. Walton is commonly known here as "The." Walton, and is obviously simply a book-maker himself, who has had the advantage of an extraordinary run of luck. He has established himself, however, in the imagination of the English public as a new American type—the quiet, silent American, whose origin, means of livelihood, and connections are all involved in profound mystery; whose resources and nerve are unlimited; a gambler by nature and habit, who wins or loses with an unruffled countenance, but who in the end always wins more than he loses—a sporting man of destiny—something that suggests Phileas Fogg and "Fresh, the American," but which is neither—a type admirably adapted to the stage, and one that we shall without doubt see on the stage before long, where his purse will be even longer than that which "The." has brought home with him, and where its contents will be used, not merely as a fund for more extensive "outside operations," but, as the ethics of the stage demand, to ruin the wicked and to help the good.

THE DARK SIDE OF GERMAN PROFESSORIAL LIFE.

In the introduction to a collection of Kayser's 'Homerische Abhandlungen,' Prof. Usener, of Bonn, an old pupil of Kayser's, has given some details as to the life of his teacher (born 1808, died 1872) that are not without interest. To most scholars Kayser is known chiefly as the editor of Philostratus; and who troubles himself much about the private life of editors and professors? Sometimes word reaches even the American public of a grand festival in honor of a Böckh or a Wöhler, of a torchlight procession, a memorial medal; and the weary and un-

recognized worker on this side of the water thinks that it would not be a bad thing to live in a land where scholarship and science are thus honored, where birthdays are observed—a land of jubilee celebrations and professorial glorifications. But that is only one side. There is another, not so cheerful, on which Prof. Usener's memoir of his friend throws a sinister light. "Kissing goes by favor" in the academic circles of Germany as elsewhere. When a man is Privy Aulic Councillor and Chief Librarian, it is a matter of expediency, if you are going to use the library and apply for a degree, to attend one of the pay courses of that high and mighty official; and if even a slight knowledge of the world did not make that evident, Prof. Usener has given us an instance from his own experience. On the other hand, patient merit often fares badly in the land of scholars; and the innocent student from America is surprised to find when he reaches Germany how many names of wide echo here have no mercantile value there, and that teachers whom he had learned to respect in their books are kept down to subordinate positions in their universities. Kayser's fortune is a case in point, and may be worth remembering.

Prof. Usener tells us that when he began his philological studies at Heidelberg—in the first half of the fifties, as we gather—philology was in a deplorable state at the Carolo-Ruperta. There was but one man of any value, and he was Kayser. The magnates of philology were Bähr and Zell. Zell was notoriously lazy, and his scholarship suffered from fatty degeneration. Bähr, the author of a big 'History of Roman Literature' and of a big edition of Herodotus, was considered in certain philological circles, as far back as thirty years ago, a portentous humbug. Indeed, it was about that time a current saying, caught up from some acrid professor, that "God in his wrath had made Bähr a philologian." Certainly Bähr must have been a strange anachronism at a time when the Bonn school of philology was in full bloom. In German universities the conduct of philological training is assigned to the heads of the *seminarium*, and the following is in substance the account of the Heidelberg *seminarium* work as given by Prof. Usener: The Privy Aulic Councillor and Chief Librarian, Christian Felix Bähr, met his pupils twice a week. At one meeting he interpreted Plutarch, at the other he gave alternately a Greek and a Latin exercise. The Greek exercise, "instituted mainly for the sake of practising the young men in Greek accentuation," consisted in a retroversion of Lucian's "Uneducated Bibliomaniac"; the other exercise was a gymnastic in "Latin stuttering"—two unhappy disputants being required to discuss such themes as "Whether Cæsar or Alexander had the better right to the name of 'the Great'?" Zell, antiquarian and epigraphist, whose lazy *insouciance* it is not necessary to characterize further, "slumbered and slept, standing and talking." Kayser's work was stimulating and fruitful, for he had charge of a part of the *seminarium*, though his official position did not seem to warrant such an employment.

Kayser had been an active teacher in the University of Heidelberg as early as 1833; he was associated with magnates Bähr & Co. in the conduct of the seminary in 1835; he was made professor extraordinary in 1841; and yet for twenty-two long years did this devoted and meritorious scholar work for the university before anything was voted him, and then a miserable annual stipend of 600 gulden. Thirty-one years had he been a university teacher before he attained a full professorship and a decent income—only eight years before his sudden death. Prof. Usener warms as he writes of the injustice done to this excellent scholar, and we must accept his verdict. Generally it is possible to read between the lines: the man of genius may be impracticable; the man of learning may be given to drink; but in this case there seems to have been no mental or moral fault. Yes, there was one, which his biographer frankly states: "Nature had denied Kayser elbows"; he had no push, and nearly all his life he was dependent on somebody. Kayser was twenty-five years old when his father died. An American boy would have made himself some position by that time, but in Germany that is over-young for a professional man or scholar to stand on his own feet, and we find Kayser acting as teacher in a boys' boarding-school managed by his mother. This school was kept up three years after her death, and Kayser was then a man of forty-four. It must have failed after the strong hand of his mother was withdrawn, and in order to support the establishment Kayser's wife opened a girls' school, and Kayser became quasi-dependent on his wife, as he had been on his mother—the university meanwhile saving its florins. The wife got tired of her unsuccessful husband—at all events, "the reversal of the natural relation of supporter and supported" led to much unhappiness, which issued in a divorce. A later marriage brought sunshine to the close of a life that was singularly unfortunate.

In England Kayser might have been made a bishop. Perhaps he was better off as it was. In America such a career is hardly possible for a native, and yet is worth a moment's attention. Many of our young scholars, in the press of competition, now so much hotter than it was two or three decades since, are restless and unhappy because they do not get on. What are their brief delays in comparison with the hard road of elementary teaching, of review writing, of feminine supervision that this man of profound and wide erudition had to traverse? The writer of these lines has often occasion to take up Kayser's Philostratus, and will never handle the volumes again without kindlier thoughts of the luckless editor, and sympathy with the noiseless tragedy of his life.

EGYPT.—THE RELIGIOUS AGITATION.

ALEXANDRIA, October 30, 1881.

THE main topic of interest during the past week is what appears to be, or threatens to be, an internecine war between the press and the new Government of Sherif Pasha. As the facts of the pending controversy are an instructive comment on the present state of the country, it is worth while recording them with some particularity of detail.

It must be premised that the daily paper styled *L'Égypte* has been managed for some time past by M. Gustave Laffon, a French citizen, and that while it has undoubtedly always exhibited hostility to Sherif Pasha, both before and since his advent to power, it has also, even in the opinion of its English rival, the *Egyptian Gazette*, been by far the best newspaper which has ever appeared in Egypt. On the 2d of this month *L'Égypte* published a lengthy extract from Langlé's and Jomard's 'Histoire d'Égypte.' In the course of this extract, which was nothing more than a brilliant and impartial review of the relations of the Roman Empire and the Arab Caliphate to Egypt, occurred the following passage: "Il faut moins reprocher à Osman, fanatique héritier d'un faux prophète, d'avoir fait brûler la bibliothèque d'Alexandrie, qu'à ces Romains civilisés de s'être montrés presque indifférents aux doctes souvenirs de l'Égypte." By a misprint the name *Osman* was substituted for *Omar*, and three weeks after the passage appeared in the newspaper, that is, on the 25th, the Minister for Foreign Affairs warned the manager that the expression "fanatique héritier d'un faux prophète" was calculated to wound the religious susceptibilities of the majority of the inhabitants of the country, and could not be put up with. The next day, the 26th, the paper was suppressed.

The manager of the paper, M. Laffon, complains of this precipitate action of the Government as a monstrous outrage not only on the liberty, and even on the possibility, of the public press in Egypt, but on the common rights of all foreigners sojourning in the country. He further charges the Foreign Minister with wholly misinterpreting the purport of the passage objected to, and alleges that the incriminating words were fished up three weeks after their appearance, from a desperate eagerness to find a plausible pretext for suppressing an organ personally obnoxious to himself. On the legal side, M. Laffon holds his ground to be equally unassailable, and intends to bring the matter speedily before the mixed International Tribunals, as well as to promote a discussion on the subject in the French Assembly. M. Laffon urges that, while the "Ottoman Constitution of the 11th of December, 1876," proclaims the "liberty of the press within the limits traced by law," by the Egyptian Press Law of January 1, 1865 (except in cases of proved complicity in criminal offences against the public peace of the Empire), no journal once officially authorized can be interfered with otherwise than by a month's suspension at most, unless within a space of two years it has three times been judicially condemned.

To understand the whole of these proceedings it is necessary to notice that since the *émeute* of the 9th of September and the change of ministry, there has been a conspicuous activity in the Arab press, and that it has been exhibiting a restless impatience under the European control which might considerably complicate the action of the Government. During the past fortnight *L'Égypte* has been in the habit of making a series of translated *verbatim* extracts from the vernacular organs published here and in Cairo. It is difficult, as yet, to say whether the language of these journals is directed to the object of fomenting disquiet and antipathy to foreigners, or whether it is the spontaneous outcome of widespread and deeply-rooted aversion to the *status quo*. The sort of utterances with which these papers abound are to the effect that Egypt is overridden by over-paid and over-petted foreigners; that the country could get on in every way better without them; that even in manufactures and in the construction of machinery the native Egyptian now needs no further instruction or aid from Europeans; that all Moslems ought to combine to establish that true civilization comes from the East and not from the West; that the fate of India, of Algiers, of Tunis, and of the provinces of European Turkey, is a warning of what the faithful have to expect from the infidel if they do not aggregate themselves together under their natural head, the Sultan, and resist all present and all future invasion of their religious and national liberty; and that their best, or only, friends are the patriotic soldiery.

In such a country as Egypt, destitute of the very semblance of constitutional government, such language, when habitually repeated in the organs of the press and greedily devoured by readers of all classes all over the country, must either be overtly assumed by the Government as part of their programme or distinctly repudiated and peremptorily suppressed. What has been done is this: Sherif Pasha has addressed a warning to all the Arab newspapers, cautioning them against unfriendly

comments on foreigners and interference with questions of public policy, and specially forbidding their meddling with religious topics. It is premature at present to say whether this general warning is seriously meant or not. If Sherif Pasha himself has any stability of purpose—for which his character is not great here—his professed wish to repress newspaper extravagances in any direction whatever is probably genuine, because a strong government can only trust to perfect liberty (which, in the absence of anything deserving the name of a constitution, is out of the question), or to the entire subservience to itself of all organs of public opinion. Sherif Pasha has also addressed the same general warning to the English organ, and, as has been seen, has suppressed the French organ. What will come of this feud—a strengthened government, a change of Ministry, or a new revolution—will appear shortly. A.

CAIRO, October 28, 1881.

LAST Saturday I was present at a ceremony that recalled what many an Arab or Turk would call the good old days of infidel persecution. I refer to the Khedive's formal reception of Mr. Simon Wolf, the newly-appointed Diplomatic Agent and Consul-General of the United States.

At the close of the thirteenth century the Mameluke Sultan Mohammed Melek el Nasser ibn Kalaoon, the then ruler of Egypt, decreed that any Christian or Jew who was seen riding a horse or mule, wearing a white turban, or bearing a scimitar or other weapon, might be lawfully plundered and killed; that all Christians should wear the blue turban, and that all Jews should wear the yellow turban; that Christians and Jews should ride neither horses nor mules, but only donkeys, and with their faces to the animal's tail; and they should not enter a public bath unless with a bell suspended at their necks. Jews were detested by the Moslems far more than the Christians, and were regarded as so unclean that their blood would defile the sword. For this reason they were never beheaded, but many a Jew has been hanged upon a false and malicious accusation of uttering disrespectful words against the Koran or the Prophet. They used to be severely beaten merely for passing on the right hand of a Moslem. I have frequently noticed that when, as is often the case, the Arabs apply their copious vocabulary of oaths to their beasts of burden, the two words, "Noozraneh" (Christian) and "Yahoodeh" (Jew), seem to constitute a climax. No stronger epithet for expressing contempt and abhorrence being known, a temporary but gratifying silence ensues.

The decree of Melek el Nasser was not repealed until the accession of Mehemet Ali in 1801, who added force to its revocation by instituting the custom of presenting a handsomely-caparisoned Arab stallion and a Damascus scimitar to every duly accredited diplomatic representative of a Christian power; thus formally reminding them that they and their countrymen were no longer prohibited from appearing on horseback or wearing a sword in Egypt. As the trappings of the steed were often studded with precious stones, the American Government forbade its representative to accept such costly gifts, but made exception of the scimitar, which was supposed to symbolize sufficiently the emancipation of Christians. All the representatives of other powers accept the horse and trappings also, and the ceremony of presentation is still rigidly observed, and takes place in the presence of the Khedive and full court in gala array. Last Saturday there was special significance attached to the ceremony from the fact that the present Consul-General of the United States, Mr. Simon Wolf, is the first diplomatic envoy in Egypt who has happened to be of the Jewish religion since the days of the Pharaohs—since perhaps Moses, who was certainly a duly accredited agent to the court of King Menephtah of the XIX. Dynasty, who reigned, according to Brugsch, 1300 years before Christ.

The action of the United States Government in confiding the Egyptian mission to a prominent American citizen of the Jewish religion has called forth the warmest approbation from one and all, including the Khedive, who thus sees and appreciates an example of religious liberty, and who, as his Highness himself stated in a recent conversation, now makes the United States his model in matters of conscience and toleration. The following is a translation of the address delivered by the Khedive upon the occasion of Mr. Wolf's reception, at the close of which a salute of twenty-one guns was fired from the Citadel:

"I attach all the more consideration to the signature on your letters of credence, inasmuch as it is that of an eminent man who fell a victim to a deplorable attempt at the very time when he was giving the most manifest proofs of an ardent devotion to his country. I can appreciate your feelings in recalling this painful event, which has caused great emotion throughout the world—an emotion in which my country has joined, united as it is to yours in the bonds of a long and sincere friendship.

"It is, therefore, with true sympathy that I reply to your words, as well as to the good wishes you have been good enough to express in the name of the United States, and it will be with zeal that I will second your efforts to develop, under the influence of the new President of the Republic, the cordial relations established between Egypt and the great American nation, which, young as it may be, has, some time ago, taken its place in the first rank of the most advanced in the paths of progress and civilization."

While speaking of United States representatives in Egypt, it is difficult to pass by in silence the splendid market which Egypt and this part of the Mediterranean offer to American merchants, capitalists, and manufacturers. The average yearly importation of one single article, cotton goods, at the ports of the Eastern Mediterranean and the Black Sea, amounts to nearly $60,000,000. Of this merely an infinitesimal portion comes from the United States. England now possesses 63 per cent. of the foreign trade of Egypt; France, 13 per cent.; Italy, 7 per cent.; and the United States, one-half of one per cent. There are certainly no serious obstacles to the profitable introduction of American cotton goods, implements of agriculture, sewing-machines, etc., provided our merchants will only exercise a reasonable amount of enterprise and sagacity. I know of no more melancholy sight for an American than the harbor of Alexandria, now the second port of the Mediterranean. Apart from the total disappearance of American steamships and sailing vessels in the foreign trade, which is merely the logical result of our existing navigation laws, it is appalling to see the utter apathy with which our merchants and manufacturers allow European nations to monopolize these rich markets where the closest commercial relations might be established with comparative ease and with considerable profit.

To the recent political tempest there has succeeded a calm which depends for its continuance upon so many conflicting elements that he would be a bold man indeed who should attempt to forecast events; I shall consequently abide by the maxim, "Don't never prophesy unless you know." There certainly exists an intense religious agitation, but not such as is likely to interfere with Nile tourists, as it is confined to the cities and does not extend to Upper Egypt. The thirty-nine royal mummies recently unearthed near Thebes, to which I alluded in a previous letter, and which include the Pharaoh of the Jewish captivity, are alone worth a visit to Egypt.

Correspondence.

THE KING'S MISSIVE AGAIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If yourself and your readers have not already exhausted your interest in the subject, please allow me, as a party concerned, to put in a word as between your editorial comments and those of your correspondent in reference to Mr. Whittier's poem on "The King's Missive." Do you think that your readers would gather from your notice of the papers on the subject, as published in 'Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society,' a just view of the matters discussed in them? The first reference in those 'Proceedings' to the poem and its illustrations—at a meeting at which I was not present—says, the reading of it "led to some discussion as to the historical accuracy of Mr. Whittier's description." It was this point, and this alone, which engaged the interest of the Society, and, afterward, my own. The general subject of the treatment of each other by the Puritans and the Quakers was not under debate, and at three different times in my communications I endeavored to confine the discussion strictly to this point: Does not the poem with its illustrations—of a crowd of Quakers rushing out of jail, and of a group of them holding a jubilation meeting under the Great Elm on Boston Common—unduly strain a poetic license against the facts of history as given on our Court Records?

I argued that measures and effects such as in reality did not follow from it were assigned to the letter of King Charles II., and showed that as soon as the Puritan magistrates, in reply to it, had informed him how they had been molested by the Quakers, he sent them a second letter of quite a different tenor. Those familiar with Massachusetts colonial history need not be told that the grim magistrates of the colony were not wont to pay much deference to foreign interference with their affairs, or to do otherwise than to play off against it some sly evasions and tricks of their own—as, for instance, when they were ordered to send back their charter to the King, and did not do it. Popular revulsion of feeling and dissension among the magistrates themselves had arrested the full severity of the proceedings against the Quakers before the arrival of the King's letter; there had been two jail deliveries, and Quakers under capital condemnation had agreed to go off of their own free will. From the first settlement of the colony, victims of its severe proceedings had gone with their complaints to the English court. The magistrates had become hardened against any risks of this sort, and cared little for them. So far from fearing to send any of their Quaker victims to England, in accordance with the King's demand—though they did not in fact return a single one—they had opened the jail to them before the King's letter was received, on the express condition, as the Court Records show, that they would go to England of their own accord. Whoever knows the temper of the magistrates at that time will smile incredulously at the idea of the released Quakers being allowed to hold a jubilation meeting under the Great Elm.

Many readers get their ideas of history from poetry. On many subjects this makes but little difference. I remember a pleasant discussion which arose some time ago on the question how long it was after the settling of the poor, hard-pressed Pilgrims at Plymouth before they could have a taste of good old English roast-beef and butter. Some one said: "Priscilla Mullins rode on a white bull when she went to be married to John Alden." "What was the date of that marriage?" was asked by another of the group. A

reference to the inexorable records of sober history presented the fact that the marriage took place three years before Governor Bradford makes this entry on his page, under date of March, 1624: "Mr. Winslow came over. He brought three heifers and a bull; the first beginning of any cattle of that kind in the land."

Mr. Longfellow harms no one in this anachronism. He only beguiles us with the pleasant fancy that the Pilgrims might have enjoyed roast-beef at least three years before there was a "horned creetur'" in the country.

GEORGE E. ELLIS.

110 MARLBORO STREET, BOSTON.

THE ARCHÆOLOGICAL INSTITUTE OF AMERICA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you allow me to protest against the description of the Archæological Institute of America, in several of our newspapers, as the *Boston* Archæological Society? The Institute is in no sense of the word a local society, and its labors, now carried on in Mexico and at Assos, in Asia Minor, have certainly more than a local interest. Its list of members gives the Institute already the right, assumed in its title, to rank as a national organization; and the only ground for confining it to Boston is the fact that its meetings have heretofore been held there.

We are particularly anxious to avoid the imputation of being a society peculiar to Boston or to any other one city; not that we do not recognize entirely the generous interest of Boston in the work of the Institute, but because that work is too extensive to be carried on properly if it must rely upon merely local support.

I am, yours, very respectfully,

THOMAS W. LUDLOW.

No. 244 EAST 13TH STREET, NEW YORK, November 18, 1881.

THE MANUSCRIPTS OF THE NEW TESTAMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your article of June 9, upon the new version of the New Testament, you refer to the fact that the oldest MSS. do not date from much less than four centuries after Christ, and you claim that the publishing of this fact "is not calculated to strengthen the popular faith in the authenticity of the book as a revelation." The precise position thus taken cannot be objected to, yet the words suggest the possibility of a serious doubt springing from the nature of the manuscript evidence. In the second volume, just published, of Drs. Westcott and Hort's 'The New Testament in Greek' is given a clear and thorough investigation into what is termed the genealogy of the MSS. As is well known, even the three oldest of these, the Vatican, the Sinaitic, and the Alexandrian, present a very large number of variations from one another, which are mostly of no interest except to one who investigates the origin and mutual relationship of the documents.

It is evident at once that these three MSS. are copies of some one or more older MSS.; and the study of the origin of copyists' variations having been reduced to a science, the relationship of these MSS. is discoverable up to certain limits. It appears from these methods of study, which Drs. Westcott and Hort detail without purposing to establish the much greater antiquity of the original writings—for it probably never occurred to them that that could be seriously doubted—that these three MSS. are related in the same way that the zoölogist finds the well-marked varieties of a species to be related. To conceive that these MSS. proceeded from any common source separated by less than two or three centuries would be as unscientific as to look for a common ancestor of varieties of animals within any similar period. Probably no more definite estimate could be made, but it is clear that the "genealogical" evidence is of such strength as to diminish very greatly, if not remove, a doubt arising from the fact of these MSS. being some centuries later in their origin than the events they record.

GEO. P. HUNTINGTON.

MALDEN, MASS., November 21, 1881.

Notes.

THE *International Review* will hereafter be conducted by Messrs. Robert P. Porter and Henry Gannett, both well known from their relations to the late United States Census. The January number will be the first issued under the new management.——We have received the following reprints:—From Fords, Howard & Hulbert: The Rev. H. W. Beecher's 'Yale Lectures on Preaching' (three volumes in one) and 'Norwood'; and Mrs. Stowe's so-called "Domestic Tales," in one set: 'My Wife and I,' 'We and Our Neighbors,' 'Pink and White Tyranny,' and 'Poganuc People.' From Chas. Scribner's Sons: Dr. J. G. Holland's 'Lessons in Life,' 'Plain Talks on Familiar Subjects,' and 'Kathrina.' From Geo. Routledge & Sons: Professor Hoffman's 'Modern Magic' and 'Parlor Amusements'; 'Sanford and Merton'; and Prof. Plumptre's metrical translations of the tragedies of Sophocles and Æschylus. From T. B. Peterson & Bros.: Francatelli's 'Modern Cook,' 'Helen's Babies,' and 'The Initials' (of which it is high time the plates were sent to the melting-pot, in order, of course, to make way for a handsomer dress). From J. R. Osgood & Co.: Mrs. Shedd's 'Famous Painters and Paintings'; and Fields's 'Yesterdays with Authors,' to which steel portraits have been added of Dickens (two), Hawthorne (two), Pope, Miss Mitford, Wordsworth, Thackeray, Barry Cornwall, and Leigh Hunt. Concerning some of these the text contains particulars, which it would have been well, however, to repeat in a special table of the illustrations. The early Dickens and Hawthorne are curious.——Merely to mention the receipt of vols. xxi. and xxii. of *Scribner's Monthly*, bound, is, after our current account of this magazine, sufficient. Nor is more called for in the case of the substantial second volume of *Harper's Young People*; but we will add, with an eye to all children's periodicals, that we like it better bound than in its weekly issue. In other words, a complete volume is, to our mind, a better gift than a running subscription.——The abridged 'Proceedings' of the session of the American Philological Association at Cleveland last July have been published. The Committee on the Reform of English Spelling furnish a further list of twenty-four classes of words for amendment, adopted from the 'Partial Corrections' of the English Philological Society.——*Nature*'s latest "Science Worthies" portrait is that of the lamented James Clerk Maxwell, given in the number for October 27. The accompanying sketch of his life is brief, owing to the recent occasion for dwelling upon his career at length.——S. W. Green's Son, 74 Beekman Street, has put forth a pamphlet containing much practical information for authors as to estimates of the printed bulk of MSS., the various sizes and weights of paper, the relative capacity of fonts of type, etc.——Mr. John Payne, who published for subscribers his complete rendering into English of the poems of Villon, now proposes to issue in the same way five hundred copies of a complete translation from the original Arabic into English prose and verse of the 'Thousand and One Nights.' Much of the original matter is so "free" that it has hitherto been left in Arabic. The work will consist of nine octavo volumes.——Franz von Werner, born in Vienna in 1836, but a naturalized Turkish subject, died recently at the Hague. He was for several years Turkish envoy at the courts of Sweden and Holland, but is best known as an author, especially of dramatic works, under his Turkish name of Murad Effendi.——A monument was recently erected to "Charles Sealsfield" at Znaim, German Austria, his birth-place.

—The French edition of M. Eugène Muntz's 'Raphael, His Life, Works, and Times,' was reviewed at length in No. 821 of the *Nation*. The work has now been translated into English, and, with the same numerous array of plates, has been published in London by Chapman & Hall; in New York, by A. C. Armstrong & Son. As a holiday book it has the rare merit of being sumptuous in appearance and authoritative in contents. It is a mine of correct information.——Another beautiful book, indirectly illustrating the American predilection for landscape, is Mr. Samuel Adams Drake's 'Heart of the White Mountains,' for which the greater part of the designs were furnished by Mr. W. Hamilton Gibson. Readers of *Harper's Magazine* know something both of the text and of the woodcuts. Large type and broad margins do not relieve a certain thinness and dulness in the former, but the cuts of course gain by the more favorable conditions under which they are now printed. We do not mention necessarily the best drawn or the best engraved of them when we say that the very spirit of the White Mountains is to be found in the views of Lake Winnipiseogee, the Conway Meadows, Mt. Adams and the Great Gulf, Welch Mountain from Mad River, and Mt. Lafayette from Bethlehem. In general, one is struck with the fidelity of the artist's work, as well as with its poetic quality.——A cheapened but still somewhat stylish volume, once honored with an *édition de luxe*, is Mr. L. G. Seguin's 'Picturesque Tour in Picturesque Lands' (A. C. Armstrong & Son). It abounds in woodcuts, large and small, drawn from all sorts of sources, and sometimes arbitrarily misnamed, and ranging through many degrees of fineness or coarseness. The letterpress is in part evidently derived from the editor's personal experience, but in part is, we suspect, a skilful compilation, like the pictures themselves. To attempt to draw the line is hardly worth the while, inasmuch as the leading traits of national life are truthfully drawn.——By any name a new edition of the late John Hill Burton's 'Book-Hunter' would be welcome. The publisher of the one before us (Philadelphia: Robert A. Tripple) calls it both a memorial and a facsimile edition. The former epithet we can understand, but the latter is certainly misleading, or we have scrutinized Philadelphia typography to little purpose. This, however, is a small matter. The book is handy, easy to read, and comely to look at, and is not too dear. An obituary notice of Dr. Burton, borrowed from the *Academy*, is prefixed to the work proper.——The first edition of Mr. Oliver Johnson's 'Garrison and the Anti-Slavery Movement' was published by subscription, but without the typographical pretentiousness commonly observed in books thus offered for sale; in fact, it was printed and bound in very indifferent taste. The work has now been put upon the open market with the imprint of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., and with the elegance characteristic of the products of this firm. In size it has been promoted to an octavo; and the laid paper, the broad margins, and the faultless exterior complete the transformation. Some internal improvements also are to be noted, principally a supplementary chapter, in which,

taking for his text two adverse criticisms of the *Christian Union* and the *Independent*, Mr. Johnson defends and reinforces his account of the shortcomings of the churches, and dwells further on Mr. Garrison's attitude toward the political anti-slavery organizations and on his disunion policy. More than ever, therefore, the book is calculated to maintain its place in the public estimation.

—The opening paper of the December *Harper's*, on "The Bernadottes," by Mrs. Gustafson, is an entertaining account of a ruling family that has had the tact and ability thoroughly to identify itself with its adopted country. How well the Bernadottes deserve their popularity may be seen from Mrs. Gustafson's description of the important social and political reforms instituted by Oscar I. No mention is made of the great and peaceable revolution accomplished under Charles XV., and through his initiative and that of his great Minister, Louis de Geer, by which Sweden passed from the antiquated and cumbersome mode of law-making, by a majority of three out of four houses (Nobles, Clergy, Burgesses, and Peasants), to the modern parliamentary form of legislation by two chambers. This reform involved the voluntary surrender of their ancient privileges by nobles and priests. The enlightened beneficence of the princesses of the house of Bernadotte forms a fitting accompaniment to the statesmanship of their husbands and brothers. The spelling of the Swedish names of persons and places is usually correct. Bernadotte was made heir to the Swedish throne in 1810, not 1815. The historical painter, Höckert, was born in 1826, and it is hardly probable that he witnessed the burning of the Royal Castle in 1697, as stated in a foot-note to the engraving from his painting representing that event. The accompanying portraits of Oscar II. and Charles XV. do but scant justice to two uncommonly fine-looking men. Mr. Hatton's third paper on "Journalistic London" treats sympathetically of some of the Jingo papers and their editors, with especial emphasis on Mr. Edwin Arnold, of the *Telegraph*. In Mr. Arnold's experience Greek and Latin have been of infinite service "in the commonest experience of a cheap press"; and his doctrine that it is impossible for a newspaper man to be too widely read and trained, must be assented to, especially in the modern development of the daily journal as a patron of public charity, domestic employment, geographical exploration, and what not. It was at Mr. Arnold's suggestion that Mr. Lawson, the proprietor of the *Telegraph*, despatched Mr. George Smith on his Assyrian expedition. The portraits of Mr. Mudford, Mr. John Morley, and Mr. Frederick Greenwood will most attract attention. Mr. John Fiske's "How America Came to be Discovered" implies a sequel, and indeed reads like the prelude to a history of the United States. The popular science of this number is found in Mr. W. H. Gibson's "Among Our Foot-Prints," observations with pen and pencil on creeping and low-lying things in field and wood. Among the poetry, a good idea is given of the monologues now fashionable in France, by Mrs. E. W. Latimer's translation of 'The Hat,' recited by M. Coquelin.

—The *Atlantic* for December contains an article on the "Origin of Crime in Society," by Mr. Richard L. Dugdale, in which the writer, who is a penal reformer, argues that imprisonment as a remedy for crime is a failure. He does not make it very clear what he would substitute for prisons, which he admits will always continue to be necessary for the confinement of murderers and of criminals addicted to offences of great violence against the person; but he seems to think that ultimately criminals will be permitted to remain at large under some sort of supervision founded upon the Irish prison system, and that introduced by Captain Maconochie at Norfolk Island. The idea at the bottom of the article is that reform and not punishment ought to be kept in view as the chief end of repressive measures taken by society against criminals. The practical difficulties in the way of this are, however, enormous, and are very well stated by Mr. Dugdale himself, in a passage the full force of which he does not appear to understand:

"We know so little concerning the offending class, as its members ramify through the complex web of society, that new and long-continued observations need to be made, extending to their ancestry, to the surroundings of their childhood and manhood, to their social, mental, moral, physical, and industrial disabilities, before a clear conception can be obtained of the multiform agencies by which a criminal can be lifted into a useful and honorable career."

We may get some faint idea of the amount of labor that would be involved in any general substitution of individual reformatory effort for prisons by reflecting that the work of reform is closely analogous to that of education. The penal reformer takes the adult criminal and subjects him to those moral influences, repressive and stimulating, which cultivate the habit of virtue, just as the parent takes his own children and promotes in them the formation of good character. The difference between the two things is, that the parent goes to work at the earliest stage of his subject's career, and makes the development of the child's character a main business of his own life. In the case of the criminal, a character has been already formed, and what has to be done is not merely to furnish him with a new and good one, but first to get rid of his already established bad habits. In other words, the work is doubly difficult in the latter case. Moreover, the parent has the motive of natural affection and interest to keep him at his work, while the reformer of adult criminals can never have anything more than a general philanthropic desire to benefit society. It is very improbable that there will ever be in the world, at any one time, any very large number of people who will be competent to carry on the work of individual criminal reform, whereas the number of children to be educated is directly governed by the number of parents who bring them into the world. The work of education is even now very imperfect, and does not prevent the continual production of large bodies of adults given over to vice and crime. To imagine that the time will ever come when the criminal can be taken in hand by the reformer as the child now is by its parent, is to imagine a vastly greater interest in the work of reform than natural causes will be likely to produce. Mr. Dugdale's article contains some valuable suggestions and also a good many unintelligible propositions. What the following sentences mean we will not undertake to say, and therefore forbear to express any opinion as to their value:

"These assumptions are jealously maintained, and on analysis they possibly reveal that the fear of criminals is greater than confidence in human nature; that faith in statutes is stronger than faith in social laws, and that reliance upon brute force is more esteemed than a proper understanding of the remorseless compulsions of national metamorphoses. In matters of crime, the public mind largely ignores the part which civilization plays as a perpetual persuasion, in slowly moulding the most diverse and obdurate elements of self-interest into still more diverse and recondite forms, which pass under a thousand altruistic names."

—Mr. Theodore Child contributes a readable article on "Shakespeare and Berlioz," which contains an account of the musician's unfortunate infatuation for Miss Smithson, who after many years of distant worship finally became his wife, and also of his extraordinary prayer to Shakspere, which candid agnostics, who hope to see the *grand être humain* substituted for the Almighty, may read with profit. An article by Edward Farrer on the "Habitant of Lower Canada" has some remarks of interest with regard to the French spoken in that province, which not only puzzles most travellers, but has caused a good deal of discussion and trouble in France itself. Many travellers speak of it as a *patois*, but Mr. Farrer insists, as the Canadians themselves do, that the basis of the language is pure French—French of the classical age—marred, however, by certain Anglicisms, and by the use of archaic words and of local terms, which the habitant has had to coin in his new life.

—American agricultural competition, which has excited so much alarm in England for the past two years, has not left Germany free from apprehension for the future; and although the Germans are not confronted with the possible necessity of a radical social revolution, the problem is sufficiently grave to call for patient investigation. Mr. Henry Semler, a German resident of San Francisco, contributes to this question a volume of more than 200 pages ('Die wahre Bedeutung und die wirklichen Ursachen der nord-Amerikanischen Concurrenz in der Landwirthschaftlichen Production,' Wismar, 1881), intended to serve at once for the instruction and the encouragement of his countrymen. He is evidently a man of good sense, and one who has travelled far and intelligently; he says that for ten years he has worked on American farms in the Eastern and Western States as well as on the Pacific coast, and in every capacity, beginning as a laborer and rising to be a proprietor. Hence he justly lays claim to a better right to be heard than belongs to newspaper correspondents and other travellers, who have only seen the country superficially. The point which he aims to enforce is, that the great advantage which American farmers possess over those of Germany is not a natural one, which it would be hopeless to overcome, but is rather to be sought in the methods and habits of the people, the adoption of which by the Germans would lead to the most beneficial results. The natural fertility of the soil has been, he says, much exaggerated, and is, in great part, neutralized by the cost of transportation. Neither the price of land nor the cost of production is as low as is sometimes taken for granted by foreigners who do not make a proper allowance for the overstatements of American newspapers. How cautiously American statistics must be regarded is shown by the indignation with which the last census returns were received in St. Louis, Chicago, and other cities, which had always insisted that they possessed a much larger population than the figures actually show. As a further instance the author relates how a committee of the New York Butter and Cheese Exchange arrived at an estimate of the total annual butter production of the United States. They assumed that five millions of the population consumed a pound a week, each; ten millions three quarters of a pound, ten millions a half pound, and ten millions a quarter pound. To this they added one third more, as being used for cooking purposes, and fifty-three million pounds exported, and thus got a total of 1,440,000,000 pounds as the annual butter production. This may be good guessing, but it is not statistics. The real superiority of American farmers the author finds in their practical methods, which lead them to use machinery, improved tools, light vehicles, and all sorts of labor-saving and time-saving appliances, and which is observable even in subsidiary matters, such as the dress of the laborers, the number of meals taken in a day, the hours of labor, and the domestic arrangements. Another

important matter is the habit of temperance, in which Mr. Semler maintains that the American country population is far superior to that of Germany. He is most positive in the assertion that alcoholic stimulants are an unmixed injury to any one who has exhaustive physical labor to perform, and that they undermine the power of endurance.

—Other factors which he enumerates are: a superior social position, resulting from a democratic constitution of society; a minute division of labor, so that we have wheat farms, dairy farms, peach farms, strawberry farms, to say nothing of the special devotion of certain sections to cotton, to sugar, to tobacco. The author even speaks of special turkey farms. Further, the great number of railroads, carrying produce with despatch and at low rates, the more perfect organization of commerce, and the enterprising spirit of the mercantile community. On all of these matters the author goes into full details, which show an intimate familiarity with his subject, and which he commends to the emulation of his countrymen. He sees no reason why they should not adopt American ways at home when they show such readiness in doing so here. In speaking of the Chinese in California, with whom he has worked side by side, he denies that it is their poor way of living that makes them formidable competitors. It is true they live in narrow quarters, but in point of food and clothing they need no less than a Caucasian. When working on farms, where they board themselves, they eat three meals a day, consisting of pork and rice, white bread and tea, and on Sundays they have poultry and cake. The secret of their success is to be sought in the principle of coöperation, which they carry to perfection. They all belong to one or other of the six corporations, which own large establishments and are marvellously organized.

—In No. 805 of the *Nation* (December 2, 1880) we reviewed the first volume of Stewart and Long's new translation of 'Plutarch's Lives,' comparing it with Clough's revision of the Dryden translation, and pointing out numerous inaccuracies and other defects in the new version which should prevent it from superseding Clough's in public favor. We have now received the second and the third volume (published by Geo. Bell & Sons, London, 1881), and an examination of these confirms the opinion which we expressed a year ago of the first volume. We find no decided improvement in any respect on the older translation, and the errors and inaccuracies make it an unsafe guide for those who cannot refer to the original. We give a few specimens, taken at random from the life of Nicias. In chapter ii. we find, "yet Nikias never preferred the interest of his party to that of his country," where Plutarch wrote, "nevertheless he had the good will of the common people, and they were ambitious to further his interests." In chapter v. Plutarch says of Nicias, "Nor did he have any leisure at all for such recreations; but when he was General, he used to spend his time until night at the War Office, and when he was Senator, he used to be the last to leave the Senate house, as he was the first to come to it." Stewart gives merely this: "When General, he used to spend the whole day in his tent, and when the Senate met he would be the first to come to the house and the last to leave it." Just below, where Plutarch says of Hiero, who was educated in the house of Nicias, that he professed to be the son of "Dionysius, called *Chalcus*," Stewart calls him "Dionysius of Chalkis," who was a late historian. At the end of chapter xxiii., in the account of the fatal eclipse of the moon, which delayed the retreat of the Athenians from Syracuse in 413 B. C., we read in the new translation, "but Nikias persuaded them to wait for another complete circuit of the moon, because its face could not shine upon them propitiously before that time after its defilement with the gross earthly particles (!) which had intercepted its rays." It is beyond our power to conceive of any process by which all this could be tortured out of the simple statement of Plutarch, "But N. persuaded them to wait through another circuit of the moon; as if he had not seen it become clear again as soon as it had passed through the region of shadow where the light was intercepted by the earth." Earlier in the same chapter, Stewart gives, "Men at that time could not endure natural philosophers, . . . but accused them of degrading the movements of the heavenly bodies by attributing them to necessary physical causes." This is a very inadequate rendering of Plutarch's expression (which might come from a modern sermon), "of frittering away the Deity into irrational causes, and blind forces and movements governed by necessity." This edition will be completed when one more volume (the fourth) is published.

—We read in the last *Academy* that at a meeting of the Browning Society, in London, on October 28, an address was delivered by Mr. Kirkman of a somewhat remarkable nature. Societies like these, for the study of the works of living authors, would seem amenable to the decent feeling which makes us reserve our statues for the dead. No objection can be offered to the reverent discussion of texts, or to any amount of admiration of genius, in such gatherings; but, unless the reporter is excluded, there are some things which had better be left unsaid, in the interest both of speaker and subject. Mr. Kirkman, according to the *Academy*, began by suggesting a rough division of Browning's poems into two classes, earlier and later: "(1) those which may be understood and enjoyed; (2) those which never will be," although their obscurity, "the being 'dark with excess of light,' Mr. Kirkman considered altogether a legitimate difficulty to be dealt with; a difficulty ending in satisfaction and enhanced degrees of pleasure." The first excuse for founding a Browning Society Mr. Kirkman alleged to consist in "the fact that Browning is undoubtedly the profoundest intellect, with the widest range of sympathies, and with the most universal knowledge of men and things, that has arisen since Shakspere; his Shaksperean genius shining in his power to throw his whole intellect and sympathies into the most diverse individualities." There is a "legitimate difficulty" in this last sentence, but the reader will find it to "end in satisfaction and enhanced degrees of pleasure." Mr. Kirkman went on to say that "the three great subjects treated by Browning are (1) music, (2) art, and (3) religion." But this, after all, is only half the truth; for Browning is a born musician, an art critic and exponent of the religious aspect of art, and "not merely a religious poet, he is *religion itself*." Here the cultus reaches a stage at which, as we have said, the doors ought to be closed and locked, and the mysteries conducted in dead secrecy. A modicum of humor in Mr. Browning's nature would make him lay down the *Academy* with disgust.

—Mr. Henry Gannett, the geographer of the Tenth Census, has just published, in the form of an Extra Census Bulletin, a statement of the approximate areas of the United States, the several States and Territories, and their counties. The paper is accompanied by a small map of the United States, showing by lines of color the territory which is included in the area of each State and Territory as given in the tables. Of the necessity which existed for undertaking this work, Mr. Gannett says, in his introductory letter, that, "of several States a number of estimates of area have been in use, differing from one another by thousands of square miles, and none of them, perhaps, traceable to any authentic source. Many of the results were palpably wrong, being so far from the truth that it is a source of surprise that they were not corrected before." The general method employed by Mr. Gannett in obtaining the areas of the United States and the several States and Territories can be briefly described. The square degree—*i.e.*, the spherical quadrilateral included between two consecutive parallels and meridians—was used as the unit of computation, its area in different latitudes being carefully computed. The area of the country, as of each State and Territory, is, of course, equal to the sum of the square degrees included within its limits, increased by the fractional square degrees. Where the latter were less than half the square degree they were measured directly from the best available maps or charts. Where they were more than half, the portion lying outside the State or county was directly measured and deducted from the total of the square degree. As the geographical position of the boundaries and coast of the country is throughout very nearly their whole extent accurately known, through the labors of the Coast Survey, the Lake Survey, and the different boundary surveys, its area is susceptible of tolerably accurate determination, and it is to be presumed that the area as given by Mr. Gannett can be in error but very few square miles. This area is given as 3,025,600 square miles. It includes all interior water area, excepting Lake Michigan, and all bays, gulfs, etc., which are closely landlocked. Deducting from these figures the area of all water surface, bays and estuaries of the sea, lakes and rivers, there results 2,970,000 miles of land surface. These measurements, of course, are exclusive of Alaska, whose area can be merely a matter of the wildest conjecture.

—In regard to the degree of accuracy claimed for the areas of States and Territories Mr. Gannett says: "While most of these areas can be considered as only approximations, yet they are as close approximations as the maps and the determinations of geographical positions, of boundary lines, etc., will permit." The principal source of error in the areas of States is not inaccuracies of measurement, which may be regarded as trifling, but is due to uncertainties regarding the location of the boundary lines. Until these shall have been accurately established, all measurements of certain States are only approximations. The boundaries of many of the States, however, have been accurately located, and in these cases the areas have been closely computed, while several of the Western States and Territories are limited by parallels and meridians, and their exact areas are merely a matter of computation. Mr. Gannett also calls attention to the discrepancies between the positions of many boundary lines as established by law and as actually surveyed and marked upon the ground, noting the fact that, in obtaining areas, he has been perforce obliged to accept the legal position of the boundaries. The areas of the counties have been obtained by direct measurement, and corrected arbitrarily to make them, in adding up, equal to the total area of the State as determined independently.

—The billiard contest at Tammany Hall has been watched with much interest by professionals as well as amateurs on account of its involving a comparatively new development of the game. The chief problem of modern billiards is to make rules which will render continuous "rail" play, or anything like it, impossible. The attempt last year to solve the difficulty by marking off the

corners of the table by a chalk line, and forbidding play within this limit, did not, we believe, produce the desired effect, because the professionals on reaching the line, instead of being forced, as it had been expected they would be, to resort to "open" play, or in other words to separate the balls by "round-the-table" shots, found that they could carry them across the corner from one "rail" or cushion to the next, and continue "nursing" them till the next chalk line was reached, and so on. People who are not possessed with the true billiard enthusiasm may, by the way, get some idea of what "nursing" in the hands of a professional is from the fact that the late Professor Peirce, who made a quasi-mathematical examination of the game, found that many of the close shots require a delicacy of sight and touch which in other departments of human activity the eye and hand cannot attain except with the aid of mechanical contrivances, magnifying glasses, etc. The rules of the "cushion carom" game do away with the chalk-line, but require the player, in order to count, to touch with the cue ball not only the object and the third ball, but a cushion as well. The cushion may be taken before striking either ball or between the two. In the first play under the new rules the average runs were very small, and it seemed as if the long-desired result had at last been secured. In fact, it seemed to have been secured almost too well. For a professional it was found that an average of three or four was very good work, while for an ordinary player to make a single run of three in the course of a game would be creditable, and his average would probably be represented by a decimal fraction. As a very large proportion of the shots have to be "bank" shots, or shots in which the cushion is taken first, the difficulty of calculating in what position the balls will be left for the next play is enormously increased. Still, even at this game very high scores may eventually be attained, for in one contest Dion made the extraordinary run of forty-five, beating the best previous record by ten points. The game as now played is for 200 points, and some experts are said to believe that practice will before long enable the really great professionals to make the entire game in a single run. If that point is reached, the reformers will have to be called in again.

—Beethoven's Eroica Symphony, although perhaps more familiar to the public than any other symphonic work, yet requires for a full appreciation of all its exquisite details a fresh and receptive state of mind, and Mr. Thomas therefore showed his usual taste and practical sense in placing it at the head of the programme of the first Philharmonic concert in Brooklyn. To say anything in praise of this symphony at the present day would be quite as superfluous as to say that Mr. Thomas's orchestra played it as well as it can be played by any association of mortals. But even the Eroica Symphony has its weak spots, and conspicuous among these are the concluding bars of the last movement. How the same pen that wrote the sublime bars with which the symphony is replete could write such a mechanical ending, in the slovenly style of Rossini, is quite a mystery; and there is no denying that, as in the case of the last bars of the Fifth Symphony and of the opera of "Fidelio," such a trivial ending detracts considerably from the beauty of the work. Beethoven and some other German composers did not always remember that all's well that ends well; and their awkward way of ending their finest works often reminds one of those bashful men who do not seize the one proper moment of bringing a social call to an end, immediately after having said something bright, but linger a moment longer to add a platitude. The second orchestral selection was Brahms's Academic Festival Overture, concerning which nothing need be added to what has been already said in these columns. We had the pleasure of being present at the Philharmonic concert in Vienna at which this overture was first performed under the bâton of Hans Richter, and in presence of the composer, who had presumably superintended the last rehearsal; and we feel bound to testify that Mr. Thomas's performance of it was fully equal to Hans Richter's; or, in other words, that the New York Philharmonic is not in any respect inferior to that of Vienna. Signor Campanini had been engaged to sing two songs, "Il mio Tesoro" from "Don Giovanni," and a romance from Weber's best but least popular opera "Euryanthe." Unfortunately his voice gave evidence of fatigue, and these selections were not so well sung as at the rehearsal on Friday afternoon. An occasional lack of tone-color, and necessity of forcing a high note, should warn him that he must use his voice very carefully if he wishes to preserve its former beauty. Nor will he add to his popularity among competent judges by taking liberties with such German songs as he is asked to sing. After Nicolini, of course, Campanini seems a model of perfection, especially in Italian music. But to assert that he is prëeminent in German, and especially modern German music, as some of his friends do, is a notion which cannot be seriously considered by those who have heard Vogel, Winkelmann, or Niemann. Madame Schiller was the second soloist, and played Liszt's arrangement for piano and orchestra of Schubert's Fantasia op. 15. This is one of the most successful of Liszt's numerous transcriptions, and it can be said of it as of Berlioz's orchestral arrangement of Weber's "Invitation à la Valse," and Mr. Thomas's version of Schubert's "Der Doppelgänger," that it is more effective in its new than in its original form. Madame Schiller's execution of it was on the whole good. She played the "Wanderer," which is introduced in the course of the piece, with much expression, and her runs in the high octaves were light and graceful. Passages that require great energy were less satisfactorily rendered, and the noise made by her striking the keys with her finger-nails was occasionally quite annoying. The ballet music to Rubinstein's "Nero" followed as the last piece. The introduction of ballet music in concerts is a new fashion which can but be approved of, especially when the selections are made from Rubinstein's operas or Delibes's ballets. Rubinstein has been so successful in this direction that the recent announcement that he was engaged on a ballet could surprise no one. In the ballet music to "Nero" there is just that succession of animated and varied rhythms, with voluptuous melodies usually played by the full force of 'cellos or violas, that is called for by the situation. There are at least three or four motives in this ballet music which are the product of pure genius, and which give it a special claim to be heard in a concert-hall, where the attention is not distracted by the gorgeous spectacle offered to the eyes in a theatre.

—For the performances of "Parsifal" in Bayreuth next summer, a special instrument, a sort of bell-piano, has been invented, which is to be used to imitate the ringing of the bells at the entrance of the knights in the Gralsburg. The instrument has only four keys, each being about three times as broad as a piano key. They will be struck with the fist in order to secure the requisite loudness. The strings are also four in number, and suspended over a sounding board. Each string consists of six of the strongest bass strings twisted together. As some old fogies will probably turn up their noses at the "necessity of inventing new instruments for effect," we will add for their benefit that real bells are not available in an orchestra on account of their discordant overtones, whereas such an instrument as we have described will represent a set of chimes in perfect tune and of excellent clang tint. Here, by the way, we may allude to two recently invented methods of applying electricity to music. One relates to the photophone or radiophone, which can be attached to a so-called dumb piano (used for exercises) in such a way that the player can hear his performances, but no one else. The other is Boudet's electric piano, which differs from ordinary instruments in having two sets of hammers. A key of the upper manual is set in motion by electricity whenever the corresponding lower key is touched, and as long as the latter is kept down continues to strike the string rapidly, the result being a beautiful sustained tone like that of an organ, in place of the sharp and dry tone peculiar to the piano.

— Amateur astronomers will be gratified to find that the appointment of Mr. Christie to the arduous and responsible post of Astronomer Royal does not necessitate his relinquishing the editorship of the *Observatory*, a monthly review of astronomy which had its inception with him, and which, under his able management, has grown to be a fixture, so to say, of the science. The November issue appears with its accustomed promptness, containing, among other papers, a summary of recent changes on the surface of Jupiter, by Mr. Russell, the Government astronomer at Sydney, New South Wales. The paper deals particularly with the great red spot which for three or four years past has been the subject of much observation by astronomers everywhere, and presents very strong evidence that it is a permanent feature of the planet. That it seems to change a little in form Mr. Russell considers no proof to the contrary, as the Jovian clouds must have considerable influence upon visible outline, and the apparent changes in form are really not great. The color of the great spot may be said to be uniform and constant, though at times small variations of tint on parts of it have been detected. The shadow of a satellite in crossing the spot is black; if it were self-luminous this would not be the case. And Mr. Russell's paper, chiefly relating to his own observations, goes a long way toward proving that the "spot" is solid ground, and not, as it has heretofore been almost universally regarded, merely clouds. The November *Observatory* contains also a print of the Report of the Committee on Standards of Stellar Magnitude — a subject which, as every one knows, has hitherto been in a somewhat confused and unscientific state, but which now, through the admirable scheme of the American committee, proposing the coöperation of the astronomers of England and Germany, gives early promise of something very definite and satisfactory. Mr. Christie has associated with him, in the editorship of the *Observatory*, Mr. Maunder, of the Royal Observatory, well known for his spectroscopic observations at Greenwich.

THE GROWTH OF A LITERARY PUBLIC.

Le Public et les Hommes de Lettres en Angleterre au dix-huitième siècle. Par Alexander Beljame. Paris: Hachette. 1881.

THE period which M. Beljame has selected, though neither as splendid as the age before nor as that which followed, and indeed in some of its aspects more repulsive than any in all English literature, has yet for the student certain attractions which are all its own. It is a period of the most violent revulsions and reactions in all our literary history; nowhere do we find such breaches of continuity. Milton was

nearer to the pseudo-Cædmon in thought and character of expression than Wycherley was to Milton; the Victorian poets are nearer Chaucer than any writer of Queen Anne. The whole period resembles a "fault" in geology, where part of a stratum has been violently dislocated, while the natural course of the rock is followed a little further on. Happily for the student, the materials are so abundant and so clear that the lives of the writers and the course of events around them can be studied almost from day to day; and of these materials M. Beljame has availed himself with a conscientiousness and an unwearied diligence that are worthy of high praise. The reader, indeed, is almost oppressed by the multitude of references and citations (accurate even to errors in spelling and slips of the press), to say nothing of the copious bibliography appended to the book.

The violent reaction against Puritan austerity, and the dissoluteness of morals that followed the Restoration, are well sketched by our author, but are too well known from the pages of Macaulay to need more than a reference. As a matter of course the theatres, so long the passionate delight of the public, and whose closure had been one of the chief causes of discontent under the Commonwealth, were soon in full activity. But it was a new theatre and a new public. Strangely enough, the dramatic imagination and dramatic feeling so extraordinary in the preceding age had altogether fled, and has never since returned. In the new theatre all is artificial and dead. No vividly-painted scenes nor ingenious machinery can supply the place of the lost imagination. The Elizabethans dramatized Italian novels, but their successors hash up French plays. For tragic passion we have cold-blooded bombast, even more repulsive by its frigidity than its extravagance, of which poor Nat Lee's mad rants, which have at least a kind of Bedlam sincerity about them, are by no means the worst specimens. For comic wit and fancy we have coarse licentiousness; not the frank sensuality of an age full of joyous vitality, but cold obscenity, so foul, so diseased, that it seems inconceivable that men could ever have borne to write, to listen to, or to see such things. And we may say in passing that we think M. Beljame might have considered his point proved with fewer citations, and might have spared us some of those evidences of *dévergondage* which later editors wisely omit. The public too had changed. The Elizabethans wrote not merely for the Sidneys, Cecils, Raleighs, but for the innocent homely people; the dramatists of the Restoration wrote for a venal king and a corrupt crew of Sedleys, Wilmots, Clevelands, Portsmouths—a public lost to virtue, honor, and even decency. The citizens are never mentioned but with scorn and insult. For such a public the dramatists had to write; before these they had to abase themselves, for only by their favor could they obtain a hearing, and only by their bounty could they live.

M. Beljame certainly does not lay too heavy a charge against this period when he writes:

"This epoch, in appearance so literary, was in reality one of those least favorable to letters. It broke away from Shakspere, and ignored the two noble epics of Milton and of Bunyan. And there are other literary crimes—the word is no exaggeration—to be laid at its door. It condemned Dryden, one of the strongest and most fertile talents that England ever produced, to waste his best years of intellectual vigor in the hasty production of works for which he knew he was not fitted; it compelled the great dramatic talent of Otway to squander itself on work altogether unworthy of him; of Shadwell, who had a native gift of observation and genuine comic *verve*, it made, despite himself, a writer of mere farces."

Why, then, did men of genius submit to all this? Because there was no help for it. It was that or silence. "They were caught in the wheels of the machinery and dragged along in spite of themselves."

"Before writing they carefully took note of what was the taste in high quarters, and submissively followed in its wake, though they saw plainly enough whither it was leading them. . . . They saw the current that was sweeping them along; they cried out against it, but not a single one tried to stem the stream. Not but what there were those who had strength enough for such an attempt; but to make the venture, to brave the fashion in the face of those accustomed to make the law, and banded in a compact body, would have been playing a desperate game. If they failed, they must cease to write; no alternative would have been possible."

Another study, "John Dryden et la Politique," shows us the poet and his literary brethren under another aspect. In the latter part of the reign of Charles, when all hope of a direct heir had been abandoned, and it was evident that the crown would devolve upon James, the political and religious spirit of the nation was stirred to its depths; and the court could no longer be indifferent to popular feeling. After such convulsions as those of the Popish Plot, the Londoners and the country gentlemen had ceased to be mere butts for courtly derision; they were possible squares of pikemen and squadrons of carbineers. The public had become a factor that could never again be left out of the account. But this public was not Oliver's Ironsides, with a fixed purpose and a duty plain before them; it was anxious, suspicious, uncertain, swaying from side to side, capable of sudden furies, split into parties. Both sides were eager to make converts, and a literary strife broke out, Whigs and Tories alike bringing into the field a swarm of political writers. There being as yet no newspapers to offer an arena for free debate, and the press being still shackled, with the unscrupulous L'Estrange as the licenser, the polemic first found utterance in the theatre in the prologues and epilogues, and then in the pieces themselves. Dryden took a share—on the Tory side, of course—and produced his tragedy of "Amboyna" to win over the public to the anti-Dutch policy of the Ministry, and his opera of "Alban and Albanius," in glorification of Charles and James. But the theatre was neither a sufficient nor a satisfactory medium, and the general want was supplied by the coffee-houses, which now came into importance, became centres of common interests, and began to crystallize public opinion.

In these not only was news exchanged, and the events of the day discussed, but satires, lampoons, serious dissertations were read aloud, copies passed from hand to hand, and telling phrases from mouth to mouth. The Government grew uneasy, and attempted to suppress the coffee-houses, but encountered such violent resistance that the attempt was abandoned. The court party became aware that though they could fetter the press they could not gag the growing freedom of speech; and that if the Whigs were to be fought with any hope of success, it must be with their own weapons. They naturally turned to Dryden as their champion. For once the veteran poet found himself in a position to put forth his real power. "Sans modèles, sans prédécesseurs, il créa de toutes pièces le poème politique, et débuta d'emblée par un chef-d'œuvre." This masterpiece was the immortal "Absalom and Achitophel." It was read from end to end of the kingdom—in the country as well as the town. "The father of Dr. Johnson, at that time a bookseller in Lichfield, told his son that he had never known anything to have such a sale, unless it was the 'Trial of Dr. Sacheverell' long after." Numerous antagonists undertook to answer, but it was plain that none could measure swords with the master. The value of such a writer's services was indisputable, and the court hastened to appeal again to him when, on Shaftesbury's acquittal of the charge of treason, a medal was struck in his honor by the exulting Whigs. Dryden published "The Medal." Shaftesbury soon after fled to Holland, where he died, and the discovery of the Rye-house Plot left Charles master of the situation. Conscious of his power, Dryden next drew the pen for a personal vengeance, and did tardy execution on the unlucky Shadwell, who, with all his faults, deserved a better fate than to be known to posterity only by "McFlecknoe."

Whether Dryden was sincere in embracing the Catholic faith is a point still debated. With an inferior man there would be little question, but, with all Dryden's faults, there is such a stamp of manliness and sincerity about him that we are reluctant to class him with the herd of time-servers and turncoats. On the one side it is shown that in so doing he took the best possible mode of recommending himself to the new king, who paid him a considerable sum of money as an earnest of his favor; and certainly, whether the conversion was genuine or not, it was most suspiciously well-timed. On the other hand, it is argued that the payment was but a small part of his long arrears of pension; and it is asked whether the noble lines in the "Hind and Panther" can be other than the expression of fervent conviction. On the whole, M. Beljame's conclusion seems reasonable. Dryden had deep moral, but shallow religious, convictions—or perhaps it is better to say that his religious convictions were strong, but they were moral rather than doctrinal.

"Had he shown," M. Beljame asks with some force, "that he was of other stuff than his contemporaries? Had he in any way distinguished himself by the energy of his character? Far from it. He had shown no firmer convictions in politics than in religion. He made his début as a republican by chanting the praises of Cromwell; two years later we find him a royalist, hailing with enthusiasm the restoration of Charles II. In 1673 he wrote 'Amboyna,' to bring the Dutch war into favor; then, in his 'Absalom' and in the 'Medal,' he violently denounced Shaftesbury for having helped to bring that war about. Even in literary matters we have seen him yielding, despite his judgment and conscience, to fashion and the caste of the day. . . . Poet-laureate though he was, he was none the less a poet—that is, a small and insignificant member of society, incapable of standing alone, and forced to submit to circumstances."

The Revolution of 1688 found a changed England. The sovereign no longer reigned by hereditary and divine right, but by the confidence of the nation. Public sentiment was now all-powerful, and those who could sway it were in high account with the Ministry, if not with the King. Writers were now not merely respected, they were honored and caressed by the great, and fortune and rank might be their reward. "Men of letters," says our author, "grew in their own estimation, had a higher opinion of their profession and of themselves, and, as a natural consequence, began to justify this consideration." The theatre was slow to reform, but there was an improvement in language if not in morals. Coarse indecency gave way to innuendo and allusion, and things were now hinted that would have been spoken boldly out. In 1698 appeared Collier's 'View of the Immorality of the Stage,' to be followed year after year by reiterated attacks and denunciations like the strokes of a pile-driver—heavy, monotonous, fanatical, often unjust, but the expression of sincere conviction. His opponents fought hard, but it was a losing battle. Public sentiment was on his side, and the movement once started threatened to go too far. What was

needed was to show that morality and austerity were not synonymous; that virtue might put on a gracious and attractive garb without being vice in disguise; that a man might lead a blameless life, be a sincere Christian, and at the same time a polished and perfect gentleman. This was the task undertaken by that group of graceful writers of whom Addison was the head.

By this time, and by such circumstances as have been indicated—this is M. Beljame's principal thesis—a genuine public, as we now understand the word, was in process of formation; not a party or clique, but a body of intelligent readers of various ranks of life, scattered throughout the kingdom, capable of being influenced, and in their turn capable of influencing public opinion. This was the public to whom literary men were henceforth to address themselves; and the organ chosen to reach them was the journal, now an established "institution." With Addison's career, his association with Steele, the foundation of the *Spectator*, its character and influence, our readers are already familiar, and we need not dwell upon them. These periodicals completed the work already begun, and the result, in our author's words, was this: "From this time forth the writers have a public before them—that is, a body of readers sufficiently numerous to be relied upon, and sufficiently informed to ensure a reception to any class of literary composition."

The writers did not yet stand upon a purely literary footing; they were not disconnected from parties, and they still looked to men in public office for their rewards. "True, there was no coarse bargain, and the writers were not in the pay of the statesmen; but the statesmen attached them to themselves by associating their interests with their own fortunes. It was a sort of mutual insurance. 'Defend us, and we will assure your existence.' 'Secure us a maintenance,' said the others, 'and we will support you.' . . . They were no longer mercenaries, but allies." And in another place: "It was not literature itself that was regarded, but the services it was capable of rendering. The consideration shown it was not due to its intrinsic merit, but its incidental utility." There remained to be exhibited a man of letters achieving a proud independence, and rising to eminence by his literary gifts alone; and he is brought before us in the sketch of Pope.

M. Beljame does not undertake to make a study of Pope's character, but simply to show that with him the literary profession attained complete emancipation. The deserving author had now a recognized and honored place in society, due to his literary merit alone; there was a large and intelligent public from whom he was sure of a hearing; and there was an established medium between the author and the public—the publisher-capitalist. Of course the melancholy chapter of the calamities of authors was not closed, nor is it closed to this day; but though they might suffer want and neglect, they need never henceforth suffer shame and humiliation. We have to thank M. Beljame for bringing out these facts with force and clearness; and we have preferred giving our readers a bird's-eye glance of the field he has so carefully gone over, to stopping to question or argue points which, after all, affect neither the interest of the book nor the justness of his views.

DICKENS'S LETTERS.

The Letters of Charles Dickens. Edited by his Sister-in-law and his Eldest Daughter. Vol. iii., 1836 to 1870. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1881.

THE third volume of 'Dickens's Correspondence' does not contain many letters of any great interest, though its contents cover a period of some thirty-five years. Many of those printed in it have appeared already in other collections. Others are mere notes, of no permanent value, and several relate to matters connected with his editorial duties, which are unintelligible without having before us the communications of the correspondents to which they are replies. Here and there in the older letters we come upon entertaining passages, full of the author's early humor, which toward the end of his life, as he became more and more absorbed in affairs, and as the work of composition became more and more a matter of routine, seems to have gradually evaporated—or rather, to speak more accurately, to have become hardened into a kind of humoristic formalism, which recalls the living humor of his earlier books and letters much as a fossil preserves the record of animal life. Others contain characteristic passages full of that friendly, familiar fun which, hardly perhaps rising to a literary level, made Dickens always in private life so delightful to his friends and companions. His overflowing animal spirits probably rendered the egotism which pervades them all seem less apparent to the people to whom they were addressed than it seems when printed in cold type.

In a letter dated November 20, 1844, we find the following amusing passage with reference to a travelling purse given him by Count D'Orsay:

"Pray say to Count D'Orsay everything that is cordial and loving from me. The travelling purse he gave me has been of immense service. It has been constantly opened. All Italy seems to yearn to put its hand in it. I think of hanging it, when I come back to England, on a nail as a trophy, and of gashing the brim like the blade of an old sword, and saying to my son and heir, as they do upon the stage: 'You see this notch, boy? Five hundred francs were laid low on that day, for post-horses. Where this gap is, a waiter charged your father treble the correct amount—and got it. This end, worn into teeth like the rasped edge of an old file, is sacred to the custom-houses, boy, the passports, and the shabby soldiers at town-gates, who put an open hand and a dirty coat-cuff into the coach windows of all 'Forestieri!' Take it, boy. Thy father has nothing else to give!"

A letter to his wife from Naples gives an entertaining anecdote of a Neapolitan bathing attendant:

"As soon as we got our luggage from the custom-house, we packed complete changes in a bag, set off in a carriage for some warm baths, and had a most refreshing cleansing after our long journey. There was an odd Neapolitan attendant—a steady old man—who, bringing the linen into my bath, proposed to 'soap me.' Upon which I called out to the other two that I intended to have everything done to me that could be done, and gave him directions accordingly. I was frothed all over with Naples soap, rubbed all down, scrubbed with a brush, had my nails cut, and all manner of extraordinary operations performed. He was as much disappointed (apparently) as surprised not to find me dirty, and kept on ejaculating under his breath, 'Oh, Heaven! how clean this Englishman is!'"

The dearth of matter in the volume can best be judged by the fact that the above passages are very nearly the only quotable things in it.

On Dickens's characteristics as a man and a writer these letters throw very little new light. His egotism, his sentimentalism, his superstition, his passion for the theatre and everything connected with it—all these are prominent throughout, as they were already sufficiently so in the previous volumes. Of his sentimental method of dealing with social problems a good illustration may be found in the letter to Macvey Napier, written in 1845, sketching an outline of a proposed article advocating the abolition of capital punishment. The argument is as follows: Society has arrived at the conclusion that the worst criminals should not be tortured, but if put to death at all, should be killed in the speediest way. To this conclusion the criminal in a case of cruel and deliberate murder has no reason or right to object, but it is still open to question whether it is for the interest of society that the punishment of death should be continued. Now, at the time this letter was written, punishment of death was inflicted by public hanging, and Dickens immediately proceeds to confound the publicity of the execution with the punishment itself. He observes, he says, that all the details of the punishment (meaning here public hanging) are "very repulsive and odious," and he adds, what was undoubtedly perfectly true at the time, that punishment inflicted in that way possessed a horrible fascination for many persons who rendered themselves liable to it, feeding their diseased fondness for notoriety. Everything, he says, too, connected with punishment has a strange attraction not only for the criminal class, but for tens of thousands of decent, virtuous, well-conducted people who find themselves "unable to resist the published portraits, letters, anecdotes, smilings, snuff-takings of the bloodiest and most unnatural scoundrel with the gallows before him." He then goes on to note that this strange interest does not prevail in anything like the same degree where death is not the penalty. By this process of reasoning he reaches the conclusion that it is the infliction of death which produces all these bad consequences to society, and that the dread and mystery surrounding death "in any shape, but especially in this avenging form," are to be regarded as the cause of them. In other words, the death penalty produces crime in the criminally-disposed, and creates morbid sympathy among the well-conducted and moral.

"Furthermore, we know that all exhibitions of agony and death have a tendency to brutalize and harden the feelings of men, and have always been the most rife among the fiercest people. Again, it is a great question whether ignorant and dissolute persons (ever the great body of spectators, as few others will attend), seeing that murder done, and not having seen the other, will not, almost of necessity, sympathize with the man who dies before them, especially as he is shown, a martyr to their fancy, tied and bound, alone among scores, with every kind of odds against him."

This chain of reasoning leads Dickens to the conclusion that it would be for the benefit of society to substitute for the death penalty "a mean and shameful punishment, degrading the deed and the committer of the deed, and leaving the general compassion to expend itself upon the only theme at present quite forgotten in the history, that is to say, the murdered person." The abolition of public executions, however, has swept away most of the abuses to which the old system gave rise, and the curious part of the argument is that Dickens fails throughout to notice or meet a single one of the reasons by which the advocates of the death penalty support their side of the case, his mind being entirely directed not to the penalty or the deterrent effects of the punishment in repressing crime, but to the psychological effect of the punishment upon the person or collection of persons who inflict it. This effect has, of course, in any scheme of criminal law, to be considered, but if it alone were attended to, criminal legislation would certainly take a very curious and eccentric course.

The reputation of Dickens is now suffering from the same cause that has had an injurious effect upon that of so many of his contemporaries—the revelation by his relatives of all the weaknesses of a character which but for such publications as these would have remained to the world at large a mystery. With the expediency of such publications, however, the public has little or nothing to do. If the friends of a great man think it worth while to take the rest of the

world into his confidence, the invitation will always be gladly accepted, while the result will generally be disappointing. We ought, of course, by this time to know enough about literary men to know that our pleasantest acquaintance with them is through their writing and not their lives. The moral qualities which are generally associated with the literary faculty and temperament are not those which of themselves tend to produce happiness in the possessor, or satisfaction and contentment among those with whom he sustains the ordinary relations of life. Unhappiness is in too many cases the price paid for imagination. In a letter to Mrs. Maria Winter, an old friend, written in 1855, Dickens himself makes a rather pathetic confession of the inherent incompatibility which he himself felt between the ordinary duties of life and his devotion to his genius:

"A necessity is upon me now, as at most times, of wandering about in my old wild way, to think. I could no more resist this on Sunday or yesterday than a man can dispense with food, or a horse can help himself from being driven. I hold my inventive capacity on the stern condition that it must master my whole life, often have complete possession of me, make its own demands upon me, and sometimes, for months together, put everything else away from me. . . . These are the penalties paid for writing books. Whoever is devoted to an art must be content to deliver himself wholly up to it, and to find his recompense in it. I am grieved if you suspect me of not wanting to see you, but I can't help it; I must go my way whether or no."

Mrs. Winter was probably never fully satisfied with this explanation of the matter, and Mrs. Winter may here stand for society at large. The really fine thing about Dickens's character—a thing which makes it so very different from and superior to that of the ordinary literary apologist for the "defects of his qualities"—is that his life appears to have been a long and in the main successful struggle to overcome them. It is the fashion of literary men of small mental calibre to mistake the vices of the literary temperament for the causes of it, and even to pander to them in consequence, but Dickens had no illusions on this subject. His life was a long struggle to make a brilliant imagination and humor the servant instead of the master of his character. He did to a great extent make them so, and if in the process his genius lost some of its original power and his humor degenerated into a manner, those who have wept and laughed over his books must feel their regret diminish in their admiration of the remarkable moral qualities which the struggle itself displays. In the end, of course, his memory will be preserved by the products of his imagination, while the temporary curiosity and disappointment caused by the publication of this correspondence will fade away with other gossip of the day.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—II.

To present in new shapes the old and familiar tales of infancy and youth is the perpetual endeavor of publishers, and this season we have a conspicuous instance of it in 'The Children's Book' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Mr. Scudder may be said, in his selections, to have sought to "sweep the decks," for he begins with Æsop, and carries his juvenile readers through fairy tales, folk-lore, Hans Christian Andersen, the Arabian Nights, the moral tales of Goldsmith, Aikin, Edgeworth, and Opie; through Gulliver, Munchausen, and classical mythology; to say nothing of the poetry—hymns, ballads, romances, etc. This thick quarto is of course not exhaustive of the sources drawn upon, but it touches nearly every age and variety of taste. The editing of the poetical portion is least to our mind, and was really worth a book by itself. The illustrations are heterogeneous and not new.

Messrs. Swinton and Cathcart's pretty 'Golden Book of Tales' (New York: Ivison, Blakeman & Co.) contains much that is to be found in the book just described, even to Cruikshank's occasional illustrations. But it borrows also from the Hindu, from 'Alice in Wonderland,' and from Miss Mary De Morgan, and its poetry is mostly humorous. The double editorship leaves one in doubt as to the literary standard controlling the selections, but the ethical standard is curiously shown in the Semitic improvement of Mr. Scudder's "Jew in the Bush" into "The Turk and the Fiddle." The story is one that we should have ruled out from such a collection; and it seems a desperate and unfeeling expedient to hang a Turk in place of the Jew, simply in order to retain the rubbish.

One may mark a parallel case of conscience in the sequel of 'Little Red Riding-Hood,' as given in the tasteful little edition brought out by T. Nelson & Sons. Mr. Scudder frankly relates the repulsive truth—"And, saying these words, this wicked wolf fell upon poor Little Red Riding-Hood, and ate her all up"—certainly one of the most unmoral morals ever invented for the nursery. Here is the counterfeit but humane version: "—and would have eaten her up, but just at that minute the door flew open and a great dog tore him down," etc. It were much better once for all to say good-by to this story. A companion volume, issued by the same publishers, is 'Puss in Boots.' Both have the text printed in brown ink, with graceful vignettes and several delicately colored plates.

There is no difficulty in understanding the attempt to abridge 'Robinson Crusoe,' and the task itself is not the hardest in the world. Considerable liberties were taken with the original by the late Mrs. Farrar, wife of Prof. John Farrar, of Harvard College, who regarded it as rather a doubtful work to set before children; whereas, by pruning, it might be made to serve a moral purpose. Her paraphrase, long out of print, is now republished and condensed in turn by Mr. William T. Adams (Boston: Lee & Shepard). In spite of his care to simplify the style of Mrs. Farrar, which was eminently correct, but based on models now in disrepute, it will be found hard reading for children under ten or twelve. The book, however, is very comely.

Mr. Sidney Lanier's delightful series of boys' books comes to an end with 'The Boy's Mabinogion' (Scribner), a companion volume to his 'Froissart' and 'King Arthur.' These weird Welsh tales open to the young reader a new and strange mine of legend; "though not so rich as the 'Arabian Nights,' they are more vigorous, and their fascination is of a more manful character." Their distinctive peculiarity is, as is shown in the introduction, an extravagance and grotesqueness, and "a greater sense of foreignness, of a wholly different cultus, than even Chinese or other antipodal tales." The illustrations are well designed and engraved, and the fine poetic feeling and thoughtful scholarship of the introduction deepen our regret at the recent death of the editor.

There is but one Kate Greenaway, and her latest production, 'Mother Goose' (Geo. Routledge & Sons), is her best. Hundreds of designers before her have shown us Jack and Gill, Georgie Porgie, Little Bo-peep, the old woman who lived under a hill, but here they are in fresh aspects, charmingly conceived; and of all the rest of the series none can be called a commonplace design. Then such pretty landscapes, as in "As I was going up Pippin Hill," or "Hark, hark, the dogs bark," or "A diller, a dollar"; and such nice interiors as in "Cross-Patch, lift the latch," or "Polly, put the kettle on," and so much refinement withal, with color-sense and sense of form. We repeat, there is but one Kate Greenaway.

Of imitators, however, there is a host. There is some cleverness in both the rhymes and the crudely-colored prints of 'Cat's Cradle' (Worthington), but the tone of the former is at times singularly vulgar. And if we tear out the page whose first stanza is—

> "While I am but a little chap,
> And scarcely out of Mother's lap,
> Comes every now and then a slap,
> With 'mustn't,'"

we must also get rid of the unfeeling and senseless verses (pictorialized!) on Grandaddy Gruff—

> "They laid his old bones
> Out there on the stones,
> And drenched him with water, in spite of his groans."

The book is irredeemable. Better in every respect is Ida Waugh's 'Holly Berries' (E. P. Dutton & Co.), in which, however, there is rather too much baby talk in the poetry, and only a few pictures, like "Come and Kiss Me," "Fishing," and "A Bite," can be praised for the draughtsmanship as well as for the sentiment. The coloring is not remarkable. Miss Plympton's 'The Glad Year Round' (Osgood) is feeble in design, and unrelieved by any brightness in the text. Virginia Gerson, now and again, in her 'Little Dignity' (Routledge), narrowly escapes making a good drawing, but there is much the same unregulated execution in the generality of her pictures that greets us in the opening lines—

> "This is a jolly little Japanese ginger-jar,
> And six peacock feathers; see how pretty they are!"

The title of the book has no significance whatever. 'The May Blossom; or, The Princess and Her People' (A. C. Armstrong & Son) is an English production of the loyal kind, and will not be very intelligible to American readers. One of the subdivisions is "Courting People," and of this variety there is a sufficient supply. The designs are by a practised hand, and several of them possess considerable merit; add an endless choice of colored borders.

There is humor and originality in Lizzie Lawson's 'Old Proverbs with New Pictures' (Cassell). Some of the latter, as "'Tis a poor heart that never rejoices," "The more haste the less speed," are gracefully imagined, and there is a jolly little vignette to "You may lead a horse to water." The verses do not greatly reinforce the moral, and are not well adapted for childish minds. There is no hint that 'The Decorative Sisters,' "a modern ballad, by Josephine Pollard, with illustrations by Walter Satterlee" (A. D. F. Randolph & Co.), would be out of place among the books already considered, but we are incredulous that a caricature of the "æsthetic craze" will be anything but lost upon children. Both partners in this enterprise, for whatever age it is intended, fall short in extravagance: they have not succeeded in provoking merriment. This cannot be said of Mr. Hopkins's burlesque illustrations in color of Mrs. E. T. Corbett's well-known nonsense verses, 'Three Wise Old Couples' (Cassell). The fun is not refined, but it is there.

Mr. Champlin's 'Young Folks' History of the War for the Union' (Holt) is a book that can be heartily recommended, as designed to meet a real want, and meeting it well. Indeed, the book gives a good deal more than it promises, for it is equally well adapted to general readers who are not "young folks." It is, in short, a well-written and entertaining history of the War of the Rebellion, very fair and impartial in tone, and aiming rather at incident and graphic narrative than at political and strategic analysis, although these are not neglected; affording, therefore, probably as good an account of these events as most will desire. It is copiously

illustrated, as well with maps and plans as with portraits, views, and pictures of special objects of interest (as the Armstrong gun and the barrel torpedo). Few or none of the illustrations are "made-up" pictures. There is an index.

'Toby Tyler' (Harpers) is a far better book than one would suppose from its gaudy and unpleasant cover. It is a natural narrative of the misadventures which befell a country lad who ran away with a circus, and is likely to act as a deterrent on other lads who are wont to think that the canvas walls enclose an earthly paradise. The "living curiosities," from Mr. Stubbs, the monkey, to Mrs. Treat, the fat woman, are described simply, naturally, and with much quiet humor. We have reason to believe that the view presented of travelling circus-life is, in the main, a correct one.

SCHWATKA'S SEARCH.

Schwatka's Search, etc. By W. H. Gilder. 8vo, 316 pp., maps and illustrations. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. 1881.

SOME years since, a story brought home by the captain of a small whaling vessel from Repulse Bay, in the Arctic, gave hopes that records of Sir John Franklin's expedition still existed in a cairn where they had been deposited. This cairn, it was said, could be pointed out by an Eskimo from whom the story was derived. Upon this clew, interest was excited, contributions obtained, and an expedition fitted out to recover the records. The party was composed of four white men and "Eskimo Joe," of *Polaris* notoriety. It was commanded by Lieut. Frederick Schwatka, U.S.A.; and Mr. W. H. Gilder, correspondent of the New York *Herald*, was second in command.

The public is already familiar through the daily press with the chief features of the search, and its complete failure so far as its main object was concerned. The present volume is principally made up from the letters of the author to the New York *Herald*, which, with some additions and illustrations, have been prepared for the press by some one not named, the author having joined the *Rodgers* on her mission to the vicinity of Wrangell Land in search of the *Jeannette*. In justice to Mr. Gilder, it may be said that much of that which calls for criticism in the book might have been less obvious if it had issued from the press under his own supervision.

The book is well printed, has a neat binding and a sufficient number of illustrations, some of which are spirited and suggestive, though coarsely engraved. The two maps given are well engraved and satisfactory, but the reader will doubtless share our surprise at finding that the map which illustrates the scene of the search for the records (and on which chapter xvii. forms a running commentary) does not appear in the book. At least, in none of several copies expressly examined for the purpose has it been found. Nor do the maps which exist fill the requirements of the text. We read: "The route down Back's River, as we found its course, is put down, while dotted lines show how it is mapped on the Admiralty charts" (p. 287). No dotted lines are shown as stated on either map. The proof-reading is not satisfactory, though most of the errors are patent and sometimes ridiculous, as on page 2, where we are informed that the "stern" of the vessel was covered with two feet of oak and three-quarters of an inch of iron.

The expedition added little or nothing to our knowledge of the fate of the Franklin party, but that little would be better appreciated were the claims of the preface less exorbitant. It was probable before the *Eothen* sailed that the Franklin records were lost; in fact, everybody had tacitly taken it for granted. Schwatka's search added to that probability, without adding essentially to the facts ascertained before—namely, that all the known cairns, graves, etc., had been rifled by natives or bears, and no records were to be found in them. The geographical results of the expedition were small, but as much as could be reasonably expected under the circumstances. The chief feature of it was the sledge journey of some 3,250 miles, during which the courage, energy, endurance, and perseverance of the party were put to the severest tests, and not found wanting. It is therefore not without reluctance that we criticise adversely the record of brave men's exploits; but it seems to us that the lessons taught by it are worthy of emphasis, and one of them is, that Arctic work at all commensurate with the expenditure of money, time, energy, and heroism which it requires, cannot be done by those who do not bring to it some knowledge of the problems involved. Furthermore, when to a slipshod, gushing, and exaggerated literary style the specialist finds joined statements which he knows involve fundamental error, he is apt to conclude that other statements of a surprising nature, which he has not the means of testing, are also not above suspicion. The grounds for this assumption, doubtless unjust in the present case, might have been avoided by the exercise of a very little technical knowledge.

When we read (p. 120) of the "simple sweet song, somewhat similar to the lark's," "gushing forth" from that "sweet little songster," a "snipe," which was shot for the Smithsonian, it is not without emotion, but of a kind not foreseen by the gunner who describes it. On page 48 we learn that, with Eskimo dogs, "often twenty days will intervene between meals." Taken literally, this is of course preposterous, as it is well known that four or five days *of work* without food is sufficient to break down the toughest dog; and if the dog gets food by theft or hunting on his own account, there would be nothing remarkable in his living ten years without a "meal." It is stated (p. 216) that "the thermometer would frequently register minus 50° and minus 60° (F.) when we were moving with a strong wind blowing directly in our faces. Such travelling as this is simply terrible, and it is astonishing that we were able to do it without encountering (*sic*) any severe frost-bites. Indeed, we travelled one day with the thermometer minus 69°, and, a gale blowing at this time, both white men and Inuits (*sic*) were more or less frost-bitten, but merely the little nippings of nose, cheeks, and wrists that one soon gets accustomed to in this country." After this we are not surprised to learn from the preface that "these statements have been doubted. The accuracy of the thermometers being questioned, they were tested and found to be curiously exact." Did the editor wish to have these statements properly supported, there was an easy way. The character, number, and make of the instruments might have been stated, the meteorological records of the expedition printed in full in the appendix, and the nature of the subsequent tests for accuracy described and authenticated by the name of the tester. Then we should not only have had satisfactory proof (if it exists) of the truth of the narrative, but we should also have had a valuable contribution to meteorology. Without this the Arctic traveller and the meteorologist alike will hold themselves justified in continuing to doubt, not the good faith of the narrator, but the accuracy of the thermometers.

Hall voluntarily set the example long before, which was followed by this expedition during the sledge journey, of living off the country with and like the natives. Hence it is inaccurate to say that this was the first expedition to do so. Scattered through the text are interesting and valuable references to native manners and customs. Here again it is painfully evident how a very little preparation would have made it practicable to increase this sort of material many fold. The author evidently had never heard of such a thing as a standard alphabet for recording the Innuit words. Even to the vocabulary which he gives, and which might have been valuable, there is no key, nor was there, apparently, any idea that one was necessary. In short, it is quite evident from this volume that the newspaper reporter, whatever his courage and virtues, will never prove a satisfactory substitute for the trained explorer. A serious charge is made (p. 230), and not modified, to the effect that the master of the vessel which took the party to the Arctic, and who originally brought down the story which prompted the expedition, actually carried away the provisions belonging to them after they had left the vessel. Upon these they depended for the succeeding year while awaiting a return-vessel, and for the want of them they nearly perished of famine.

The Wild Garden. By William Robinson, F.L.S. Illustrated by Alfred Parsons. New York: Scribner & Welford. 1881.

THIS is a second and greatly improved edition of a work which Mr. Robinson published under a similar name several years ago. Its aims are fairly set forth by the explanatory title of the new edition, which reads as follows: "Our Groves and Gardens made Beautiful by the Naturalization of Hardy Exotic Plants; being one way onwards from the Dark Ages of Flower Gardening; with suggestions for the Regeneration of the Bare Borders of the London Parks." By the "dark ages" Mr. Robinson means the deplorable condition into which modern flower-gardening has sunk from the undue development of the so-called bedding-out system. Mr. Robinson has attacked this absurd fashion with great energy and considerable skill, and to him more than to any other horticultural writer is due the partial regeneration of modern flower-gardening.

Something like a generation ago it became the fashion in Europe to fill flower-beds with masses of a few varieties of tender greenhouse plants. The effect was pleasing enough, and the custom, restricted within proper limits, was not without a certain merit. Brilliant, or rather garish, effects in colors could in this way be produced during a few warm months without exacting any particular display of the gardener's art; but the very ease with which such sensational effects could be produced led to an excessive use of this form of garden embellishment. The expense of such gardening is enormous in proportion to the results obtained, for new plants must be provided every year, only to be thrown away again as soon as the first frost has destroyed their short-lived beauty. Fifteen years ago a garden was famous in proportion to the number of thousands of colored-leaved or other tender plants which its owner could afford to plant out every spring, and all the resources of the master and his gardeners were taxed to spread out unmeaning and generally disagreeable lines and blotches of color. During nine months of the year the fashionable garden was empty and entirely without interest; during the other three it blazed with meretricious color. In such a garden there could be no sense of repose, no quiet and peaceful retreat, no sweet-scented flowers—for all such were treated as weeds and quickly exterminated. Color was wanted, and

in great masses; and any plant which could not be used to produce the desired effect was speedily condemned.

A fashion so absurd and so extravagant could not be long-lived; and the flower-gardening of the day in Europe, if not in America, where this bedding-out mania did not so easily at first take root, is already improving. Mr. Robinson has done good service to gardening by pointing out how a garden might really be made attractive, in a series of books of which the new edition of the 'Wild Garden' is the latest, and in many respects one of the most successful. Here he shows how many of the out-of-the-way nooks and waste places which abound in every large garden may be made beautiful and interesting by introducing into them colonies of bulbs and other hardy plants which thrive and increase in such spots, and, improving from year to year, give a charm to the garden which formal beds and geometrical designs can never produce. Wild gardening, too, if we may use such a term, has the merit of cheapness; and imitating nature does not tire as do, too often, some of the more formal efforts of the gardener's skill.

Mr. Robinson tells us what a wild garden is, and how it should be made and planted. In the list of subjects, however, which he recommends for such gardening are included many plants better suited to the English than to the American climate; and a revision of this part of the book, by some horticulturist familiar with the peculiarities of the American climate, would greatly add to its value as a working guide for the American gardener. Too much praise can hardly be bestowed upon the woodcuts made from Mr. Parsons's designs. They are superior in composition and execution to anything of the sort we have seen, and offer a refreshing contrast to the ordinarily dreary illustrations of contemporary horticultural literature.

History of the Discovery of the Northwest by John Nicolet in 1634, with a Sketch of his Life. By C. W. Butterfield, author of 'Crawford's Campaign against Sandusky,' etc. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1881. 8vo, pp. 118.

Mr. Butterfield, already known as an industrious student in the field of early American history, has produced a meritorious monograph upon the first discoverer of the Northwest. John Nicolet had been so entirely forgotten that he is not even mentioned by Hildreth, and his expedition was first brought to light by Mr. Shea in 1852, who placed it in the year 1639—the Jesuit relation having given no dates for it. Mr. Sulte, of Ottawa, found strong, and almost conclusive, reasons for referring it to 1634; and this date appears now to have been made certain by Mr. Butterfield's discovery of the mention, in 1635, of a treaty between the Winnebagoes and the Nez Percés, which could only have been negotiated by Nicolet. In this journey Nicolet went up the Fox River and crossed to the Wisconsin, being thus the first white man who visited the valley of the Upper Mississippi, although he did not reach the river itself. The book is a complete and exhaustive account of the life and explorations of Nicolet, amply fortified by citations from the original authorities, and provided with a good index.

Martin Luther and his Work. By John H. Treadwell. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1881. 12mo, pp. 243.

This last volume of the "New Plutarch Series" appears not to belong to the original scheme, but to be of American production, as it is copyrighted in this country. It is a book of very unequal merit—good in narration, so as to serve very well, as a "New Plutarch" should do, in the work of forming character by presenting to young readers the example of a strong and noble life; but faulty in style where the author departs from simple narrative and undertakes to comment and generalize. He makes no profession of independent research, nor even of broad scholarship, and his list of authorities contains none of the recent German publications upon the Reformation period, while even so recent and important an American work as Prof. Fisher's 'History of the Reformation' is omitted from the list. The relation of Luther's work to the great social convulsions of his time, as also to the political movements of the day, is very inadequately conceived, as is illustrated by the fact that the chapter (p. 162) headed "The Peasant War" says nothing at all about this war (which is, however, described in another part of the book, p. 142), but has instead a short and imperfect account of the Anabaptists at Münster—a totally different thing. The appendix contains some valuable illustrative documents—as, a summary of the ninety-five theses, and extracts from Luther's writings. A good engraving of Cranach's portrait of Luther adds to the value of the work, and there is a good index. On the whole, the book will be found wholesome and instructive reading, and that is all that the author undertook to make it.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Albertsen, F. The Four-footed Lovers. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.

Alger, H., Jr. From Canal-Boy to President. New York: John R. Anderson & Co.

American Newspaper Annual. Philadelphia: N. W. Ayer & Son.

Ames, J. B. Selection of Cases on the Law of Bills and Notes, etc. 2 vols. Boston: Soule & Bugbee.

Art, L'. Vol. xxvi. Paris: J. Rouam. New York: J. W. Bouton.

Barbour, G. M. Florida for Tourists, Invalids, and Settlers. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Benson, E. Gaspara Stampa. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.

Besant, W., and Rice, J. As Richard Whittington. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Blackmore, R. D. Christowell: a Dartmoor Tale. New York: Harper & Bros. 20 cents.

Boisgobey, F. du. The Golden Tress: a Tale. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.

Brook, Sarah. French History for English Children. London: Macmillan & Co. $2.50.

Browning, E. B. He Giveth his Beloved Sleep. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.

Bruce, W. The Hudson: a Poem. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Caballero, Fernan. Spanish Fairy Tales. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $2.50.

Castlemon, H. George at the Wheel; or, Life in the Pilot-House. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $1.25.

Catherwood, M. H. Craque-o'-Doom: a Story. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.25.

Christmas Carols and Midsummer Songs. By American Poets, with illustrations by American Artists. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $4.

Conflicts of the Age. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. Paper, 50 cents; cloth, 75 cents.

Day, T. Sanford and Merton. London and New York: George Routledge & Sons. $1.50.

Drake, S. A. The Heart of the White Mountains. New York: Harper & Bros.

Du Chaillu, P. B. The Land of the Midnight Sun. 2 vols. New York: Harper & Bros.

Eclectic Atlas and Hand-book of the United States. Cincinnati: Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.

Emerson, R. H., and Wingrave, Marion M. The May Blossom; or, The Princess and her People. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. $2.50.

Featherman, A. Social History of the Races of Mankind. Fifth Division: Aramæans. London: Trübner & Co.

Fenn, G. M. The Vicar's People. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 60 cents.

Fiekin, J. Elements of Algebra. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.25.

Fields, J. T. Biographical Notes and Personal Sketches. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Flammer, C. A. The Committing Magistrate: a Treatise. New York: Martin B. Brown.

Francatelli's Modern Cook: A Practical Guide to the Culinary Art in all its Branches. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $5.

Geddie, J. The Lake Regions of Central Africa. London: T. Nelson & Sons. $1.50.

Gerson, Virginia. Little Dignity: Pictures and Rhymes of Olden Times. New York: George Routledge & Sons. $1.50.

Graham, W. The Creed of Science, Religious, Moral, and Social. London: C. Kegan Paul & Co.

Greey, E. Young Americans in Japan. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.

Grote, A. G. The New Infidelity. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Habberton, J. Helen's Babies. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1.

Hardy, Lady Duffus. Through Cities and Prairie Lands. New York: R. Worthington. $1.75.

Harper's Young People, 1881. New York: Harper & Bros.

Harrison, J. A. Spain. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.50.

Harris, Amanda B. Little Folks' Every-Day Book. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.

Hartner, E. Severa: a Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.50.

Hassard, J. R. G. A Pickwickian Pilgrimage. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1.

Hauff, W. Little Mook, and Other Fairy Tales. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Hoffman, Prof. Parlor Amusements and Evening-Party Entertainment. New York: George Routledge & Sons. $1.50.

Hoffman, Prof. Modern Magic: a Practical Treatise on the Art of Conjuring. London and New York: George Routledge & Sons. $1.50.

Holland, J. G. Plain Talks on Familiar Subjects. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.25.

Holland, J. G. Kathrina: a Poem. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.25.

Holland, J. G. Lessons in Life: a Series of Familiar Essays. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.25.

Holyoake, G. J. Life of Joseph Rayner Stephens. London: Williams & Norgate.

Hudson, H. N. Shakspeare's Tragedy of Coriolanus. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 65 cents.

Hudson, H. N. Shakespeare's Tragedy of Cymbeline. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 65 cents.

Hudson, H. N. Complete Works of Shakespeare, in Twenty Volumes. Vols. xix. and xx. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.

Hutchinson, Ellen Mackay. Songs and Lyrics. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1.

Ingelow, Jean. Songs of Seven. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.

Irving, Fannie B. Six Girls: a Home Story. Boston: J. G. Adams & Co. $1.50.

In Memoriam. James Abram Garfield. Meetings of Americans in London. London: B. F. Stevens.

James, H., Jr. The Portrait of a Lady. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Jennings, G. H., and Johnstone, W. S. Half-Hours with Greek and Latin Authors. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $2.

John Barlow's Ward: a Tale. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.

Judd, J. W. Volcanoes: What they Are and What they Teach. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $2.

Keating, Dr. J. M. The Mother's Guide in the Management and Feeding of Infants. Philadelphia: Henry C. Lea's Sons & Co.

Kennedy, Prof. A. B. Two Lectures on the Kinematics of Machinery. New York: D. Van Nostrand.

Kinsley, W. W. Views of Vexed Questions. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott. $1.50.

Liddon, Canon. Sermons to the People. New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.25.

Martindale's Commercial and Legal Guide for September, 1881. Chicago: J. B. Martindale.

McCook, Dr. H. C. The Honey Ants of the Garden of the Gods, and the Occident Ants of the American Plains. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $2.50.

Morgan, A. The Shakespearean Myth. Cincinnati: Robt. Clarke & Co. $2.

Morley, J. Life of Richard Cobden. Boston: Roberts Bros. $3.

Mother Goose. Illustrated by Kate Greenaway. New York: George Routledge & Sons.

Muntz, E. Raphael: his Life, Works, and Times. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son.

Oates, F. Matabele Land and the Victoria Falls in South Africa. London: C. Kegan Paul & Co.

Odgers, W. B. A Digest of the Law of Libel and Slander. First Am. ed. By Melville M. Bigelow. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Papers of the Manchester Literary Club. Vol. vii. Manchester: Abel Haywood & Son.

Plumtree, Rev. E. H. The Tragedies of Æschylus. New York: George Routledge & Sons. $1.50.

Plumtree, Rev. E. H. The Tragedies of Sophocles. New York: George Routledge & Sons. $1.50.

Pocket-Book Dictionary, or Spelling Guide. New York: George Routledge & Sons.

Pollard, Josephine. The Decorative Sisters. New York: A. D. F. Randolph. $1.50.

Polson, J. Monaco and its Gaming-Tables. New York: Thomas Cook & Son.

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(SCRIBNER'S MONTHLY)

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 1, 1881.

The Week.

THE prosecuting attorney in the Guiteau trial has endeavored to show that the motive power which impelled Guiteau to assassinate President Garfield consisted in the resentment caused by his failure in the pursuit of office; in other words, that it was a disappointed officeseeker who took revenge on the dispenser of the patronage. Guiteau himself, in the speech delivered by him on Friday, gave his own view of the question. According to his clear and emphatic declaration, it was not the disappointment of the unsuccessful officeseeker that made him shoot President Garfield, but it was "the Deity and the newspapers"—the latter insomuch as he did "what the papers said ought to be done"; and he insists that certain newspapers should be held to equal responsibility for the act with himself. The theory advanced by the prosecution strips Guiteau's crime of all political significance, while the theory advanced by himself is intended to give to it an exclusively political character, and, as he undoubtedly thinks, a corresponding prestige. In order to arrive at the truth we have to combine these two theories. It is most probable that Guiteau would never have thought of committing an assault upon President Garfield had he not been brought to Washington in the pursuit of office, and looked upon President Garfield as the man who had offended him by the refusal of a favor; and it is equally probable that the bitter feeling caused by his disappointment would never have driven him to so atrocious a deed had not the quarrel of factions then going on heated his imagination and made him believe that an attack upon the President's life would be an act of great political consequence and make him a sort of hero.

The conduct of Guiteau's trial is surrounded by many difficulties, and Judge Cox is entitled to a more indulgent criticism than most judges presiding in a criminal court would be. His intimation on Friday, however, that he would have Guiteau gagged if he did not keep quiet, is not calculated to inspire confidence in his management of the case. A prisoner's right to be present in court is not the mere right that his body shall be in the court-room, but that he shall be there in the full enjoyment of all his faculties, and especially of speech, in order that he may confront the witnesses against him, make suggestions, and give information to his counsel. The objection to removing an obstreperous prisoner from the court is that it would deprive him of this right; but to put a gag in his mouth to quiet him, and then tell him that his right to be present during his trial is not infringed, is about as ludicrous a method of getting over the difficulty as could have been suggested. If Guiteau is to be corporeally repressed, would it not be just as well to have an officer of the court give him a beating every time he interrupted the proceedings? This would in no way interfere with his right to be present, or to confront the witnesses; in fact, flagellation is rather favored by the spirit of the common law, and the means of punishment for contempt are wholly within the discretion of the court.

The fact reported by the Director of the Mint that the amount of gold and silver received and operated upon at the main and branch offices during 1881 was $50,000,000 in excess of the amount received in any other year, might remove all apprehension of a dearth of the precious metals. It appears, however, that nearly twice the sum of this excess, or more than $95,000,000, is due to the flow of gold from foreign countries. If from any cause the direction of the current should be changed, a different showing would be made by the mint reports. The silver bullion amounted to nearly thirty-three millions, of which more than twenty-seven millions were turned into dollars, the remainder taking the form of subsidiary coins. Of the silver dollars there have been made altogether $100,672,705. The popular desire for these coins for actual handling has been satisfied with thirty-four millions in round numbers, after the employment of various and ingenious devices to get them into circulation. Fifty-eight millions in round numbers are in the Treasury, representing outstanding certificates of a like amount. Meanwhile the coinage goes on at the rate of some $2,300,000 a month, to complicate still further the unsolved silver problem. The topic is urged upon the attention of Congress by the Director of the Mint.

Referring briefly to the familiar history of the Paris Monetary Conference, to the slight encouragement given to the silver movement by European nations whose coöperation is indispensable, and to the vague hope that something may yet be accomplished, he shows that he scarcely looks for any favorable result. It is a question for our "serious and early consideration," he says, "whether it is not desirable to suspend the further coinage of silver" until an agreement for an "unlimited coinage of silver and gold at a common fixed ratio" shall be made by "the principal commercial nations." There is danger that, instead of silver's becoming a universal legal-tender, six hundred and fifty millions now so accepted in some parts of Europe will be demonetized—an event in which the United States "could not, single-handed, . . . sustain the value of silver from the inevitable fall." The Director insists that this country "has done its part toward retaining silver as a monetary agent," and he evidently believes that the struggle, if continued, will be Quixotic rather than heroic. He suggests another consideration which should have weight even with bi-metallists. If an international agreement upon a double standard should be effected, "neither our ratio of comparative valuation, nor even one based upon the present exchangeable value of gold and silver, will probably be adopted"; so that the larger our investment in silver dollars of the existing weight and value, the more costly and troublesome would be conformity to the new international ratio.

Special Treasury Agent Tingle, in his annual report, once more urges the abolition of twenty-two ports of entry, at which during the past year not one dollar of duties has been collected, and thirty-two districts in which "the year's collections from all sources have not equalled the year's expenses." He adds that "this is true of many a previous year." All these custom-houses, he says innocently, in support of his argument, "are required to be kept up with all the formalities of active establishments, with deputies, inspectors, and clerks to make official returns often of 'no transactions' to the accounting officer." Special Agent Tingle, however, when he makes this recommendation as called for by "sound business considerations," shows himself a good deal both of a "doctrinaire" and a "theorist," and displays less comprehension of our system of government than seems to us desirable even in a subordinate executive officer. He knows, of course, that custom-houses under our system have two objects: one—the principal one—is to furnish "workers" for the party in power; the other is to collect customs duties, if there are any to collect. But he apparently does not know that the collection of the customs is a very secondary and subordinate object. A custom-house in fact hardly loses any of its value because it collects no duties. It still fulfils its chief function by employing a body of faithful men to run primaries and attend nominating conventions. As these duties can of course be best performed in places where no foreign goods are ever landed, the maintenance of districts in which there are no "transactions" seems to us not simply desirable, but imperative. The phrase "sound business considerations," used by Mr. Tingle, is positively sickening. It has long been a favorite shibboleth of "reformers," and nothing more clearly marks the theoretical Mollycoddle, who thinks he can improve on a system which was in operation before he was born, and which will last as long as human nature. What we really need is more custom-houses which make no demands on the time of the inspectors and clerks, and leave them free for their more important duties.

There were no further developments of bank troubles during the week, and the excitement in Boston and here respecting the breakdown of the Pacific National and the embarrassment of the Central National passed away early. The New York banks which were subjected to a drain of currency to Boston, to Southern cities for cotton, and into the Treasury for duties on imports and taxes, made a much better statement on Saturday than was expected. They showed that on the

average of the week they still have $971,000 more than a 25 per cent. reserve, where a year ago they lacked $105,675 of such a reserve. The Treasury was unable to buy any bonds at par and accrued interest, and on Monday Secretary Folger offered to prepay, without rebate, this week, beginning Wednesday, any part of the $9,688,050 3½ per cents called for redemption December 24. It is expected that this will in the next few days bring several million dollars of cash out of the Treasury. The money market here during the week was fully active; and in London the rate for discounts advanced 1½ per cent., although the Bank of England did not change its posted rate (5 per cent.), which is still above the advanced actual rate. The market for bills on London was strong and at times active, mainly on account of transactions growing out of the settlement of maturing loan bills; there is no prospect of gold exports and little of gold imports for the next few weeks. The Stock Exchange markets were agitated by a reported renewal of negotiations for the settlement of the trunk-line railroad war, and while definite information was wanting, the impression existed at the close of the week among the well informed that an effort is making to settle. General trade continues good throughout the country. Exports to foreign countries are, however, falling off from the heavy figures of a year ago. The price of silver continues very steady, being at the close 51⅞d. per ounce in London; here 412½ grains of silver, the amount contained in the "dollar of the fathers," at the close were worth about 87 cents.

Jay Gould's acquisition of the Grand Opera House by purchase is an event of some interest, because it brings out in a strong light the difference between the Gould of to-day and the Gould of twenty years ago. There was no method of acquiring title to property which the old concern of Fisk and Gould held in such contempt as buying it, and many a merry laugh they must have had together in this very Opera House over the absurdity of purchasing things which, as Fisk in his coarse way used to put it, could be "rescued" away from their owners just as well without the payment of any money at all. A title founded on what lawyers call adverse possession has such an obvious advantage over the ordinary title by purchase, that it was hardly to be expected that Gould would, after laying the foundation of his fortune by the one, resort afterward to the other. But this is what he seems to be doing. All his newspapers and many of his railroads have been bought, and the purchase of the Grand Opera House, which he and Fisk a few years ago seized and held as a fortified place of amusement, is a striking indication of his complete abandonment of his early method. His example will, no doubt, have its effect even in Wall Street, though how far it will be carried there it would be useless to try to predict. In other countries the interval separating the period in which property is acquired by "rescue" from that in which purchase comes into play has usually been very great; if such a change of custom were effected in Wall Street in the lifetime of a single man, and mainly through his agency, it would be a new illustration of our extraordinary rate of national progress as well as of the remarkable moral qualities of Jay Gould.

United States Assistant District Attorney Beatty of Utah has written a pathetic letter to the New York *Tribune*, deploring the inability of the law officers of the Government to secure convictions under the statutes against polygamy. The difficulty is, he says, that it is impossible to get evidence. To prove polygamy you have to prove a previous marriage, but this you can never do, because the Mormon marriages are secret. The first wife cannot be called on to testify without the husband's consent, and she would not testify even if he gave his consent. The second wife cannot testify as long as the first marriage is in dispute. Then there is no law, Federal or Territorial, against "adultery or lascivious cohabitation," which Mr. Beatty seems to deplore greatly. But we do not see how such a law would help him out of his trouble. There would be as much difficulty in obtaining evidence for the enforcement of this as for the enforcement of the statute against bigamy. The Mormon husband would not confess in open court. His wives would not testify against him or against each other. We are hardly prepared to make the living of several women under one man's roof presumptive evidence of immoral relations, nor are we prepared to employ detectives to haunt the houses of a large population for proof of "lascivious cohabitation." We were in hopes, considering how much vapid and aimless writing there is on the Mormon question, that Mr. Beatty would let us know in detail, before he closed, the kind of legislative remedy which he, an experienced law officer of the Government, proposes for the evils he describes. But he does nothing of the sort. On the contrary, like nearly everybody who touches on this subject, he launches into rhetoric, and inquires solemnly whether "governments are to be mere shadows instead of substances," and "whether they are to yield to evils instead of governing or destroying them," and whether "fifty millions of Americans are to yield their opinions to a hundred thousand people, of whom half are from the pauperized elements of Europe." It is easy to see that even if he got answers to all these questions he would be no better off than he is now.

The reason the Government finds it so hard to deal with polygamy is that polygamy is part of the marriage question, in which the Federal Government has no real *locus standi* whatever. There is, if we may use the expression, no Federal sexual morality at all. There ought to have been, doubtless, a provision in the Constitution giving it jurisdiction of marriage, but there is not. It is much more important, really, that marriage should be within its control, than bankruptcy, and very much more important that the United States should live under a uniform marriage law than under a uniform bankruptcy law; but at present we cannot have one. The result is that each State is trying experiments on the marriage relation, some of which have really done it far more injury than the Mormons can ever do it, and which Mr. Beatty's colleagues have to witness with the composure of helplessness. The divorce laws of some States have made the married relation dependent on the inclination of the parties. As a framework or foundation for the family it has little or no value except what the parties give it. In so far as it plays the part of a social institution in these States it is owing to the character of the husband and wife, and not to State legislation. The tendency, too, in most of the States, is not toward greater strictness, but greater laxity. The evil is a huge one—a far more serious one than Mormon polygamy, for the old reason that there is no such badness as the badness of the good. Our moralists and philanthropists are deploring it every day, but with comparatively little effect. The result is that there is really no high and stern morality in the marriage question, in political circles at least, to draw on for the extirpation of the Mormon iniquity. The men in Congress who thunder against polygamy, and the law officers who go out to punish it, and demand fresh, vague, and extraordinary powers for the purpose, are not as full as they might be of horror of matrimonial laxity. They see too much of it at home. They know that Federal officers witness much unpunished use of marriage "as a cloak for base instincts," as Mr. Beatty says, in the old Christian States as well as in Utah. This does not excuse polygamy, or make it any more tolerable; but it goes a good way to explain why the attacks on it are not more successful.

The story of the latest plot against the Czar shows that the surprises which the scientific extension of the means of destruction has in store for us are by no means exhausted. A balloon was to be sent up near Gatchina, carrying a quantity of dynamite and explosive fire-balls, which were to be dropped into the palace yard. Result—explosion, fire, and great confusion, in the midst of which the Nihilists were to seize the Czar and his family, dead or alive. On the discovery of the plot the police made numerous arrests, and the imperial household are said to have determined to leave Gatchina at once. This new use for balloons has an interest for the inhabitants of this city, as it is believed by some military men that, in case of war between the United States and any really progressive foreign power, a fleet sent against New York would use dynamite balloons for purposes of perpendicular bombardment. In regular warfare it would be easier to conduct operations of this character successfully than in conspiracies such as that of the Nihilists. The inflation of the balloon will always be apt to attract the attention of the police, and the most cunning Nihilist will probably hereafter find it difficult to get his apparatus in readiness without detection. Even innocent balloonists will probably suffer from the suspicion which the Nihilists have brought upon their calling, and thus the progress of Russian aerial scientific discovery itself be retarded. This seems hard on the professional aeronaut. But such baleful effects

of crime upon persons in no way responsible for it constitute one of the constant mysteries of life.

M. Paul Bert has been trying to justify his appointment in an address to his subordinates on taking the Ministry of Public Worship. This Ministry has only recently been attached to the Ministry of Public Instruction in place of the Fine Arts, which have been erected into a separate department. His excuse is that the position of the Ministry of Public Worship is "neither religious nor anti-religious"; that it is a ministry of police simply, and that he, as a man "brought up in the study of science and law," is as competent to fill it as anybody. The sole reason for having a Ministry of Public Worship is, however, that a very large body of Frenchmen and Frenchwomen are sincerely attached to the Church, and consider religious services the most solemn and important of human duties. To them it must be rather startling to have for the state supervision of these services a gentleman who looks on the whole thing as an English District Commissioner in India looks on the worship of Juggernaut—as so much mumbo-jumbo, at which he secretly laughs. It cannot but be mortifying for the ministers of all denominations to have to transact business with an officer who considers them either gross impostors or harmless dupes, and pays them their stipends as a deplorable concession to a degrading popular superstition. It does not do credit to science, either, that one of its ministers should be willing to occupy a position in which he will constantly have to feign respect for various things which he really despises.

The continuance of disturbances and outrages in Ireland shows, as was to be feared, that one lesson of the Land Act—the lesson that the way for Irishmen to get large concessions from Englishmen is to be turbulent—is about to bear fruit. Indeed, it may be said to be the great lesson of Irish history. What Englishmen have been saying to Ireland for the last century has been substantially this: "Nothing whatever to investigation or discussion, or reports, or reason, or justice in the abstract, but anything you please to murder, arson, and cattle-houghing." It is not surprising that under these circumstances murder, arson, and cattle-houghing should have risen in the eyes of the peasantry to the rank and honors of lawful war. "Surely," they say, and not unnaturally, "instrumentalities which brought us Catholic emancipation, the abolition of tithes, the disestablishment of the foreign Church, and the reform of the land tenure, must be as respectable as pitched battles between opposing armies. They must, too, have some great dialectical power, because they penetrate and convince the English mind. A few more murders, then, brethren, a few more cows' tails cut off, a few more blowings up of houses, and our country will be glorious and free." The task before Englishmen now is apparently either the continuance of repression long enough to satisfy the Irish mind that outrages have accomplished all the good they can ever accomplish, or the committal of the Irish administration to Irish hands. The first of these would require apparently one hundred years for its execution. The second will have to come. Mr. Gladstone, Mr. Forster, and the other benevolent Englishmen will have to give up trying to save the Irish from themselves. The true remedy for Irish woes is the one by which every people which is worth anything has been saved—viz., the process described by Bismarck as "frying in their own grease." When outrages no longer annoy Englishmen or extract threatening articles from the London *Times*, they will cease.

On Thursday the Liberal Opposition in the German Reichstag opened fire upon Prince Bismarck's "social and economical policy." A vigorous speech was delivered by Herr Richter, who is the ablest speaker upon economical questions on the Liberal side of the House, and it is said to have produced so extraordinary an effect that no representative of the Government ventured upon an immediate reply, but preferred an adjournment for the day. Herr Richter's pointed remark that every German willingly recognized the immortal services rendered by the Chancellor, but that the German people had come of age, and demanded a controlling voice in the government of their affairs, no doubt expresses the feelings of a majority of the nation. Some of our contemporaries mention the election of a Conservative to the Presidency of the Reichstag as proof that after all the Chancellor has a Conservative majority at his back. This is a mistake. While it is true that the Liberals are in the minority, the different groups which coöperated in the election of the President of the Reichstag are by no means bound together by common interests and aspirations so as to form a reliable ministerial majority. There are not only strong antagonisms among these groups themselves, but the relations of the strongest of them the Clericals, with the Chancellor have been of a very unfriendly character, and depend now upon the greatness of the concessions the Chancellor may be willing or able to make to them at the expense of his former policy with regard to the Church. Prince Bismarck himself therefore feels by no means sure of his game. His latest utterance, in response to an anti-Semitic address, that he could decide his own personal position only by the course of the Reichstag, has a very uncertain sound, and may be intended as a repetition of his old manœuvre of threatening his withdrawal from the Government if the Parliament refuses to do his bidding. The success of the Liberals at the recent elections, indeed, did not consist in winning a clear majority of the seats in the Reichstag, but in defeating the Government candidates where the greatest efforts had been made for them, in increasing the number of their representatives, and in showing much greater popular strength than had been expected.

The rumor that Turkey proposes to cede a slice of Armenia to Russia in lieu of the war indemnity (about $150,000,000) would, if true, create a new and interesting complication in English politics. The war indemnity now stands in the way of a "readjustment" of the Turkish debt by an agreement with the bond holders. Under this readjustment the Porte expects to be able to get hold of a little more cash, and, though it never expected to pay Russia a cent, it would probably be now glad to do anything to get her out of the way—even to cede territory. The Beaconsfield treaty, however, under which Cyprus was assigned to England, contained a guarantee of the Sultan's Asiatic dominions against Russian aggression, for which Cyprus was the consideration. It contains no pledge, however, binding the Sultan not to cede territory to Russia voluntarily, this probably never having entered the Jingo head as a possibility. If it now comes to pass, the question will arise whether under the treaty the Sultan cannot demand Cyprus back. If he should demand it, the Gladstone Ministry would be puzzled to find a good excuse for refusing it. If they said they held it as a consideration for a guarantee not only that Turkey should not cede territory under duress, but that Russia should get none by any means, the Tories would ask why Mr. Gladstone had denounced the treaty as "insane," and why, if he did not mean to fight in Asia Minor, he kept Cyprus at all.

The seizure of Garcia Calderon and his Minister of Foreign Affairs by the Chilians introduces a new complication into the South American imbroglio, the consequences of which it is difficult to foresee. The arrest was made nominally to prevent Calderon from carrying on functions of government which interfered with the martial law established by Admiral Lynch, but probably, in reality, because Lynch found that Calderon's Government was refractory as to a war indemnity. The Peruvians owe a debt of some $200,000,000 and are entirely bankrupt, but they still have printing-presses and can turn out paper money in any required quantity. They, therefore, had no objection to printing a fair war indemnity, but for that purpose it was necessary for Calderon to retain control of the Treasury—that is, of the printing-presses. On the other hand, the Chilians want the indemnity paid either in hard coin, which Peru cannot get, or in money's worth, and it is no doubt on this account that Admiral Lynch regards the continuance of Calderon's functions an interference with his occupation. The act of winding up his Government in this summary way is a notification to the Peruvians that Chili means to settle the terms of peace herself, and that the feeling of the conquered country as to a cession of territory will not be regarded at all. Our Minister, Mr. Hurlbut, was accredited to Calderon, and it is now said that he will proceed to "recognize" Calderon's Vice-President Montero as his constitutional successor. Montero was a short time ago a guerilla chief under Pierola, but deserted him to take office under Calderon. No such "recognition" will, however, affect the facts of the case, which are that the actual Government of Peru at the present time is that administered by the Chilian commander.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

MR. SCOVILLE began his opening address for the defence in the Guiteau trial on Tuesday last. He spoke in a "plain, easy, matter-of-fact style," and confined himself to the insanity plea. He reviewed the history of the Guiteau family and the prisoner's life. Guiteau's paternal grandfather was a physician who settled in Utica ninety years ago. He had ten children, several of whom became insane. Guiteau's father was the last survivor of the ten. He was eccentric and peculiar, especially in his religious views, and during the last six weeks of his life was deranged most of the time. Guiteau's mother was "sickly," and was ill with a fever at the time he was born. She died when he was seven years old. Mr. Scoville then went on to give a detailed account of the prisoner's life, relating many of his eccentric sayings and doings. Guiteau joined the Oneida Community early in life, and afterward became a lawyer and then a lecturer, and failed as both. A number of witnesses were called, who testified to his "eccentricity" at all points of his career. Mr. Scoville closed his opening address on Wednesday, and the examination of witnesses for the defence began. As Guiteau had been acting in an obstreperous manner throughout Mr. Scoville's address—at times contradicting him flatly, interposing remarks of his own, and generally interrupting the proceedings—on Friday Judge Cox threatened to have the prisoner gagged unless he behaved himself. Among the witnesses examined on Saturday were Senator Logan, and Guiteau's sister, the wife of Mr. Scoville. Senator Logan testified that he had told a lady at whose house Guiteau was boarding that he "thought he was crazy, and that she had better not have him in her boarding-house." Mrs. Scoville corroborated the testimony which had already been given of the prisoner's very eccentric conduct at various times in his life. On one occasion he threatened her with an axe. On Monday among the witnesses examined was the business manager of the Oneida Community, who testified that the prisoner's most striking characteristics while in the Community were his "excessive egotism" and religious "fanaticism." Mr. John W. Guiteau, the prisoner's brother, was also examined. His testimony corroborated that which had already been given in regard to the prisoner's very marked eccentricities, but he damaged the defence by refusing to admit that his father was insane, and by his disinclination to admit that insanity was hereditary in the family. The prisoner himself was next called to the stand to identify a number of his letters. On Tuesday Guiteau was again put on the witness stand, but he refused to testify for some time on the ground that he "felt sick," and was not in a "talkative mood." He was finally persuaded to talk, however, and under Mr. Scoville's interrogations gave a rambling account of his life from his earliest recollections. All through the trial Guiteau has caused considerable disturbance in the court by his actions. It is stated that one of the reasons why the court has not taken more effective measures to suppress him, is that there are a number of medical experts present every day watching him with a view of deciding upon the question of his insanity, and that it has therefore been deemed advisable to allow him a certain latitude.

Mrs. Garfield has placed the literary estate of the late President in the hands of Colonel A. F. Rockwell, who is charged, under her direction, with its disposition. Joseph Rudolph, the administrator, has appointed General Swaim his attorney and financial agent. Mrs. Garfield is overwhelmed with letters begging for money from all parts of the country, and from all conditions and classes of people.

Another Star-route contractor, Alvin O. Buck by name, has been arrested. The charge against him is that he gave worthless bonds. In one case it is stated that he was declared a failing contractor and in default $26,000, and his bond was found to be worthless. He made an offer to compromise for $2,000, and the late Sixth Auditor Tilley assented to the proposition, and is said to have procured the approval of the Postmaster-General. This case of Buck is another example of the reckless way in which the Star-route contracts were awarded.

The Government failed utterly to make out a case against Deputy Sixth Auditor Tilley in the second of the Star-route cases, as seemed probable, owing to the non-appearance on the witness stand of the contractor Brott. Commissioner Bundy discharged Tilley on Tuesday. The Government seems to have been very remiss in not taking more effective measures to secure the appearance of Brott, upon whose testimony the whole case rested.

Mr. A. M. Gibson, special attorney for the United States in the matter of the Star-route service investigations, recently submitted a report to the Acting Attorney-General showing how the frauds became possible, the nature of the operations of the ring, and the responsibility of Assistant Postmaster-General Brady and Sixth Auditor Tilley therefor. In the course of a correspondence which ensued between Mr. Gibson and Acting Attorney-General Phillips upon the submission of this report, Mr. Phillips wrote to Mr. Gibson that there was neither "commission nor oath of office" upon the files of the Department of Justice creating Mr. Gibson Assistant Attorney of the United States (as the latter had signed himself), and that therefore his report could not be received. Mr. Gibson, on the other hand, insists that he was appointed by Attorney-General MacVeagh, and there the matter rests. This illustrates, again, the loose way in which the Star-route prosecutions have been managed. Since the defeat of the Government in the preliminary cases against Brady and Tilley there seems to be great danger of the whole matter falling through.

It is said that President Arthur's message will not be printed, as has been customary of late years, before it is sent to Congress.

The Speakership of the House of Representatives has been attracting considerable attention in political circles in Washington during the week. Messrs. Hiscock, Keifer, and Kasson are the leading candidates for the office at present.

Ex-Speaker Randall of the House of Representatives is reported to have said that a refunding bill, modelled on the one vetoed during the last session, will be introduced in the House at an early day.

It is probable that when Congress meets, the State Department will be called on for copies of the instructions to Ministers Hurlbut and Kilpatrick, and all correspondence relating to the situation in Peru, and it is thought likely that both of these gentlemen will be recalled.

It is rumored that the recent complication arising from the opposite course of the United States Ministers to Peru and Chili is due to a lobby in Washington, which holds large claims against Peru.

Mr. Tingle, Supervising Special Agent of the Treasury Department, has submitted his annual report on the Customs Service. He says that "many of the vexatious requirements prescribed by law and used in customs transactions might be discarded with positive benefit to the public service," and submits a number of suggestions for the relief of importers and shipowners. Among them are the substitution of a simple declaration, signed by the importer and attested by a notary, for the present system of requiring an oath, which, he says, is "as a rule merely formal, and serves no purpose except to cause inconvenience to importers by compelling their personal attendance at the custom-house." Another suggestion which Mr. Tingle makes is that many of the customs districts should be consolidated. "There are twenty-two ports of entry at which not a dollar of duties has been collected for a whole year, and this is true of many previous years."

Commissioner Dudley of the Pension Bureau states that over $100,000,000 have been paid out for arrears of pensions, and that it will require $235,000,000 more to pay the remaining claims which have already accrued under the Arrears of Pensions Bill. Commissioner Dudley thinks that the attention of Congress should be called to the nation's liabilities under the bill, and that provision should be made for their discharge. He also says that he wishes authority to employ a number of lawyers to make a personal examination of pension claimants and their witnesses, and to determine the correctness of the statements set forth in their affidavits. The necessities of the Pension Office seem to be pressing, and Congress will be forced to consider them at an early date.

In his report to Secretary Hunt, Admiral Rogers of the Naval Academy advocates a decrease in the number of cadet midshipmen and cadet engineers. He says that there are now two hundred graduates of the Naval Academy who are waiting promotion to the grade of ensign, which is the lowest commissioned grade, and that some of the young men who graduated last June will have to wait at least eight years longer before obtaining this promotion.

The unanimous report of the Naval Advisory Board relative to the construction of vessels for the navy has been submitted for the consideration of the Secretary of the Navy, and will appear in his annual report, which will be given to the press in a few days.

Professor Hough, Chief of the Division of Forestry in the Agricultural Department, who has been in Europe collecting data on forestry, has returned and will make a report of his investigations, with recommendations to Congress for the planting, preservation, and maintenance of forests on the prairie and desert lands of the United States,

The Virginia State Board of Canvassers announce the majority of Mr. Blair, the Readjuster candidate for Attorney-General, to be 12,273. It is stated that the Readjusters will have a majority of twenty-two in the Legislature on a joint ballot.

The Philadelphia Citizens' Committee of One Hundred has been working hard to get the Reform party into shape so as to carry the municipal elections in February. "Gigantic frauds" are being "unearthed" in the Tax Office, which are said to implicate other officers of the City Government. The whole matter is to be brought before the City Councils on Thursday next, when it is expected that some startling revelations will be made.

The Atlanta Exposition continues to draw immense crowds. On Thursday 19,320 people visited the Exposition. The town has been crowded to excess throughout the week. Great interest is taken in the South in the convention of planters, agriculturists, and mill men who will meet at Atlanta on the 6th of December. Thousands of persons are expected to attend this convention, which will doubtless result in great benefit to all Southern industries.

Judge Beardsley has refused the application of the Malleys for bail, and they will have to remain in jail to await the decision of the Grand Jury, which meets in January.

The billiard matches which have been played in New York during the last week for the cushion-carom championship, and which brought out most of the best billiard players in the United States, resulted in a victory for Joseph Dion, who carried off the diamond championship emblem. Schaefer won the second prize.

FOREIGN.

In the debate on the budget in the German Reichstag, on Thursday, Herr Richter, the

leader of the Progressists, delivered a long speech attacking those who support the economical policy of Prince Bismarck as set forth in the Emperor's message. He is said to have spared "neither the real nor the nominal author" of the message. He said that "while ready to recognize Prince Bismarck's immortal merits, the German people now claim to be of age, and to have a voice in the settlement of their destinies." The Opposition assert that they achieved a "great triumph" on Thursday, and that Richter's speech produced such a powerful effect that none of the Government's representatives were for the moment prepared to reply, thus necessitating the sudden closing of the debate.

The debate on the project of the incorporation of Hamburg in the Zollverein was begun in the Reichstag on Monday. Great interest was lent to the debate by a speech of Prince Bismarck, in which he said that the point involved in the question of the incorporation was the carrying out of constitutional provisions. In this he would not allow himself to be hindered, but would endeavor by every justifiable means, as long as he was compelled to retain office, to consolidate the Empire. He referred to the opposition which his efforts for the consolidation of Germany had received from the Liberals. The debate ended in a resolution to refer the bill to a committee, which should clear up existing doubts as to the constitutional aspects of the question.

At a Parliamentary dinner in Berlin Prince Bismarck maintained that the recent elections should by no means be taken as a condemnation of the policy of the Government, since, reckoning by the number of votes polled, the Conservatives alone among the principal political parties scored a substantial increase as compared with the elections of 1878. This year the Conservatives polled 870,358 votes against 749,494 in 1878.

M. Gambetta has had an interview with General Chanzy, late French Ambassador to St. Petersburg, in the course of which the premier declared that the foreign policy of France would not be changed. Regarding the internal policy, he said that the last elections indicated that the country required the adoption of a more decided line of action against the clergy.

M. Paul Bert, the new French Minister of Public Worship, in receiving the staff of his department on Friday, said that the administration of the Department of Worship had no concern with doctrines, as this office was one of police in the highest acceptance of the term. He added that he had no project of making the clergy a national body, and would abstain from violence or party molestation, and that the people would see that he was not a "revolutionist or a blunderer, but a man brought up in the study of science and law."

In consequence of a debate in the French Chamber of Deputies on Thursday, the Minister of the Interior has requested the prefects to prepare lists of all offences committed by priests in the exercise of their functions.

It is stated that as soon as the appropriation bills are passed the French Government will prorogue the Chambers. During the recess the Government will prepare the various proposals it intends to submit on the reassembling of the Chambers in January. The most important question will relate to the revision of the Constitution.

The result of the French elections for Senatorial delegates indicates that the Republicans will be victorious in twenty-five departments out of thirty-two.

Mr. Morton, United States Minister to France, had a conference with Premier Gambetta on Wednesday last with reference to the importation of American pork into France. The result of the conference has not yet been authoritatively stated.

M. Roustan, French Minister at Tunis, declares that he will soon ask to be transferred to another post.

There has been little news of importance from Tunis during the week. A portion of General Forgemol's division reached Gafsa after fighting the whole way. The Porte has applied to the Bey for a large sum of money to compensate the Moslem refugees for their losses from the bombardment of Sfax by the French, and the Bey is reported to have forwarded a communication to the French Minister on the subject. There is a report that Lord Lyons, the British Ambassador to France, informed the late French Cabinet, on behalf of both England and Spain, that they could not view the entry of French troops into Morocco as benevolently as they had their entry into Tunis.

Señor Martinez, the Spanish Minister of Justice, has said that the Government was negotiating with the Vatican for the arrangement of the civil-marriage question, and hoped for a favorable result, but that in a contrary event the Government would maintain the principles of the bill on this subject and uphold the prerogative of the state. It is stated that the prelates who belong to the Senate intend to submit a protest against the bill, and will afterward quit the Senate in a body. On Friday, a Senator from Cuba asked the Government whether it was disposed to open negotiations with England for the restitution of Gibraltar, and the Minister of Foreign Affairs replied with true diplomatic indefiniteness that "the Government would act in accordance with the best interests of the country and the maintenance of good relations with friendly powers." The question of buying Gibraltar from England is being considerably discussed in Spain.

Lawlessness is increasing in Ireland. It looks as if the policy of the "no-rent" manifesto were being adhered to to a much greater extent than had been anticipated. Incendiarism, petty outrages, and threatening proclamations are reported to be everywhere rife. Lord Cowper, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, in a speech at Belfast on Wednesday, said that he held no hope that the Government would be able at present to relax coercive measures. The Land Commissioners have issued a notice calling attention to the power which they possess to hear applications from laborers to compel farmers to provide better dwellings for them. Three new sub-commissioners have been appointed under the Land Act. Lord Hartington and Sir William Harcourt both declared, in speeches delivered during the week, that the Government was determined to act with patience as well as "unswerving firmness." Various stricter coercive measures have been suggested during the week, among them suspension of trial by jury, but the Government seems by no means prepared for such a step at present, and the principal Irish judges strongly deprecate it.

The extraordinary movement in Confederate bonds which has excited so much interest of late is said to have been partly due to the fact that the committee of Confederate bondholders in London made a statement that they intend to appeal, "steadily and perseveringly," to the public and Congress of the United States to bring about an opinion that the time has come when the restriction imposed by the Fourteenth Amendment of the Constitution should be removed so far as it prohibits the Southern States from effecting a just and equitable settlement of their debts. The committee repudiate the idea of embarking in litigation to recover Confederate property in Europe.

It is stated that at the meeting of the Grand Lodge of English Freemasons on the 7th of December, the Prince of Wales will move a vote of condolence with the family of the "late brother, James A. Garfield."

Another heavy gale prevailed throughout England and Ireland on Saturday and Sunday, doing heavy damage to property.

It is stated that Count Kálnoky, the newly-appointed Austrian Minister of Foreign Affairs, will, before his departure from St. Petersburg, arrange a meeting between the Emperor Francis Joseph and the Czar.

In his opening address to the Rumanian Parliament on Sunday, King Charles dwelt chiefly on the Danube question. He said that the destinies of Rumania have always been, and will remain, closely bound up with the free navigation of the Danube.

The Rumanian Government has renewed for a year the prohibition of the importation of pork from the United States and several European countries.

An extraordinary plot to kill the Czar is reported to have been discovered in Russia. The plan was to send up a balloon loaded with dynamite and explosive fire-balls, together with appliances to cause the balloon to fall within the palace yard at Gatchina, where the royal family are; the balloon was then to explode and set the palace on fire. In the confusion it was intended to "seize the Czar and his family."

The Greek Post-office in Constantinople has been forcibly closed in pursuance of an order of the Turkish Government. The Greeks submitted without resistance, declaring that they yielded to force.

Señor Calderon, formerly Provisional President of Peru, and his Minister of Foreign Affairs, have been arrested by the Chilians and taken to Santiago. Mr. Martinez, the Chilian Minister to this country, says that this step was taken because Calderon persisted in "exercising acts of jurisdiction which interfered with the occupying forces, in spite of the decree of the Commander of Forces." Pierola's forces are reported to be deserting him, and his complete downfall and banishment from the country are expected daily; meanwhile the settlement of the difficulties between Peru and Chili seems to be as far off as ever. It is reported that the Chilian Ambassadors, now in Lima, are considering the project of declaring the occupation of Peru by the Chilians for five years, at the expiration of which period elections are to be held for President and Congressmen.

General Prendergast y Gordon, the newly appointed Captain-General of Cuba, was sworn into office on Monday. He has issued a proclamation in which he says he will follow a broad and generous policy, which offers guarantees of respect and consideration to all opinions.

Advices from Rio Janeiro announce that the Brazilian elections have passed off quietly. The indications are that the final result will be 72 Liberals against 50 Conservatives. The present Ministers of Foreign Affairs and the Interior are among the defeated candidates. Both have resigned their portfolios.

Despatches from Japan state that the dispute between the Japanese and the foreigners in regard to the silk trade is still unsettled. The Japanese dealers have passed a resolution favoring the direct export of the silk now in Yokohama, and binding themselves not to dissolve their combination so long as the foreigners decline to conform to the rules of the guild. This "deadlock" in the silk trade is producing serious consequences in the silk-producing districts on account of the dearth of money.

Affairs in Corea are reported to have reached a crisis. There has been much agitation on the question of opening the country to foreign trade, and the King is now reported to be in favor of the movement.

The Liberal Conservative Convention of Canada met in Toronto on Wednesday last. Resolutions were adopted endorsing the national policy and the syndicate bargain, complimenting the ministry, and expressing gratification at Sir John McDonald's restoration to health. Sir Leonard Tilley and Sir John McDonald addressed the Convention in defence of the Government.

TUESDAY, November 29, 1881.

WHAT AILS THE HIGH-TARIFF MEN?

THE holding of a Protectionist Convention in New York just now seems at first sight a little incomprehensible. The accounts which we have had from protectionist sources, during the last seven years at least, of the working of the present tariff have apparently left nothing to be desired in the mode of raising revenue. It has hardly been possible during that period to open a protectionist paper without lighting on a column of glorification of the existing legislative arrangements for the promotion of American industry. The account given of them by the Tariff Convention which met in Chicago the other day really went to prove that any change in the system would be a positive misfortune. It has reduced and is rapidly paying off the national debt; it has restored and is maintaining specie payments; it supports the American workingman in unprecedented comfort; it cheapens all the commodities of life; it keeps up a favorable balance of trade, and, though last not least, puzzles and maddens the British freetrader and causes him to lose faith in his nostrums. If this be all true, the question naturally suggests itself, Why do the supporters of the system hold a Convention? What is there to discuss? Can anything which has worked so much good be improved upon? It would appear from the programme of the proceedings, however, that high-tariff happiness is only a surface happiness after all; that it is only to the freetraders that the protectionists wear a smiling front. Among themselves there is apparently still much gloom and discontent and apprehension, and the object of the Convention apparently is an interchange of opinions with a view to the alleviation of various miseries which even tariffs cannot cure.

It appears in the first place that the delegates will all demand more protection. The very first topic for discussion is the diminution of protection and the "injury done to home industry" by certain decisions of the Secretary of the Treasury. These decisions have in some cases lowered the duties actually levied. The opinion of the Convention doubtless will be that whenever the Secretary has decided on a rate of duty he should decide in favor of the higher rate. Then the Convention is to demand a "civilian commission," whatever that may mean, not simply "to thoroughly investigate and report on the progress, condition, and needs of American industries," and recommend whatever (be it lower or higher duties) their condition seems to permit or call for, but "to recommend such tariff legislation as will be protective in character, consistent in all parts, and adapted to the present condition of the business of the country." It will thus be seen that the Tariff Commission of which there is so much talk, must, if our protectionist friends have their way, be not by any means a judicial body, but a body whose conclusions are to be framed for it beforehand by interested parties. It might find, for instance, that the tariff in several cases worked direct injury to American industry, and that in other cases any duty was unnecessary or mischievous, but it would be nevertheless its duty to recommend more protection. In fact, it is difficult to see what the protectionists want a commission for, if it is only to be allowed to recommend what they already enjoy. We are therefore forced to suspect that they think a commission is inevitable, and are preparing to take the harm out of it by imposing conclusions on it before it makes any inquiry. They do not want it to contain any of those confounded fellows who are open to conviction. They like men who when they set out to search know what they are going to find.

The fourth topic of discussion, "the maintenance of a favorable balance of trade by the enlargement of our markets for American produce, and the promotion of our shipbuilding interests and foreign commerce," would be very mysterious to anybody who had not followed the workings of the protectionist mind during the last twenty years. The fact is that we have no foreign markets worth mention for any product of American industry which our tariff protects. That we do not suffer from this more seriously is due to the fact that we cover a wider area, and possess a greater variety of soil and climate and a larger and busier population with free trade than any other country in the world. We enjoy, in other words, very much the advantages which England, France, and Italy would enjoy if they formed a Zollverein, and abolished their custom-houses as against each other. It is due also to the fact that the market for our manufactures is increased every year by immigration. The effect of immigration on American industry is exactly similar to the opening every year of a small foreign state, containing half a million of inhabitants, to the unrestricted entrance of American goods.

These two facts, combined with the enormous extent of our national resources, enable us to support the protectionist experiment, including the loss of all foreign markets for manufactured articles, and of all share in the carrying trade, with apparent impunity. If our protectionist brethren were wise, they would be content with this and keep quiet about foreign trade and the shipping interest. In fact, on their own theory, we ought not to desire foreign markets. But being only men after all, they are ashamed of the fact that we have no access to foreign markets and have no ships. Their mode of dealing with this problem is in itself a curious phenomenon. The universal panacea of higher duties will not answer in this case. It is plain enough that we cannot make the foreigner buy more of our goods by putting heavier duties on his, and it is plain also that there is no way of making him transport either our or his goods in our bottoms but by offering him cheap freights; and in protectionist eyes cheapness is an abomination. There is, consequently, a diverting vagueness about the Convention's description of this difficulty. We warrant, however, that when the two orators who are to open the discussion on it—Messrs. John Roach and William Ward—come to be heard, the remedy will be found to consist in having the Government bribe shipowners to run two or three lines of steamships at a loss to some point at which American goods cannot be sold at a profit after paying freight. The simplicity of this plan is its only recommendation. It is worthy of the early ages of the race.

The refusal of the Convention to hear an "address of welcome" from Mayor Grace because he, the legal representative of a city which owes everything to the interchange of commodities with foreigners, wished to give his own views about the tariff, calls attention to what is the most unpleasant and dangerous side of the protectionist mind—its intolerance. There is nothing more instructive in political history than the way in which even here, in the home of free discussion, a school of economists and politicians has grown up which, with a certain amount of success, manages to treat all opponents of its views as public enemies if not foreign emissaries. The phenomenon was witnessed once before in the case of the slaveholders, and the cause is the same in both cases—the creation and maintenance, by special legislation, of a class of property-holders whose interests are separate from or opposed to those of their fellow-citizens. Such a class is everywhere unusually fierce and intolerant in politics. It has to be so because it has to persuade the community year after year that laws which put other people's money in its own pockets inure mainly to the benefit of those from whom the money is taken. No logicians were ever known to be patient or charitable when engaged in a job of this kind.

SPEAKERSHIP CONTESTS.

THE despatches from Washington give an amusing account of the considerations which are affecting Congressmen's minds with regard to the selection of a Speaker. The friends of Mr. Burrows, of Michigan, think that Michigan ought to have the place, because for twenty-five years she has given large Republican majorities, and "has never been suitably rewarded for her constancy," while Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, all much less constant, have had political favors showered on them. A Speaker from New York is out of the question, of course, because "with the President and two members of the Cabinet, the Empire State ought to be content." Mr. Kasson is supported by Iowa, and has great strength because Iowa is the "banner" Republican State, and in the matter of constancy it will be difficult to decide between Iowa and Michigan. The Indiana Congressmen, however, treat the constancy argument with great contempt, and insist that it is not a steady Republican majority which entitles a State to the Speakership, but a majority in a really doubtful State in a Presidential year, and therefore claim the place for Mr. Orth, who, by holding Indiana firm in the Republican column last year, helped to save the country from the Democrats. This argument is reinforced by the fact that Indiana is not represented in the Cabinet, while New York, the other doubtful State, has two Cabinet positions. General Keifer is the Ohio candidate, and his claims are based on "the assassination of President Garfield and the transfer of the centre of political influence and power to New York." All the Western Republicans are agreed that the Speaker must be a Western man, but it is obviously difficult to foresee the result of a

contest decided by such considerations as those that we have mentioned. The claim of Ohio may perhaps be regarded as rather far-fetched and sentimental, but it would puzzle the most fair-minded man to say whether the Speakership ought to be given to a "constant" or to a "doubtful" State.

The "views" of the candidates with regard to the various subjects about which the party platforms make declarations of principles, and with which the committees appointed by the Speaker have to deal, do not seem to be at all known. Mr. Kasson's friends assert that his opinions with regard to the tariff have "undergone considerable modification recently," so that he is now a revenue reformer of a "mild type," while on his own behalf Mr. Kasson is understood to declare that "he is now, as he ever was, a believer in the protective principle." Some Western Republicans who are opposed to General Keifer, are dissatisfied with him because, as they say he has, at some time or other, expressed hostility to the Mississippi River; but there seems to be no certainty about this, and for our own part we are strongly inclined to believe that the General, if he were asked a plain up-and-down question, would be found to have no more hostility to the Mississippi than he has to the Equator, and to be no more opposed to internal improvements on which a majority of the party is united than Mr. Kasson is to revenue reform or the protective principle.

No reasons are given why Mr. Hiscock, the New York candidate, should be selected, it being hopeless in the present condition of politics to urge any claims for this State; but a strong reason has been found by the supporters of the other candidates against him, and that is, that he cannot be trusted because "he has on several occasions been seen in pleasant conversation with that prominent Democratic statesman, ex-Speaker Randall"—experience having shown that with a New York politician such interviews as these are not infrequently the prelude to the most base and loathsome forms of treachery.

The usual newspaper view of the matter is that considerations such as these ought not to influence the result at all; that, in fact, they are peculiarly out of place in a contest for the Speakership; that any one who is put forward as the favorite son of a particular State will necessarily feel, if elected, that he must do what he can, in his appointment of committees and in his rulings, to advance the interests of the State he represents; that what is needed in a Speaker is solid judgment, breadth of information, thorough impartiality, and undoubted integrity. The organization of the committees determines to a very great extent the character of legislation, and a Speaker ought consequently to be chosen who will not fritter away the future of the party in any effort for personal popularity and aggrandizement, in rewarding friends, punishing foes, or promoting factions. This view of the subject is evidently not shared by anybody in Washington. The most noticeable thing about the discussion of the candidates' claims is, that it does not include any consideration whatever of their respective fitness for the office. It cannot be, in the nature of things, that Mr. Kasson, General Keifer, Mr. Hiscock, and the other candidates are all equally competent to discharge the duties of Speaker; and the only conclusion to which we can come from the total silence maintained about this is, that fitness is no longer regarded at Washington as a matter of any consequence in the contest. This is not owing, as we have said, to the unimportance of the office, but to the fact that as politics are now managed, "fitness" is such a confusing element that no man can see how things would come out if much attention were paid to it. If a Speaker is selected because he is in sympathy with the Administration, he will fix the committees and distribute his patronage so as to help the Administration's friends and punish its enemies; if, on the other hand, he is put forward as a favorite son of a particular State, a friend of the Mississippi River, or of increasing the duty on wool or iron, the friends of other rivers and the sons of other States and the advocates of a higher tax on whiskey know just where to find him, and how to make their arrangements in advance of the election so that, by means of that spirit of compromise which is the life and soul of good politics; their interests shall not be absolutely sacrificed. To settle the contest by considerations of fitness, or, in other words, experience, integrity, judgment, and impartiality, would introduce the most frightful confusion into the whole matter; for no politician cantell in advance to what conclusions with regard to conflicting rivers, or taxes, or the claims of constant or doubtful States, such a qualification would lead a Speaker.

The contest over the Speakership is becoming with every new Congress in many respects like the contest over the Presidency in the nominating convention. We find the same arguments as to the "claims" of various States, based on their constant or fluctuating election returns; the same cheerful readiness to subordinate opinions, so far as possible, to interests; the same feeling that the East is too greedy, and the West is entitled to the place, or *vice versa*. In the Speakership contest the disappearance of fitness as a test is perhaps more marked; on the other hand, "dark-horse" candidates, kept in reserve to be put in the running when the "break" comes, are not yet a feature of Speakership contests. For this a huge and tumultuous body like a national convention is probably necessary.

FRENCH FINANCE.

With the advent to power of a new Ministry in France it is probable that certain economic questions which were suffered to remain untouched by the late Ministry will come before the public for settlement. In nothing were the weakness and vacillating policy of the late Ministry more clearly shown than in their manner of treating matters of commerce and finance. Distrusting their own strength, they refused to notice many pressing matters, or treated them in such a manner as to render any hope of a final and satisfactory settlement fruitless.

First in importance, so far as the foreign commerce of France is concerned, are the commercial treaties, over which there has been so much discussion of late. Although it is announced that the treaty with Belgium has been signed, and the final proposals of a treaty have been submitted to Italy, this is not a very brilliant result for the late Ministry to boast of. It would seem to be an easy matter for two nations situated as are France and Italy to come to a speedy agreement on a commercial treaty; for as both are under a protectionist or at least a high, tariff, it is only necessary to decide upon the duties which are to be mutually reduced. But in treating with England the case is very different, for England has no general tariff, or any duties that could be reduced to any extent in return for a like concession on the part of France. Moreover, of late a strong protectionist party has gained the ascendancy in France, and forced the late Ministry to enter into the negotiations with England with such proposals as forbade any agreement between the two nations. This was accomplished only by a bargain between the protectionist manufacturers and the agriculturists, and this bargain has been broken, for little or none of the promised protection was given to agriculture. Still, this alliance between the two interests lasted long enough to make the Ministry consent to the protectionist programme, and all attempts to frame a treaty failed. But as Gambetta assumes power with a strong majority behind him, he may again offer to resume negotiations with England, and thus remedy to some extent the mistakes of his predecessor. In his speech before the Senate he is very vague in this matter; he merely engages to fix by treaties an economic régime of the various industries.

The most important question relating to finance, and one that has been allowed to pass almost unnoticed for six years, is that of the conversion of the public funds bearing five per cent. into funds bearing a lower rate of interest. While England and the United States have successfully accomplished at different times vast refunding operations, with little or no disturbance to trade, this method of reducing the public burdens by reducing the rate of interest on public loans has never been extensively practised in France, because the political situation has been such as to render any proposal to refund dangerous to the tenure of office of the Ministry. For in no country is the national debt so completely distributed among the population as is that of France. In 1875 the public fundholders were nearly equal in number to the freeholders of the soil (about four and one-half millions), and any attempt to reduce the income of so large a proportion of the total population is regarded as fatal to the Ministry proposing the reduction. But the charge on the national debt is very heavy, amounting to about twenty-one francs per head of population, so that, if this burden could be reduced, the fundholder would be benefited; for though his nominal income would be reduced, his taxes would also be less. The portion of the debt which bears five per cent. interest amounted in 1875 to 5,743,000,000 francs, and the annual charge on this amount to 343,000,000 francs; so that the reduction of even one per cent. in the interest would form

quite an item. This stock was quoted in the first week in November at 116; and as the three per cents were then selling at about 84, the whole amount of five per cents could doubtless easily be refunded at four per cent., and the new stock issued at par. It is true that Gambetta, in a speech at Romans in 1878, expressed a wish that this question should never be brought forward; but his position at that time was very different from what it is now, and his objection to refunding was based rather upon political than upon economic reasons. Had he appointed Léon Say Minister of Finance—and he was strongly urged to do so—the conversion would have been at once effected. The present financial situation of France is favorable to this conversion, although the political situation is not as favorable, owing to the uncertainty of the result of the Tunisian expedition. Yet if Italy, with the same cloud over her, can attempt the far more difficult operation of suppressing a paper currency, why could not France accomplish the easier task of refunding a part of her debt? The city of Marseilles, a few years since, succeeded in reducing the rate of interest on her debt from five and four and one-half per cent. to four per cent., and certainly the credit of France is as high as that of Marseilles.

These are the two most important questions relating to the commerce and finance of France to be settled by the new Ministry. There are also some minor ones, such as the reduction of burdens on agriculture; the suppression of the petty and harassing imposts on commodities which hamper the internal commerce of France without producing much revenue to the treasuries, and a change in the relations now existing between the national Treasury and the communes, by which the system of subventions will be abolished. The settlement of these will be watched with interest.

THE LICK OBSERVATORY.

In December, 1874, Mr. James Lick determined to erect "the most powerful telescope in the world," somewhere within the boundaries of California, his adopted State. Various sites were proposed and considered, the first being Observatory Point on Lake Tahoe, which was soon abandoned on account of the severity of the winters at this place, and especially on account of the great snowfall. Mr. Lick's original idea was somewhat crude and unformed, but it took shape after consultation by letter and otherwise with various men of science in the East and elsewhere, and also with gentlemen of scientific tastes in California. Monte Diablo (3,856 feet high), Mount Helena (4,343 feet high), and other points were successively proposed and, after examination, rejected. Finally, Mr. Lick sent Captain Fraser, his man of business, to examine Mount Hamilton (4,440 feet), an easily accessible peak some thirteen miles east of San José, in Santa Clara county. The first examination was made by Captain Fraser, in August, 1875.

In most respects this site was found to be satisfactory, but the chief objections to it were important if not vital. The cost of constructing a road to the summit would certainly be very great, and the summit itself was a sharp point of very hard trap rock. To make a level space here for the reception of the necessary buildings would be a serious matter. Finally, no water was known anywhere near the summit. The last objection was disposed of by the discovery of two springs, only 4,300 feet distant from the summit and 300 feet below it. Mr. Lick then announced that if Santa Clara county would build a suitable road connecting San José with the top of the mountain, he would establish and suitably endow an observatory on Mount Hamilton. After various changes in his plans Mr. Lick made a deed of trust (dated September 21, 1875), which gave a very large amount of real and personal property to five trustees to be by them expended for various purposes. The observatory was provided for as follows: The trustees were authorized to expend the sum of $700,000 for the purchase of the necessary land and for putting up on that land "a powerful telescope, superior to and more powerful than any telescope ever yet made," with the necessary machinery, etc., "and also a suitable observatory connected therewith." As soon as these objects are satisfactorily accomplished, the observatory is to be turned over to the Regents of the University of California, to become a department of the University, and any surplus left over after paying for the land and observatory is to be invested in safe bonds. The income from these bonds is to be devoted to "the maintenance of the said telescope and of the observatory connected therewith, and shall be made useful in promoting science."

A grant of land was obtained from the United States; the proposition of Mr. Lick to Santa Clara county was accepted, and the road to the top of Mount Hamilton was built during 1876. It was formally accepted by the trustees in January, 1877. It is now maintained by Santa Clara county as a county road, and it is quite likely that it will soon be extended by Alameda county over the range into the San Joaquin valley. Probably no more magnificent mountain road exists in the United States, when one considers all the circumstances of fine surrounding scenery, excellent road-bed, and commanding views. Some idea of the engineering difficulties overcome can be had from the cost of constructing this highway twenty-six miles into the heart of the mountains, and with a rise of 4,000 feet in twenty-two miles. Such a project would appall the average county surveyor of New England, but it was here accomplished at the large cost of $78,000.

The maximum grade is 6 feet 6 inches in 100 feet, or about 343 feet in the mile. Most of the road, however, is materially less steep than this. The first four miles is a fine level avenue, laid out in a perfectly straight line in the Santa Clara valley. The ascent of the foothills is then commenced, and the road begins a series of turnings and twistings which are of course necessary to keep the gradient low. Toward the end of the route the road winds round and round the mountain itself and overlooks one of the most picturesque of scenes: the valley of Santa Clara and the coast range to the west, a bit of the Pacific to the southwest, the Sierra Nevadas, with countless ranges between, to the southeast, the San Joaquin valley and the Sierras beyond to the east, while to the north on clear days you plainly see Mount Shasta (14,000 feet), 175 miles away. The bay of San Francisco lies open before you, like a child's dissecting map, and at the end of it Tamalpais, the mountain near the entrance to the Golden Gate.

Mount Hamilton has, properly speaking, three summits. The east peak is 4,440 feet, the middle peak is 4,350 feet, and the third, the Observatory peak (originally 4,256 feet), has been cut down to a level surface just large enough to contain the necessary buildings for the instruments. The dwelling-house and workshops are on a narrow saddle some fifty feet below the summit. To gain the level surface some twenty-nine feet of rock has been removed from the peak; in all about 40,000 tons. A level site is thus provided, and this is perfectly accessible from San José. With a light wagon one may trot the horses all the way. The springs have also been connected with "the hill," as it is called by the inhabitants, by a good road along which a water pipe is laid. These springs yield 850 gallons per day in the dryest time, and in the wet season as much as 5,000 gallons per day. Thus a very serious problem is solved.

The decision of the general plans for the Observatory has fallen largely to the President of the Lick Trustees, Captain R. S. Floyd. He has given to these questions an amount of time which few persons could possibly bestow on a matter outside of ordinary professional life. Since 1876 he has personally visited most of the observatories of Europe and America and has corresponded with astronomers all over the world. In 1879 he visited Washington, and together with Professors Newcomb and Holden, of the Naval Observatory, he prepared a series of drawings from which the Observatory was to be built, and ordered the first of the instruments. The general plan of the Observatory is to give the place of honor to the large dome (some seventy-five feet in diameter). This is to contain a refracting telescope by Alvan Clark & Sons, of Cambridgeport, who have made not only the largest but the best telescopes in the world. Their first telescopes were six inches in aperture and of exquisite definition. Without losing in precision, they have successively made object glasses of 8¼, 9⅛, 12, 15½, 18½, 23, and 26 inches. They are now engaged on an objective of 30 inches for the Russian Government, and will soon commence the Lick telescope of 36 inches aperture, for which they have served so magnificent an apprenticeship. This is to occupy the whole of the south end of the plateau of the summit. At the northwest corner stands a dome (completed in November, 1881) which contains a 12-inch telescope by Alvan Clark, one of his very finest. Connecting the two domes is to be a one-story building containing a clock room, workshops, a library, offices, and bedrooms for observers. A transit house of iron (completed in 1881) stands a few feet east of the smaller dome, and just south of this is the photo-heliograph, with its house. A few feet east of this the six-inch meridian circle (by Repsold of Hamburg) is to stand, which, with the four-inch transit (by Fauth of Washington), completes the list of meridian instruments. A four-inch comet-seeker, by Clark, occupies a small dome. The main building will be built of brick. The bricks of clay, found close to the Observatory, are made under a contract which saves the Observatory some fifty per cent. of the usual cost. About 2,000,000 brick are now made and ready to deliver, and these will just about suffice for the constructions agreed upon.

It will be seen that an observing station of importance is already established on the mountain, containing an equipment of which many European observatories would be proud. It may be said that the whole of the fund expended to date is less than the cost of the road to the summit, and this includes all expenses. This equipment has recently been utilized in the observation of the transit of Mercury on November 7, 1881, by Professor Holden and Mr. Burnham, who were invited by the trustees to set up their first instruments. In 1879 Mr. Burnham spent three of the summer months on the mountain, and used his six-inch telescope in regular observations, the object being to compare the conditions of vision at this high altitude with those at lower levels. His conclusions were extremely favorable to the Mount Hamilton site, and from his report there is little doubt that during the summer months this site is more favorable than that of any observatory now established. During the winter, storms prevail, but the

snow is not very deep, and does not lie long, and the temperature is not very low. When it is clear, in the rainy season, it is perfectly so, and the vision compares favorably with the average conditions at Eastern observatories. It is obvious that if the management of the Observatory affairs remains in the same able control, we shall have in a few years one of the most admirably equipped observatories in the world, on a site far superior to any; and without being too sanguine, it will be safe to expect much from such an institution in proper hands.

Correspondence.

MR. ADIN THAYER ON THE CAUCUS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your recent and somewhat lengthy article criticising my address at the Massachusetts Club seems to call for a few words in reply, although it is exceedingly difficult to defend, in your columns, a paper which, in all human probability, not one in a hundred of your readers will ever have an opportunity to see. Had you seen fit to publish the address, I should have been quite content to leave the whole matter to the candid consideration of your readers without a word of comment. As it is, they can hardly fail to get an entirely erroneous impression of its scope and purpose—not from anything which you quote, but from the meaning which you attempt to give to parts which you do not quote. For instance, you say, "From the account he gives of Sam Adams one would suppose that the union of liberty with law was never thought of until his time." Pray where do you find anything in my address that warrants this statement? I have never said or believed anything of the kind. The idea of liberty regulated by law is as old as civilized society, and nothing could have been further from my purpose than to claim for Sam Adams or anybody else the honor of its discovery. Let me quote what I said upon this subject:

"Sam Adams was a thinker. He had mastered the idea of a republican form of government, and it is doubtful if any man ever had a clearer conception of liberty, regulated by law, than he. He was also a statesman and a politician. The terms to me are synonymous. Upon him, more than upon any other man, fell the duty of organizing resistance to British aggression; and, to accomplish this end, he used all the appliances which were suggested by his powerful and trained intellect. The press and the town meeting he found established, and he used them. But finding them insufficient, he supplemented them with an institution which the enemies of liberty, probably in derision, called 'a caucus.'"

Will any intelligent student of American history say that I have claimed too much for Sam Adams?

This is not the only instance in which you have tortured my words into a meaning contrary to their fair and legitimate import; but let the others pass.

It is no very serious thing for an individual to be misrepresented in the columns of a newspaper. That a considerable number of people are not satisfied with the caucus is to my mind no valid objection to the system. No human institution, however beneficent it may be, satisfies everybody. Even universal suffrage has hosts of opponents in this country to-day. You say that "to the changed condition of society in many parts of the country, and particularly the great cities, the caucus is entirely unsuited." You do not state how or why it is unsuited. I therefore have simply to place my opinion against yours, and assert that under our present form of government it is suited to substantially every locality.

You say that "under his definition of the right of voting he would not be permitted to take part in any Republican caucus in the city of New York." What of that? I have not defended any clique or cabal which usurps the power of the people and assumes the honored name of caucus. Such an organization is no more entitled to the name of a caucus than are the followers of Joe Smith and Brigham Young to the name of a Christian church. I spoke in defence of the caucus as it ought to be, as it was in the time of Sam Adams, and as it is to-day throughout Massachusetts, and I denounced its perversion as fraught with danger to the republic.

From this line of argument I do not propose to withdraw for the sake of discussing side issues. You say that "the best system of party nominations is that in which it is easiest for the most intelligent and the laziest and most indifferent to take part." So far as this idea applies to "the laziest and most indifferent," I think you may fairly consider that it is an entirely new discovery, and nobody will be likely to dispute your claim to priority of invention. What your precise system may be you do not state. When you do, it will be quite time to criticise; but in the meantime I must be permitted to say that I have no faith in any royal road to good government any more than I have in a royal road to learning, virtue, or religion. The problem of adapting political duties to the requirements of absolute laziness has never yet been solved, nor am I aware that its solution has ever before been seriously attempted. Should you, however, succeed, you will confer lasting benefit upon the human race, and greatly relieve the anxiety of those of us who believe that political inertness is the chief stumbling-block in the road to the permanent success of free institutions.

ADIN THAYER.

WORCESTER, November 14.

[Mr. Thayer published his address in a pamphlet and sent it to this journal, presumably to be discussed as well as read. He can hardly have expected that if we discussed it we should publish it—any such rule would of course make any notice of a book or pamphlet an impossibility. It would fill several pages of the *Nation*. We will add that if we had published it in full, our comments on it would have been much more effective. For instance, more space for quotations would justify our assertion as to the rôle Mr. Thayer assigns to Sam Adams. The proper answer to the charge that we have in other cases tortured his words into a meaning contrary to their fair and legitimate import is, as it is not supported by proof or illustration, a simple denial. As Mr. Thayer now says that he defended "the caucus as it ought to be, as it was in the time of Sam Adams, and as it is to-day throughout Massachusetts," we really have no further controversy with him. But we must in self-justification add that, whatever his design may have been in writing his pamphlet, what he really did defend was the caucus as it is, and not in Massachusetts only but everywhere, as the following curious passage alone abundantly proves. If his plan had been more limited, he would doubtless have treated people who find fault with the caucus—many of whom are as honest, intelligent, and patriotic as he is—with more respect, or rather with less contempt, for not agreeing with him. It will be seen that he claims without qualification success for the caucus everywhere but in the slave States, and castigates the "doctrinaires" for not being satisfied with what was good enough for Sam Adams and his contemporaries. With a few slight changes, this argument might be used against railroads, and steamboats, and stoves in churches.

"Adams and his compeers saw that British tyranny could best be resisted, and republican institutions organized, by submitting all questions to the people in their primary capacity, where every citizen could discuss and vote on a perfect equality with his fellows. The experiment was tried, and has proved an abundant success, so that it has been ever since an established institution throughout the country, save only in localities controlled by the slave oligarchy, where freedom of speech and of the press have always been practically denied; and it would seem that a discreet distrust of their own wisdom might lead some of our doctrinaires to cease from their flippant denunciations of an institution which received the approval of Hancock and Otis and Warren and the Adamses, and which more than a century's experience has justified and approved. It is a peculiarly American institution; for we find nothing really analogous to the orderly, deliberative American caucus in any of the institutions of the Old World. It is difficult to see what objection can really be made to the caucus in the abstract, the peaceable assembling of citizens together to deliberate upon public affairs, and to place in nomination the candidates who are to be supported at the coming election. The objections, as expressed by orator and journalist in their furious denunciation of caucus tyranny and political wire-pulling, may be all formulated in the single statement that corrupt and time-serving men attend and control caucuses. Undoubtedly, but they also vote and control elections when they are in the majority. The objection proves too much, if it proves anything, for it strikes at the very foundation of free government—universal suffrage. If these men are to vote and participate in elections, why not recognize the fact and provide for it? We not only meet the vicious and depraved at the caucus and the polls, but we meet them in all the walks of life."

—ED. NATION.]

THE NEW YORK CITY YALE ALUMNI JUBILEE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: What the Yale Alumni in the city of New York do, or do not do, is a matter of interest to a limited, perhaps a small, portion of your readers; yet Yale graduates are numerous throughout the country, and critics, hostile to university education, are more numerous. The transactions, then, of the most conspicuous and largely attended reunion of Yale Alumni in our colossal city are not without consequence, since they indicate with more or less exactness the result of university education at a time when the educated intellect unbends itself, when Socrates and Alcibiades hob-nob together, and pleasure goes hand in hand with philosophy to the supper-table.

When ordinary men meet for convivial purposes, uncheered and unchecked by feminine presence, there is always an outflow of vulgarity, only partially redeemed by that Rabelaisian humor which is the muck out of which all gross stories grow, and which, however much we may deplore its existence, is an admitted and permanent fact—a sort of "covenant running with the land" out of which male human beings are made. A natural supposition would be that a university education, especially the education imparted at such a university as Yale, would tend to refine away such vulgarity to a vanishing point; to cleanse a Rabelais of filth while leaving to him the full exercise of his native humor, and in fact developing this humor by fruitful methods of culture. Two hundred classically, mathematically, philosophically educated gentlemen, alumni of one seat of learning, devote an evening to intellectual recreation in the society of each other, and what is the result? A song is sung, as a preliminary. This song of four verses is written in a halting style, and fails to furnish correct scansion. Charity

compels us to believe that it was intended to be incorrect as to rhythm, and rhyme also; but although undeniably bad, it was not bad enough to be good. It was admirably sung, however; and a good-natured audience prepared themselves to enjoy a poem. In order to enjoy a poem, an educated listener requires that the poem shall be constructed in accordance with the rules of poetic art, and that it shall be vitally informed with the poetic principle. Such construction is simple, and demands little more than educated industry; the life-giving interjection of the poetic principle is a matter of genius, and cannot be manipulated to order. The prevalent conclusion, after the alleged poem had been read, was that the audience had been cheated of their time and attention. Yet, but for the *doubles ententes*, the general dulness of the piece would have been pardoned, since the performer was evidently doing the best he could; and this sort of energy only becomes blameworthy when he is doing his best in an unworthy direction.

A "missionary address" followed, as to the bad taste of which no doubt was expressed. No reason exists why a collection of scholars should at any time set up one of their number to travesty a sermon, or to make a parody of Scripture, or to ridicule organized schemes of doing good; but if such a reason should exist, it is the *minimum* of fair treatment of the travestied sermon, the parodied Scripture, or the organized scheme that the business should be done on artistic principles—neatly, skilfully, with keen wit, with a humor that shall produce a smile upon the faces of listeners while the speaker wears the mask of gravity. None of these conditions were observed during the delivery of the "missionary address" at the Yale Jubilee. When the orator, liberally educated at great expense, displayed his culture by saying: "This is a big scheme; we'll let you all in on the ground-floor; Jay and Cyrus are both in it, and it's bound to go through; yes, there's lots of money in it," his own countenance was wreathed with smiles, and he chuckled audibly; but the audience despaired. With this orator *doubles ententes* went out and broad vulgarity came in without mask or clothing. A map of Africa, with a railroad from end to end, garnished with caricatures, is a puerile conception to depict on muslin wherewith to interest an intellectual and educated audience. At the highest, in lecturing before such a show, one could not rise above Artemus Ward; while the chances are, as it proved in this case, that one will fall below a Bowery variety actor.

With the "Review of the Progress of the University" came another deluge of obscene allusion, to which the audience had now grown callous; and it is a satire upon Yale that the only clean effort of the evening, aside from the singing, was the final address of a graduate dressed to imitate Prof. Agassiz of Harvard. This was delivered without notes, and was incisive and clever.

A jubilee performance such as this should never be repeated. I apologize for so long a letter on so slender a topic.

A YALE GRADUATE.

NEW YORK, Nov. 22, 1881.

TREE CULTURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A recent communication in your columns on the subject of "Schools of Forestry" contains some wholesome truths which it would be well for legislators to bear in mind before devoting public money to uses which may prove unavailing in effecting the desired object. The fate of most of the agricultural schools which have been attempted in this country should serve as a warning against proceeding rashly in the effort to give instruction in a single branch of culture, and especially against adopting such systems as are demanded and have proved successful under the entirely different conditions which exist in Europe.

Nevertheless, the fact remains that our forests have been and are being stripped from the face of the earth at a rate which threatens far greater evils than the mere loss of the timber, and the prevailing ignorance of forest preservation and culture is so great and so universal that it is very difficult to discuss the subject in terms that will convey any clear ideas to the average mind. I have heard intelligent men, whose pursuits are such as would seem necessarily to have made them familiar with the growth of wood, deride the assertion that our timber supply was being diminished, and assert that the young wood which was everywhere springing up was more than sufficient to supply its place. To hear this said by a man whose life had been passed in other pursuits, and who only formed his opinions from what he saw in travelling about the country, would be no cause for surprise; but I have heard it from professed agriculturists and from men actually engaged in the business of lumbering—men who one would suppose could not help seeing and knowing that of all the vast extent of wood which may be seen on almost any journey, not one tree in ten thousand can ever attain the dignity of timber, while the great mass will run up into mere hoop-poles, serving only for fuel or fencing-stuff. And yet these same forests, by proper thinning and culture, might be preserved, and a very large amount of timber thus secured for future use, while the annual thinnings in many instances could be made a source of revenue.

There is scarcely an acre of woodland even in the vicinity of great cities which shows the least evidence of knowledge on the part of its proprietor that its value might be enormously increased by such care and culture as would develop either timber or ornamental forest, which would add very greatly to its attractions as a site for suburban residences. And when the work of thinning is begun, as in the case of such a tract having been selected as a site for a rural home, the manner of its performance bears further evidence of utter ignorance of the primary necessities of forest culture. The (so-called) underbrush is first carefully grubbed out, as well on the edges as in the interior of the wood, so that the winds have full sweep over the surface of the ground; the trees are thinned without regard to any object but the preservation of the best specimens; and finally the leaves are carefully raked up and burned or carried to the compost heap. The result is that the myriads of fine fibrous roots which every tree had sent out, and which had formed a perfect matting, permeating the leaf mould near the surface, which had always been kept moist by the mulching of fallen leaves and the shade of the trees, being now exposed to the drying influence of sun and winds, are sure to perish; and the wood, which had previously presented as a whole the beauty of a living mass of luxuriant foliage, is converted into an assemblage of gaunt and sickly-looking trees, devoid alike of symmetry and grace.

I mention the above as an illustration, the truth of which must be obvious to most people, of the prevailing ignorance of the requirements of tree-culture; and of the need, not of schools of forestry, but rather of illustrative examples, within easy access of cities, colleges, and schools, not only of arboretums in which specimens of all desirable varieties of trees and their best mode of culture may be exhibited, but of tracts of native forest in which the best modes of treatment may be followed to ensure the finest development of ornamental or timber trees. These examples would result in a few years in such a popular recognition of the importance of the work, and the possible attainment of increased wealth and beauty by the judicious management of the native forests wherever they still exist, as would form the foundation of a future demand for schools of forestry that might become of essential value.

It will be seen that my ideas are in the main the same as those of the writer to whose communication I have referred. I agree with him that "experimental forests" should constitute the first step we should take toward the attainment of what we want; but an experience of thirty years as a landscape gardener has convinced me, first, that in every section of our country there are vast tracts of woodland now standing which, if left to themselves, will never attain a greater dignity than that of fire-wood, but which, by proper care and culture, might be made to attain such value as would in the aggregate constitute a vast source of national wealth; and, second, that the ignorance of forest culture is so universal that there is no just appreciation of this truth; and even the men who so wisely urge the planting of new forests, and bewail the destruction which is going on, have failed to perceive the means within our reach of vastly increasing the value of those which still remain.

The subject is one I have so much at heart that I should be glad to enlarge upon it if it were consistent with the objects of your paper or the interest of the majority of its readers.

H. W. S. CLEVELAND.

CHICAGO, Nov. 25, 1881.

GUITEAU'S INSANITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: When Hödel and Nobiling shot at the German Kaiser, I was residing in Berlin, and finding nothing in my own daily paper about the prisoners, inquired at news-stands and then of several German friends, until at length I came to understand that there seemed to them a shade of ill-breeding, if not of disloyalty, in the fact of my curiosity. I saw at length in my paper an announcement of two lines for each, that after due trial they had been beheaded for treason, in the presence of a few officials and physicians. Both these men, so far as I could learn, were fanatics of excitable temper, aggravated by bitter party feeling, and the sentiment seemed strong and universal that public duty required, and public safety demanded, that not the least notoriety should be attained by these wretches.

Now, as the other extreme, the trial of an assassin who not only killed but tortured our Chief Magistrate, fills several columns each of the morning and evening editions of my daily paper. Nothing is less insane in the psychiatric sense than the passion for fame. The insane often think they have obtained, but never in my reading or observation do they crave it. It is almost a part of the young American temperament to long to do something exceptional and great, and often without discriminating between fame and notoriety. Guiteau is already a hero of this sentiment. He devours the printed reports of his trial, and then devotes himself to new sallies, speeches, declarations, etc., for the next day's record, often amid roars of laughter, while the Judge himself, we are told, sometimes smiles. However indifferent he may appear to the gallows, the prisoner has a very sane fear of assassination, if we may judge by his manifestoes.

As to Guiteau's "Deity business," I know several very practical people who piously believe

their every word and act is immediately directed by God. They belong to a larger sect of essentially the same creed. The irresponsible type of inspirationism appears almost only when attended by auditory hallucinations, due to disordered subjective sensations, and interpreted by the patient as a voice of Deity or other commanding his deed. Some admit only this type as irresponsible, in which the subject often resists for a long time and often appeals to his friends for help, and perhaps even demands to be confined before the dangerous impulse has entirely mastered him.

Again, sanity shades off into its opposite by many insensible gradations. Instead of being a fixed and definite state, we are almost all of us insane to a degree, just as we are not in absolutely perfect health; and the point is where responsibility ceases. Now no one doubts that there are many Guiteaus at large. This one dreads death, as his proclamations and his excitability show, while he sees himself proved insane with great complacency. Would not the other Guiteaus be wholesomely affected by seeing him hung, rather than made a notoriety or hero of? Stern discipline is often salutary in an asylum, and it has been well said that nothing would cure hysteria like flogging or executing a few of its worst cases.

The fact is that as surgery is the very best department in medical science in this country, alienism is the very worst; and as sympathy, such as was illustrated during President Garfield's illness, is the best side of our national life, so the administration of justice is that in which republics notoriously fail. So far the trial has been a very broad afterpiece to the noble spectacle of our national grief, and humiliating enough to those who chance to have a personal interest in the comments of candid and critical European friends. The facts that we have no such scientific care for the insane in our hospitals or in private practice as is found in Europe, and especially in Germany, since the great revival of this department some two decades ago; that even post-mortem studies of the brain or spinal cord are so rare, or so uncritical; that many of our medical schools have yet no special chairs of insanity; that most of the best books in this department in other languages remain untranslated, etc.—these facts do not indicate that the medico-psychological principles that should determine this case will be likely to be impressed very vividly upon the minds of the twelve "average men" in the jury-box.

It is clearly for Stalwart interests that Guiteau should be proved insane; but it is a great mistake to suppose that it will "look better abroad" to have this verdict, and it is worst of all for political interests to be in the least heard or felt in the matter. Since this trial began I, for one, have first learned what a sense of national shame means. Very respectfully, X.

Boston, November 28.

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will bring out a new and enlarged edition of Bret Harte's works in five uniform volumes. 'Noah Webster' will form the second of this firm's series of "American Men of Letters," and will contain a portrait on steel from an old oil painting by James Herring.——'Authors and Authorship,' by William Shepard, in the press of G. P. Putnam's Sons, treats of the advantages and discouragements of the literary profession, with some statistics of success and failure in it.——S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, announce as in preparation a joint translation, by Professor R. B. Anderson and the author, of Frederic Winkel Horn's 'History of the Literature of the Scandinavian North,' already reviewed in the original in the *Nation;* a new and revised edition of Professor Anderson's 'Viking Tales of the North'; and 'The League of the Iroquois,' a poem, by Benjamin Hathaway, intended to embody the traditions of the Five Nations.——An elaborate undertaking in color-printing is Tennyson's 'Lady of Shalott,' decorated by Howard Pyle, and to be published by Dodd, Mead & Co.——Harper & Brothers will be the American publishers of John Richard Greene's 'The Making of England' and Sarah Brook's 'French History for English Children.'——I. K. Funk & Co. will have ready this month their 'Cyclopædia of Practical Quotations,' by J. K. Hoyt and Anna L. Ward. Stocks must not be inferred from this rather singular title, but "seed-thoughts of inestimable value."——The next number of *Liberty*, the Boston fortnightly socialistic publication, will contain the first likeness of Michael Bakunin ever published in America.——The first and second reports of the Boston Record Commissioners are nearly reprinted, in answer to the unexpected demand for them, and No. 7 (Boston, 1660–1700) is completed except the index.——Mayor Courtenay's annual review of "Education in Charleston, S. C.," which attracted wide attention at the time of its delivery, has been printed in pamphlet form, by unanimous vote of the City Council, with the sub-title, "The Disabilities of the Unaided South in Public School Facilities." It considers the three questions: "Why the National Government should help us," "How it has the power to help us," and "What means it can apply to help us."——The proceedings of the meeting held by the Trustees, Faculty, and other members of the Johns Hopkins University in commemoration of the late Sidney Lanier have also been published as a pamphlet.——Professor Fowler, of Oxford, England, whose volume on Locke has been reviewed in the *Nation*, has lately edited his 'Conduct of the Understanding,' with notes and introduction, in a handy little volume of 136 pages, in the Clarendon Press Series (Macmillan). The work itself is well adapted, as Hallam says, to boys just beginning to reason; but to whom Professor Fowler's notes are adapted it would be hard to tell. He informs us that Lord Verulam means Bacon; that mizmaze is a maze or labyrinth; and that orthodoxy is "opposed to the tenets of the heretics"; and for the rest refers the reader repeatedly to the Bible, Locke's 'Treatise,' and his own works, and cites many parallel passages from Bacon, on whom he was preparing a volume—all in the dryest and most scholastic of ways. Thirty pages are filled with this philosophic verbiage.——Very late indeed is the *Almanach des Spectacles* for 1880. Ten months is a little larger margin than even the most elaborate editor has a right to ask, and there is nothing in this volume which should have delayed it after February. The etched portrait (this year by M. Gaucherel) represents M. Coquelin *cadet* in "Ami Fritz." The elder and greater M. Coquelin has just published 'Un Poète du Foyer—Eugène Manuel' (Paris: Ollendorff; New York: F. W. Christern), which, like its predecessors in the same dainty form, "L'Art et le Comédien" and "Molière et le Misanthrope," was originally delivered as a lecture. It is a sympathetic study of a poet little known on this side of the Atlantic. Incidentally, it is remarkable as containing a sketch of M. Gambetta, whose intimate friend the actor-author is.——The November number of the *Moliériste* has a colored engraving of the chair which Molière used in the last act of the "Malade Imaginaire," and which is still used by the Comédie-Française every time that play is acted. It was at the third performance of the "Malade Imaginaire," and while he was sitting in this very chair, that the great dramatist and actor was seized by the fatal attack which carried him off before morning.——The second and third volumes of the 8vo edition of M. Alphonse Daudet's complete works will appear before the new year, and will contain 'Jack' and 'Robert Helmont.' Besides the two illustrations in each volume, each story will be preceded by an account of its origin from the author's own pen.——The bibliography given this year with the report of the Royal Library at Stockholm is Part 1 (1483–1658) of "Sweden's Relations with Foreign Powers." It fills 171 pages, is arranged chronologically, and includes pamphlets. Everything is fully described.

—The December *Scribner* is fairly to be denominated a memorial number. Its late editor, Dr. Holland, is of course the theme of much discourse. His singularly checkered career is narrated at some length by Mr. Edward Eggleston; and we have besides the tributes of poets and of his editorial associates, and the respectful addresses of friends and neighbors in Springfield. The effect of it all is greatly to heighten one's estimation of the man and of the writer from the moral side. Two posthumous editorial articles in the "Topics of the Time," one of which aims to show that the prayer for President Garfield's recovery was answered, while the other treats, apropos of Garfield, of "Poverty as a Discipline," are as characteristic as possible of Dr. Holland's intellectual qualities. Mr. E. V. Smalley contributes a sketch of the prominent traits of President Garfield with truthfulness and insight, and his paper is illustrated with an interesting portrait of his subject as a lad of sixteen, and a beautiful engraving of the Presidential candidate of 1880. Another relic of rare interest is presented in a copy of a life-mask of Abraham Lincoln, made in 1860 by the sculptor Volk, who recounts the history of it with sympathetic humor and directness. The chin is smooth, and nothing hinders the study of the remarkable features of the lower half of the face. Yet a third President is commemorated by Mr. Horatio King, in an article equivocally entitled "Buchanan's Loyalty," of which the contents are mainly letters to and from Mr. King, while First Assistant Postmaster-General, from Oct., 1860, to March, 1861. These reveal his own anxiety lest the President's inability to withstand the secession influences about him should prove fatal to the Union, and the efforts of his correspondents—notably General Dix, then postmaster of this city—to achieve the impossible task of maintaining the authority of the Federal Government and satisfying the South that the North would make fresh concessions to slavery. This mode of Union-saving is not now held in the esteem it then was, and Mr. King naturally makes a free use of asterisks in quoting the correspondence. Nothing new is developed, and as it clearly appears that Buchanan remained imbecile to the last, never dismissing a Cabinet officer however open his disloyalty, one is rather surprised to find Mr. King winding up with an apology for his "policy of forbearance." We should have been glad to hear his opinion of the story, told on page 526 of Clingman's 'Speeches and Writings,' about Secretary Thompson's having gone on a mission to North Carolina to ensure the secession of that State, with Buchanan's permission and hope that "he might succeed." This is said to have occurred in the middle of December, 1860, when the President wanted all his Cabinet officers to stay by him until March. We have only space to mention a few other significant papers in this number of *Scribner's*—Mr. Edmund W. Gosse's "Early Writings of Robert Browning," with its Macready episode; Oswald Seidensticker's "A Colonial Monastery" (Ephrata, Penn.); Prof. E. S. Holden's "The Hiero-

glyphs of Central America," and the first instalment of Mr. Howells's new story, "A Modern Instance."

—*Lippincott's* for December contains a pleasant article on French life by Anna Bowman Blake, called "Some Impressions of an Open-Air People." With regard to riding in France she makes some observations which would probably apply with equal truth to a good many other out-door occupations as cultivated by the French —*e. g.*, that there is an inherent difference between Gallic and English horsemanship, owing to the fact that with a Frenchwoman, or a Frenchman for that matter, the exercise itself is not the sole or chief object of equestrianism.

"All Frenchwomen ride as if conscious of their admirable *tournures*. They pose more or less in the saddle. There is little of that physical delight displayed among the well-mounted, glove-fitted *amazones* who crowd the *Allée des Poteaux*, the Rotten Row of the Bois, every morning in May and June, which one sees across the Channel. The beaming, radiant faces, the fearlessness, the enthusiasm, which characterize the mounted Englishwoman and make of her so different a being oftentimes from the same creature afoot, are all lacking. Frenchwomen ride prettily, if we may be forgiven the tameness of the phrase; their unrivalled grace in this, as in every action of life, standing as an admirable substitute for that oneness with the horse which makes the Englishwoman supreme when in the saddle."

This peculiarity comes from a fundamental difference in character between the Gaul and the Saxon, the latter being always intent, with a sort of barbarous earnestness, upon the object pursued, whether it relates to the more serious or the lighter things of life, the former never pursuing any object without a distinct consciousness at the same time of the relation which he will seem to the spectator to bear to the pursuit. Whether this double consciousness is to be regarded as a defect or virtue can hardly be settled by either French or Anglo-Saxon criticism. Apropos of riding, also, the writer of the article calls attention to the curious freedom from social restraint enjoyed by French horsewomen. Precisely how far this freedom goes it is difficult to get at; but every one who has any acquaintance with French fiction or the French stage recognizes at once the truth of the remark that a Frenchwoman on horseback is allowed a freedom from restraint which is denied the same woman on terra firma. Whether this was originally introduced as an imitation of a supposed English freedom, we do not know; but there seems to be no doubt that the copy has been carried much further than the original. According to the writer from whom we have been quoting, the independence of a mounted Frenchwoman far exceeds that of her English prototype.

—Dr. William Hunt contributes an article on "Popular Fallacies about Surgery," of which he enumerates five: first, the belief that in gunshot wounds the ball is necessarily the source of after-danger, and that the surgeon must extract it—a fallacy which we commend to the attention of the physicians who exercised their skill upon the wound of President Garfield through the columns of the press; second, that after a trephining operation a silver plate is fitted into the opening made in the skull; third, that in fractures the bone is always "set." Dr. Hunt's remarks about these are valuable and interesting. His fourth and fifth fallacies, that nature is perfect in her workings and always salutary, and that doctors disagree, can hardly be put in the same category with the others. Surgeons are called in to perform operations that no one imagines nature will ever effect, and the belief that doctors disagree can hardly be called a fallacy at all. It may be true that lawyers disagree quite as often, but then contention and disagreement are so much part of a lawyer's business that a contentious habit of mind may be supposed to be produced by the study of jurisprudence, while in medicine—the object being simply the application of the results of science to the cure of disease, and science being a sort of common fund on which all physicians are supposed to draw—the laity cannot but be surprised when they find that while in diagnosis a surprising amount of professional harmony is apt to be found, in treatment the difference of opinion seems often to be in direct proportion to the number of physicians employed. With regard to divinity, there being in this no common basis of agreement whatever, the comparison is still more unfair. The following passage, considered as a showing up of the errors of lawyers and theologians, must be regarded as an extravagant piece of absurdity, rather than as throwing any light upon the ratio which disagreement among physicians bears to disagreement in other liberal professions:

"Now compare these statistics with those of the legal profession. As every case that requires judicial decision has disagreeing advocates on each side, and as one side or the other must lose, it follows mathematically, that the lawyers lose fifty per cent. of their cases—a sad showing for those who should dwell together in unity; for we are told that law is the perfection of reason, and yet we see that one-half of the reasoners inevitably fail. We have no reliable returns as to the other profession. We may form, however, some idea of the calculation it would take to make up an average when we consider that the column of figures would include those of the Universalist with his one hundred per cent., or all, saved, down to the all save less than ten righteous, consigned by the Calvinist to the Hades of the New Version."

—The State Historical Society of Wisconsin, at Madison, has just published the fifth volume of its library catalogue. This addition is a work of 585 pages, and the pages of the four previous instalments were 2,491. The whole number of titles, with cross-references, of books and pamphlets exceeds 94,000. In the centennial report on public libraries in the United States, issued at Washington in 1876 by the Bureau of Education, sixty-eight historical societies are described. At that time the bound volumes in the Wisconsin library numbered 33,347. Only two of the historical societies then possessed more books, namely, the Worcester Antiquarian Society, which had 60,497, and the New York Historical Society, 60,000. Yet the Wisconsin accumulations were no doubt less valuable than the smaller numbers which had been more judiciously selected in certain other Eastern cities, especially in Boston, Hartford, and Philadelphia. In the matter of Northwestern subjects the library has been made, so far as possible, exhaustive, but it also embraces a wide miscellaneous range. Its set of British patent reports (3,403 vols.) is believed to be the only copy (since the Chicago fire) in the Northwest. Its transactions of the British Royal Society (154 vols.) is a series that has few rivals in America. Dutch books ought to be plenty in New York, but Knickerbockers have more than once detected in the Wisconsin Holland alcove treasures of their vernacular which they had vainly sought at home. A work just published by Mr. Lyman C. Draper, the Society's perpetual secretary, entitled 'King's Mountain and its Heroes,' is full of details which will be all the more welcome to Carolinians because the authorities for them cannot be discovered in either Carolina. While rich in books, and not without manuscripts concerning local history as well as possessing portraits of more than a hundred State pioneers, the Wisconsin association claims preëminence in the line of prehistoric copper. Aside from half a dozen rude tools in Buda-Pesth, almost the only specimens known in Europe are thirty celts in the Royal Irish Academy at Dublin. These are all of one single type —a sort of hatchet with no helve-hole—and all are small. But in the Wisconsin Museum there are one hundred and ninety-one implements, some weighing five pounds apiece, and the varieties are no less than fifteen. Moreover, all these relics were brought to light within the limits of the State. The Wisconsin historical gatherings and gleanings, contributed by well-nigh six score of authors, already fill eight printed octavos. The papers thus produced, as well as the five volumes of catalogues, have drawn many exchanges and contributions to the library from far and near. The library, daily open to all comers, occupies one wing of the State capitol, which stands in the business centre of the city. Three halls, sixty feet in length, are each girdled by a gallery which doubles the shelf-room, but every corner is crammed and crowded. The building passes for fire-proof, but so many edifices so reputed have been found wanting when tried by the fire-test, that it is believed that the Legislature at the approaching session will vote money enough to erect a structure which, while adequate for a long prospective growth, will approximate in its safeguards against conflagration the British Record Office in Fetter Lane.

—A few weeks since, in giving an account of certain German periodicals belonging to the department of belles-lettres, we were obliged, for want of space, merely to mention the greater part, and did not profess to give a complete bibliography even within the limits to which we confined ourselves. Even if our list had been complete when published, it would not be so now, for German literary journals are born overnight, so to say, and many of them are dead before the world is aware of their existence. Since the publication of the note mentioned have appeared the first numbers of two monthlies—*Vom Fels zum Meer*, already described in these columns, and *Auf der Höhe*, edited by the more renowned than respected Sacher-Masoch. This journal "is to be a neutral ground, on which the interests considered are to be those of humanity at large, and where the great minds of all nations and opinions shall contend with each other openly, honorably, and in a dignified manner." After this high-toned generality, the editor becomes more specific in describing the aim of his magazine, which, it seems, is "to avoid the malicious spirit by means of which the clique of Berlin mediocrities [*Auf der Höhe* is to appear in Leipzig] have sought to conceal their own incapacity." The editor, moreover, is not only free from that selfish narrow-mindedness which causes other German authors to discourage rising talent because of the possibility of future rivalry, but he may also pretend to be an inspired critic, for he has discovered, in his writer of fiction, a genius of the highest rank, which, it is needless to say, the above-mentioned Berlin clique were quite unable to appreciate. Miss Arand is the name of this new light, and the editor gives a pathetic account of how, "ignorant of the cliques and intrigues which rule the German literary market, of the sway of the mediocrities who discourage all genuine talent," she was reduced to despair when, fortunately for the world, she heard of *Auf der Höhe*. It is but fair to say, however, that the prospectus announces a good list of articles by very respectable writers.

—A correspondent calls our attention to the fact that our list did not include that venerable periodical *Das Magazin für die Literatur des In- und Auslandes*, from which in past years we have often quoted, and of which we have held a high opinion. A year or two ago it changed editor and publisher, since which time it has seemed to us to have steadily deteriorated, being much more scrappy and miscellaneous than formerly, and deprived of the admirable correspondence from Paris, London, St. Petersburg,

etc., which, with the careful studies of Heinrich Homberger, the then editor, made it perhaps the most uniformly readable critical journal in existence. It has lately become the organ of the "Allgemeiner Deutscher Schriftstellerverband"—a questionable honor, since hitherto only journals of small circulation and doubtful future have cared to give so much space to dry reports; the *Litterarische Correspondenz*, a by no means ill-conducted paper, and the *Magazin's* immediate predecessor, sank beneath the burden. But our reason for not mentioning the *Magazin* before was simply that it did not come within the field we proposed to discuss—a fate which it shared with many well-known and admirably conducted journals, such as the *Litterarisches Centralblatt*, the *Historische Zeitschrift*, *Aus allen Welttheilen*, and others.

—We have more than once referred to the work of A. Barth on the 'Religions of India' as one of the highest order of merit in its particular field. It is the product of original studies by a scholar of eminence, who is especially versed in the study of religions. It appeared, two years ago, as an article in the 'Encyclopédie des Sciences Religieuses,' published at Paris. It is now reproduced, in a somewhat extended form, as one of the volumes of Trübner's Oriental Series; and it is to be most heartily commended to general notice, as at the same time truly learned and in the best sense popular. Its divisions are: the Vedic religions; Brahmanism; Buddhism; Jainism; and Hinduism, or the modern forms of Indian faith—to the beginnings of which, however, Barth is inclined to attribute an antiquity decidedly greater than has hitherto been allowed. The detailed notes give abundant reference to the sources of knowledge, and to the works of original investigators. Another volume of the same series, issued along with this, is called a 'Manual of Hindu Pantheism,' being an annotated translation of a Vedânta treatise, by Major Jacob. It addresses itself, of course, to a much more limited public.

— The *Revue Politique*, having expressed its opinion on the value of German *Gemüthlichkeit*, is delighted to find in the *Rundschau* a confirmatory example. Martin Miller, the author of the most sentimental novel of the most sentimental school of novelists—the German in the last century—fell in love with Lotte, as gay a girl as he was lachrymose a lover. But she was good-hearted and submissive, it appears, for at his instance she abandoned her gayety and became as tearful as himself. They read Klopstock and wept together; they looked at the moon and wept; their very kisses were drowned in tears. They parted in floods of grief. But, alas, he did not return. On his travels he found a still more tearful maiden, and married her, and when she died nearly thirty years later, within three months he married his cook, about whose lachrymation nothing is said. As for Lotte, no doubt she recovered her gayety when she lost her sobbing suitor. At any rate she had other lovers, and after some years of married life we find her exchanging friendly letters—no longer tearful—with the faithless Miller. Many tears and little troth, thinks the Frenchman. Moral, as before: How much better we do these things in France.

—The Reports of the Norwegian North Atlantic Expedition have been already alluded to in these columns. The latest is the report on the *Gephyrea*, or Sipunculoid worms, by the veteran Doctors Koren and Danielssen. Only sixteen species were obtained, yet of these seven were new, and represented two new families and four new genera. In *Hamingia* the curious arborescent organs, sometimes known as "respiratory trees," were determined to have a secretive (probably renal) function, as previously suspected, but also warmly contested by some observers. A curious feature is the total absence of nodes or ganglions in the nervous system. In *Epithetosoma* the perivisceral cavity was found to communicate with the exterior by two fissured openings which admit sea water. This is a feature hitherto unknown in the entire group of *Gephyrea*. The text, as before, is in parallel columns of Norwegian and English, and consists of about fifty pages, with six exquisitely drawn plates and a map of the region explored.

—We are informed by cable telegram that Minister Morton has had an interview with M. Gambetta on the subject of pork. This is a good subject for the intervention of diplomacy, and we shall be glad to learn what comes of it. Some months ago the French Government prohibited the importation of American pork, for the alleged reason that it was dangerous to health. The real reason was the same as that which induces us to put prohibitory duties on a great many articles of foreign growth and manufacture—viz., "protection of native industry." The *Journal des Économistes* promptly avowed this to be the true reason, and there can be no doubt of it. Protection to native industry is an art in which the French have been skilled ever since the time of Colbert, whom our protectionists are in the habit of extolling as a great statesman and financier. If not the founder, he was at least the prophet and forerunner, of the "American system." His precepts have had a revival lately, and one of its effects has been the prohibition of American pork. Now, if Gambetta is as shrewd and witty a statesman as our Mr. Morton, he will agree to suspend the prohibition, and to establish in place of it the same duty on the *habillé-de-soie américain* (American pig) that we impose upon French silks. This would answer all the purposes of the Gallic pork-butchers, and would at the same time give our farmers something to cogitate upon.

—Rubinstein's "Tower of Babel" and the Sanctus from Berlioz's Requiem were sung by the Oratorio Society on Saturday night at Steinway Hall. Both compositions had been previously heard at the May festival, and that they had given satisfaction was evinced by the immense audiences they attracted this time both at the rehearsal and at the concert. The rehearsal had been so unsatisfactory that there were reasons for doubting the success of the concert; but these doubts were soon dispelled by the admirable manner in which the Sanctus was rendered both by the chorus and the orchestra. There is nothing particularly original in this Sanctus, and yet the total effect is good; its charm being chiefly due to the elementary beauty of simple tone combinations, as in the vocal compositions of the old Italian masters. The "Tower of Babel" may be described as a youthful error of Rubinstein's, although it is in the execution one of the most charming errors ever committed. The plan of creating a special type of music under the name of sacred opera, as a sort of hybrid between oratorio and opera, is, like most hybrids, sterile; and the fact that Rubinstein in "The Maccabees" and subsequent works adopted the form of opera pure and simple shows that he too felt the truth of this view, although he may not have admitted it in words. It might be supposed that the pictorial background of such a work as the "Tower of Babel" was too complicated and impracticable to be realized in the form of stage scenery. But when we read of the wonderful scenic effects that are being prepared for "Parsifal"—such as a floor of marble, which is to reflect like a mirror, and a garden of fairy flowers which in a few minutes spring up, fade and die—or of the Rhine daughters swimming about under the surface of the Rhine in "Rheingold," even the realization of a Tower of Babel seems to offer no insuperable difficulties; and there is no reason why the experiment should not be tried here in New York. However, Rubinstein's music is so beautiful that his "Tower of Babel" is quite able to hold its ground even if the falling tower, the rainbows, the lightning, etc., have to be supplied by the imagination of the hearer. The first half of the work is far less interesting than the second. The gem of the whole is doubtless the chorus of the descendants of Shem, an exquisite specimen of local color, which lies in its quaint and unusual melodic intervals, and strongly reminds one of the wonderful charm of the choruses in Rubinstein's grandest stage work, "The Maccabees." Hardly inferior in beauty are the following choruses of the descendants of Ham and Japhet, and we should like to suggest that if at the remaining concerts of the Society it should be impracticable to repeat the whole of the "Tower of Babel," these three choruses at least might be again put on the programme. That the chorus and orchestra would be willing to repeat them was shown by the spirited and finished manner in which they were rendered. Several passages in this work no less than in his later operas prove Rubinstein to be the most dramatic of all Semitic composers. And yet, what is considered the most dramatic effect in the "Tower of Babel"—the destruction of the tower—impressive as it is, could have been made much more so if in the intervals between the tremendous crashes of the "obbligato drums" the chorus and orchestra kept up a sustained fortissimo instead of repeating a series of broken or interrupted chords. The soloists were Herr Remmertz and Signor Campanini, and they were both satisfactory. Herr Remmertz was particularly applauded after a fine rendering of "A tower whose lofty height," and Signor Campanini after "The dark and stormy clouds." We fail to understand why Campanini should have felt called upon to sing his part in Italian. He has surely been in this country long enough to have learned to pronounce our language. If he looked at the text, he must have seen that it differs from that of Italian operas in being sensible and poetic, and that it should therefore be sung in a language understood by the audience. Dr. Damrosch had his forces under good control, and the only criticism we have to make relates to the chorus of boys, which was not always in perfect tune, and evidently needs some sifting. Nor does it seem to be in accordance with concert etiquette that some of these boys should get up before the end and put on their overcoats.

DRAPER'S KING'S MOUNTAIN.

King's Mountain and its Heroes. By Lyman C. Draper, LL.D., Secretary of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin. With steel portraits, maps, and plans. Cincinnati: Peter G. Thompson. 1881. Large 8vo, pp. 612.

IN this long but valuable monograph, the battle of King's Mountain, which was fought just south of the boundary line between the Carolinas, October 7, 1780, is shown to be an important landmark in the history of the war for American independence. From that nearly equal border fight of about an hour's duration, between a picked force of nine hundred loyal backwoodsmen, under militia colonels like Shelby and Sevier, and a detachment from the regular army of Cornwallis, together with a strong force of upland Tories, under the command of Ferguson, sprang the first real current of American success in the Southern campaign. From this historic battle-ridge we can look back toward the sur-

render of Lincoln at Charleston, the rout of Gates at Camden, and numerous minor reverses in the Carolinas; before us can be seen the American victory at Cowpens, won by a bayonet charge of the Maryland line, under John Eager Howard; the repulse of Cornwallis from Virginia by Massachusetts regiments under Lafayette, and the final capture of the British army at Yorktown by Washington and his allies.

As the Yorktown centenary quickened the historical spirit of the whole country and laid the foundations for a national monument, so the centenary of the battle of King's Mountain, worthily celebrated last year by the unveiling of a completed shaft of granite, prompted Mr. Draper "to set about the preparation of his long-promised work." The author, who is well known to all American antiquaries for his labors in upbuilding the Historical Society of Wisconsin (now one of the best in the country), began more than forty years ago to collect materials for a history of this and of other battles in the South and West, proposing to make a special study of the border warfare of this country. He has in contemplation a series of works, "embracing in their sweep the whole frontier, from New York and Canada to the Gulf of Mexico." He proposes to treat in special monographs such themes as Sumter and his men, Pickens and the battle of Cowpens, the life and campaigns of General George Rogers Clark, Boone and the pioneers of Kentucky, Kenton and his adventures, Brady and his scouts, Mecklenburg and its actors, Tecumseh the Shawanoe leader, Brant the Mohawk chief, border forays and adventures—in other words, to compose some ten volumes, "of which this [of 612 pages] is the commencement." We are very kindly disposed toward Mr. Draper, but 6,000 pages of reading matter upon any subject, however interesting, is rather a formidable prospect. The tendency of historical science nowadays is toward economy of expression. Leopold von Ranke, the most eminent of living historians, has this year edited a 'History of the World,' from ancient Egypt down to the decline of Greece, in one volume smaller in size than 'King's Mountain and its Heroes.' Another German specialist, Max Duncker, has lately rewritten the 'History of Marathon' in less than twenty-five pages (Sybel's *Historische Zeitschrift*, 1881, *fuenftes Heft*). To be sure, the materials relating to King's Mountain, a few of which are reprinted in Mr. Draper's appendix of 128 pages, are far more extensive than the few classic authorities upon Marathon and Thermopylæ.

The distinguishing merits of Mr. Draper's history are his comprehensive survey of the events in the Southern campaign leading up to the victory of King's Mountain, his thorough mastery of details, his personal knowledge of Southern topography, his intimate acquaintance with local incidents of border warfare, his lifelike pictures of the character of the mountaineers, who, armed with rifles and well mounted, gathered in clans from the neighboring counties, under militia colonels of local celebrity, and cut off Ferguson's retreat from North Carolina, where he had attempted to effect an uprising of Tories. The biography of some of these "colonels," given with minutest particularity, will not only be interesting to their numerous descendants in the South and West, but will prove valuable to the American sociologist, interested in the survival of "types." Mr. Draper's work throws much light upon the militia system of the South during the Revolution. It is safe to say that the success of that popular uprising will never be fully understood until a thorough study has been made, in all the old seaboard States, of the outcroppings of old English militia institutions—as conspicuous in sparsely settled Southern counties as in the densely settled towns of New England.

One of the most striking facts in the Southern campaign against Cornwallis is the close similarity between the modes of popular uprising and defensive warfare in that region and in New England, where the Revolution broke out Everywhere, whether at the North or at the South, we find local agitators, in the persons of select townsmen, colonels, justices of the peace, and others. James Otis and Samuel Adams, addressing a Boston town meeting, have a Southern counterpart in Patrick Henry, addressing a throng of people in St. John's parish church at Richmond. Virginia and the Carolinas had their Paul Reveres speeding from shire to shire and spreading tidings of the enemies' march. The spirit of the old Teutonic *Heerbann* was a portion of the inheritance of all English colonies in America. This spirit early pervaded the new world, and it now fills the old. We see it to-day in the idea of the German *Landsturm*, and we saw it revived twenty years ago in this country in a general uprising of the Northern and Southern clans, who fought as fiercely with one another as did ever Saxon tribes or the Scotch and the English. The select body of clansmen under Colonel Campbell who won the battle of King's Mountain were for the most part Scotch-Irish Presbyterians. Mr. Draper thus admirably describes their characteristics:

"Those from the Holston, under Campbell, were a peculiar people, somewhat of the character of Cromwell's soldiery. They were, almost to a man, Presbyterians. In their homes, in the Holston Valley, they were settled in pretty compact congregations; quite tenacious of their religious and civil liberties, as handed down from father to son from their Scotch-Irish ancestors. Their preacher, Rev. Charles Cummins, was well fitted for the times; a man of piety and sterling patriotism, who constantly exerted himself to encourage his people to make every needed exertion in defence of the liberties of their country. They were a remarkable body of men, both physically and mentally. Inured to frontier life, raised mostly in Augusta and Rockbridge counties, Virginia—a frontier region in the French and Indian war—they early settled on the Holston [beyond the Alleghanies], and were accustomed from their childhood to border life and hardships; ever ready at the tap of the drum to turn out on military service; if in the busiest crop season, their wives, sisters, and daughters could, in their absence, plant and sow and harvest. They were better educated than most of the frontier settlers, and had a more thorough understanding of the questions at issue between the colonies and their mother country. . . . They trusted in God and kept their powder dry." (Pp. 242-3.)

Not alone in self-reliant piety, but also in stern regard for justice and for the forms of law, were these Presbyterian soldiers of the South akin to the Puritans and Independents of England and New England. After the surrender of the Royalists at King's Mountain, the leading Tories, for their murders, and house-burnings, and shameless atrocities, were condemned to be hung. This sentence, like that passed upon Charles I., was thought to be according to forms of English law. Mr. Draper shows that this was not the act of "private soldiers," as Bancroft has said, but of a court-martial, composed entirely of officers. Undoubtedly they proceeded according to their best knowledge of martial law, which had its historic origin in the exigencies of camps and campaigns. The observance of English modes of legal procedure was as much an instinct with those militia colonels of Virginia and the Carolinas as it was with the Pilgrim Fathers when, without legal authority, they hung Billington for murder, or with the Massachusetts courts which condemned Salem witches according to laws inherited from England.

RECENT NOVELS.

Aunt Serena. By Blanche Willis Howard. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

Eleanor Maitland. By Clara Erskine Clement. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

Rosemary and Rue. [Round Robin Series.] Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

The Mysteries of Heron Dyke. [Franklin Square Library.] New York: Harper & Bros.

The Private Secretary. [Franklin Square Library.] New York: Harper & Bros.

Family Fortunes. By Edward Garrett. London and New York: T. Nelson & Sons.

Queen Titania. By Hjalmar H. Boyesen. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

'AUNT SERENA,' like its predecessor, 'One Summer,' is a story of very unequal merit. In Aunt Serena herself we have a picture of a very sweet woman. The author has drawn her very distinctly: "her gracious ways; her loving kindness; . . . her most enchanting fairy-godmother surprises; . . . her old-fashioned grace; her frail helpful hands; her smile." "St. Serena," says her niece Rose Wellesley, "never thought anything about herself at all. She had no time to stand in a niche. She would have been too busy to stay there. She wore rather rich and costly garments, and old lace and very becoming caps. . . . She needed no hair-shirt or other penance for her soul's grace, because she had brought up from early infancy Rosamond Wellesley; and that was deemed discipline enough for one earthly pilgrimage." She takes her beautiful niece to Europe. There in a little German town Rose meets the hero, a man of talent, handsome and rich. It is a very natural, straightforward love-story to its climax while listening to the opera "Lohengrin." That scene is well done in something of Miss Thackeray's manner. It would have been far better if that had been the end, for what comes after is as unnatural as it is unpleasant. A lady whom Sydney Bruce had once known, if not loved, presents herself, upon her own invitation, at Aunt Serena's party for Rose's birthday. She is a figure now familiar to commonplace, the Circe of the Cleopatra pattern. The author endows her with every charm of person and manner, especially of the latter, and yet on the next page she does that for which "repulsive" is only the mildest word that can be used. One would be glad to leave her in oblivion, but a protest is needed against the false colors with which such characters, of late more than ever, have been painted. The coarse, scheming nature will betray itself; it cannot put on the garb of purity and truth. Speaking generally of the book, the fine New England types in it did not need as a foil the narrow walls of a German *pension*, with its petty, gossiping life, and occupants not only mean but, what in a novel is worse, stupid.

'Eleanor Maitland' is an amiable dissertation on comparative manners, and none the less a dissertation in that it is parcelled out among a half-dozen interlocutors. The heroine is rich: we have her fortune in round numbers. She is handsome; who would not be, in "a dress of pale blue satin—that tint which is only comparable to the concentrated moonlight of last month shimmering and glimmering under the full rays of the present moon"? She is intellectual: "Her studies had been confined to languages and general literature, this last having been taken up systematically, by periods, and under capable masters." To natural science now, at the height of the Washington season, "she methodically gave her time from ten to twelve each day, three mornings of the week being passed with the professor, a learned man of the Smithsonian Institution." The hero is a German of high birth as well as

official rank. His mother's pride of position is the obstacle which love finally surmounts. Von Zelle resigns his birthright to his younger brother, thus leaving himself free to marry Eleanor. We are at loss to see why the author should forego such a crowning proof of the superiority of American feminine manners and character as might have been offered, had she made the old Countess yield to the charms of Eleanor herself, rather than to the sacrifice of her persistent son. Whether it be from the ponderous wealth of the Americans, or from the burden of the ancestral dignities of the Germans, the book is very heavy. In 'Aunt Serena' the declaration is made in two broken words and answered in one eloquent glance. Von Zelle takes twenty lines (fine print, too) to tell his love. There are some passing sketches of fashionable life in Washington and Boston as well as Berlin. How true they are, might be better judged if one knew from which the author had drawn this curious inference: "How few men have any good degree of acquaintance with a woman who do not put a hand upon her arm or shoulder in a thoughtless if not a familiar manner." It is a minor matter, but it seems not a mistake of the types that the first line of Luther's hymn is differently misquoted in each of these books. It should be:

"Ein' feste Burg ist unser Gott."

'Rosemary and Rue' is another "international" story, though the scene is laid a hundred years ago. It is rather a series of prettily sketched episodes than a connected narrative. It begins with the escape of the Quaker Selah Greene and his daughter Rosemary from a mob in New Bedford, and ends with her death by the guillotine to save her mother-in-law, the old Countess d'Osy. Rue is a young French Jewess of one of the families that settled in Newport in colonial days. Both the young maidens are charming figures, spite of such inconsistencies as setting a Quakeress of that day to paint the Cupids of Boucher for the *grandes dames* of Paris, or Rue's quoting, in the midst of her broken English, the phrases of our version of the Hebrew Bible. Her English, by the way, like the English of the German "Von Zelle," is not genuine, nor even a successful imitation. To write absurd English is not to make good "broken English," for there is a law in the very oddity and drollery of the latter. It consists either in the misuse of words which have been caught up and remembered, or else in the exact transfer of the foreign idiom. "Faire mourir votre fils" would never suggest "I died your son." This transfer of idiom is especially noticeable in the case of German, where the order of the words is subjected to a law so inflexible and so different from our own.

To commend 'The Mysteries of Heron Dyke' would be to commend a book highly sensational; but it has nothing worse than murder in it. A periodic ghost, pocket-picking, burglary, an attempt at abduction (the least probable incident in the book), and murder, all in one story, ought to satisfy the most ravenous appetite. The special villain of the piece is a novelty, a gentleman of fashion who not only bets and gambles, but steals his friends' sleeve-buttons as well as their watches and purses, and robs the doctor of his snuff-box and his hostess of her jewels; but it may be open to doubt whether it is the office of the novelist to discover or invent new varieties of thieves and burglars.

There is a whole class of books which a critic would prefer to ignore, or at most to mark "Dangerous passing"; but sometimes a book wears such a fair semblance of right that without an explicit warning it might easily mislead. Such is 'The Private Secretary.' A young lady, to support her father and brother, both ne'er-do-weels, accepts a situation as private secretary to Mr. Clifford, a gentleman of quiet, studious habits, devoting his time and the large surplus of his income to modest, well-considered philanthropy. Miss Reid is indeed a lady, brought up not by her father, but by a careful aunt and uncle, so that she is exceptionally well educated. She is high-minded, clear-eyed, and solely and generously devoted to her home. Both parties soon perceive the anomalous position in which they have placed themselves, but for the first third of the book the reader admires the tact with which Miss Reid sustains herself, for the sake of the indispensable salary, and the delicate consideration with which Clifford observes the proprieties of the situation. Of course they fall in love, and it can be conceived that a plot might still have been imagined which should not destroy honor and purity. But the book goes over to evil completely. Because of an inconvenient will, Clifford cannot marry without loss of fortune—not entire loss if he does not marry before the cousin to whom he is betrothed by a family compact. He allows Miss Reid to believe that he must lose all if he marries, persuades her to the sacrifice of herself for his sake and her younger brother's—to be his "by every real bond save the formal one." She consents, and they fly to the Continent. Repentance comes shortly, and he marries her, though not till he discovers that his cousin has made a runaway match. In what is called "an hour of retribution," his wife discovers his deception, but, for all that appears, forgives him totally. Something is said of his regret in after-life, but the book has no condemnation for his baseness. Nor is there by him or by Hilda Reid any recognition of duty, of obligation not to commit the sin against their own souls. The fact is, however, that the whole conclusion is an impossibility. No such conclusion could follow such a beginning. The same radical inconsistency of plot has appeared more than once of late. The man and woman of the first half of the book could never have thought the thoughts and done the deeds of the second half. Character must go for something, and to suppose that years of steady self-control, of continual doing good, leave man or woman at the mercy of a momentary temptation, or of a deliberate sophistry, is to mock at all the motives that can make life noble.

There is a delightful portrait of an old servant woman in 'Family Fortunes'—the one steady figure in a somewhat wandering chronicle about various young people. "Our lass has done more than maist folk's lads," said the dying mother of Barbara Craig, and Barby served the Farquhars with true Scotch faithfulness and shrewdness. She has her word for the master who is over-anxious for his young daughter Margery. "Ye think unco weel o' the warld, sir, gin ye think it's the gude lasses it rins after; and unco ill o' the warld, gin ye think it's such a dreidfu' place for an auld maid to bide in!" Yet she had had her experience. "It's ower muckle the way o' the warld to gar a woman do a' or naething. It's seldom she gets a fair start like the loons. If a lass doesna choose to be a gentle beggar, she has to be a giant Goliath o' sense an' courage. And that isn't in a' o' us, no more than in a' the men!" Her homely sayings are worth remembering. "There's ane way, and but ane, to keep ither folk's 'musts' frae hurting us, and that's to say bigger 'musts' to oor ainsel's." "Dinna open the door to Change till it's chappin'. It's better to wish yoursel' awa' whiles than aye to wish yoursel' back again."

'Queen Titania,' and the companion story, 'A Dangerous Virtue,' are improbable enough, but they have a certain kind of inward force which perhaps proves them true as special incidents, however doubtful they may seem when judged by general laws.

The Ancient Bronze Implements, Weapons, and Ornaments of Great Britain and Ireland. By John Evans, D. C.L., F. R. S., etc., etc. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881.

In this volume Mr. Evans has followed up his work upon the 'Stone Implements of Great Britain,' and though the period of which he now treats is lacking in some of the elements of interest that characterized the preceding age, yet he has not failed to make the most of the material at his command. We can trace with him the whole development of the ancient bronze industry of Great Britain, from the time of its introduction into England—when the flat celt and the thin knife or dagger are found in the same barrow with typical neolithic implements—through an intermediate or transition stage, down to the period when the socketed celt and the leaf-shaped sword, associated with other tools and weapons of bronze, as well as with ornaments made of this and other materials, indicate not only an improvement in the character of these implements, but also an advance in the method of manufacturing them, and a decidedly higher stage of artistic culture. Of the thoroughness with which all this is done too much cannot be said. It was a task for which Mr. Evans was well fitted, and he has given us a work which, in wealth of material, clearness of arrangement, and in the liberality with which it is illustrated, is at once a text-book for the special student, and a model for future investigators.

But while we cheerfully award this meed of praise, we may well doubt whether our author is here seen at his best. The subject itself did not admit of the close inductive treatment that lent a charm to his discussion of the antiquity of the implements found in the river drift; and the fact that the investigation was confined to articles made of bronze did not leave him free to deal with contemporary arts and industries in such a manner as to present a full and accurate picture of the material development of the time. Of course it was perfectly competent for him thus to limit the field of his inquiry, and no fault can be found with him for doing so, even though it leaves us, for the time being, without the data necessary to a correct estimate of the civilization of the period of which he treats. Fortunately, however, this omission, if such it can be called, is to be but temporary, as we are given to understand that Mr. Evans will shortly return to the subject, and "depict some of the principal features of the external conditions of the bronze-using population" of the British Islands. Meanwhile we may congratulate ourselves upon the possession of an exhaustive account of the bronze implements of that country, and while awaiting his promised volume we can, in the pages before us, study the mode of life and the manners and customs of the Britons of that early day, so far as they are revealed to us by a knowledge of the different uses to which bronze was applied.

In this portion of his work, as well as in the chapters devoted to the origin and spread of the industry, Mr. Evans will be followed with unabated interest. The story of human progress never loses its charm, and in the account here given of the substitution of bronze for stone in the manufacture of implements and weapons we have the record of one of the most important steps ever made in the march of improvement. Exactly when and where this change took place, and how it was brought about, are questions that cannot be easily answered. So far as known, all the indications point to some one locality in Asia as the place where bronze was discovered, and from which, as a centre, its use was propa-

gated throughout Europe. The pathway along which it travelled into Gaul and Britain is tolerably well defined, and this fact, taken in connection with the similarity in the forms and identity in the component parts of all the earlier bronze implements found there, precludes the idea of separate centres of discovery. Of the circumstances of this discovery we know nothing. Mr. Evans is of the opinion that, in some parts of the world, it must have been preceded by a time when the use of copper was more or less common, and this is very probable. As yet, however, no positive proof of the fact has been found, either in Asia or Europe, though in certain districts of North America we are told that a copper age formerly existed. That the Indians of Wisconsin were ignorant of bronze, and that a few—probably less than one per cent.—of their tools and weapons were made of copper, simply hammered into shape, is unquestionably true; but to call this a copper age, using the words in their ordinary signification, is simply an abuse of terms. Even if it were not, and the use of that metal were greater than it seems to have been, it would no more justify an inference as to the sequence in the phases of civilization elsewhere, than the fact that, among these same Indians, implements of hematite and other iron ores were relatively more common than those of copper, would authorize the conclusion that there was a time previous to the introduction of bronze into Europe when an age of iron ores coexisted there with one of copper. The argument proves too much, and though, strictly speaking, it does not militate against the abstract theory of the existence of a time when pure copper was in more or less general use in some other region, it does not afford any grounds for sustaining it.

With the effort to assign a definite chronology to this period we have but little sympathy. The temptation to indulge in speculation of this kind is very great, but the unknown factors that enter into the calculation are of such a character as to make it but little better than guesswork. Probably all that can be definitely said upon the subject is that it was not synchronous throughout Europe, and that while, in Scandinavia, it lasted down to the Christian era, it probably ceased in Great Britain and France some centuries earlier. Back of this all is doubt and uncertainty, and hence the reserve with which Mr. Evans undertakes to fix a date for the beginning of this phase of civilization in England, and the cautiousness with which he ventures the opinion that, while it cannot have been later than from 1200 to 1400 years B. C., it may have been much earlier.

In the preface Mr. Evans, in a few well-chosen words, returns thanks to different persons for assistance given him in the preparation of the volume, and, among others, he particularly mentions his sister, Mrs. Hubbard, to whom he was indebted for the compilation of the index. This was a task that involved no little labor, and Mrs. Hubbard is entitled to the thanks of all working archæologists for the careful and conscientious manner in which she performed the work.

The Theory of Preaching. Lectures on Homiletics. By Austin Phelps, D.D., late Bartlett Professor of Sacred Rhetoric in Andover Theological Seminary. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1881.

RETAINING the forms of oral delivery throughout this volume, Prof. Phelps offers it to those who are still living of more than twelve hundred students who, in the course of thirty-one years, have been under his instruction, as a tolerably exact transcript of his lecture-room work. He gratefully records the fact that not one of the twelve hundred ever gave him occasion for rebuke or admonition. Some grave suspicion of the quality of students so uniformly blameless would certainly be started in the unregenerate mind were it not that Prof. Phelps appears to great advantage in his book. It is easy to believe that his students found his lectures an agreeable diversion from the more solid work of natural theology and Christian evidences and hermeneutics. They are certainly agreeable in their present shape. They are exceedingly formal in their presentation, and the chapter-headings are calculated to deter all but the most resolute from trespassing upon the author's field. But they are needlessly forbidding. Venturing upon the first chapter, we were carried on from that to another and another until, arriving at the end, we found ourselves regretting that there were no more.

Prof. Phelps's definition of a sermon will seem to many of his readers, if his book is widely read, to be arbitrary and exclusive. It is as follows: an elaborated oral address upon religious truth contained in the Scriptures, intended for popular effect. Underlying this definition and his whole system of homiletics is the assumption that the Bible is a volume supernaturally inspired. He does not, however, hold to this in any literal sense. That "ounce of mother-wit" which some one has declared to be "worth a pound of clergy" is his preservative against the falsehood of extremes. A great many discourses preached on Sunday are not sermons according to the Professor's standard. Every sermon presupposes the divine authority of the Holy Scriptures. It must be the exposition of a Scriptural doctrine. Every sermon must have a text, but a text doesn't make a sermon. When Theodore Parker preached upon "The Future of the Democratic Party," his discourse, says the Professor, was no sermon, even if it had a text. But when he says there could have been nothing in that discourse to serve a religious purpose, a question may arise as to the meaning of the word "religious."

In contending that a sermon implies elaborate treatment, Prof. Phelps has some excellent remarks upon "spontaneous preaching." Here and elsewhere he makes it plain that his valuation of the *donum lachrymarum* is extremely modest. Tears are "sometimes nothing but a nervous luxury. . . . In a public speaker tears are an infirmity to be got rid, never a gift to be vain, of." His advice to weeping clergymen is excellent: "Use tonics; study mathematics; take the fresh air; take to the saddle." He has little doubt that it was some weeping preacher of the "Clapham Set," to which Zachary Macaulay belonged, that spoiled T. B. Macaulay's Christian faith.

A sermon is made up of Text, Explanation, Introduction, Proposition, Division, Development, Conclusion. The terms of this analysis are elaborately treated in a succession of chapters. Five are given to the Text, as many to the Explanation, and the other terms are treated with about equal fulness. Reading the five chapters on "The Text," we have found ourselves wondering how much these marvellous refinements have affected the twelve hundred young men who heard them in their choice of texts. Here are some of the points of contention: May a text be an interpolation or mistranslation? May it be an uninspired sentiment? Must it be a grammatical sentence? There are various others like these. Prof. Phelps decides against mistranslations and interpolations, but adds: "We must concede that it is a misfortune that Christian scholarship has lost from the Bible the only literal declaration of the triune existence of the Godhead." In defending the use of uninspired sentiments occurring in the Bible, special mention is made of the celebrated text, "Almost thou persuadest me to be a Christian." There are several references to this text, but, strangely enough, never a hint of its radical mistranslation, though it is no new discovery of the Revised Version which renders it, "With little persuasion thou would'st fain make me a Christian." Prof. Phelps's discussion of "The Text" is enlivened by many humorous illustrations, the number of which might be indefinitely increased.

An interesting fact brought out in the discussion of "The Explanation of the Text" is the strong aversion in the early New England churches to the public reading of the Scriptures without any comment. This was thought to smack too much of liturgical observance. In one of the chapters on "The Introduction," a slip of the pen makes Samuel Adams instead of John the imaginary author of Daniel Webster's celebrated "Sink or swim." One of the happiest illustrations is with reference to excessive qualifications. It is the story of a sermon from the text, "Train up a child in the way he should go, and when he is old he will not depart from it," which the preacher ended with a fervent appeal to parents, exhorting them to strict obedience of the text, and then added: "After all, brethren, character depends much on the blood."

Prof. Phelps's ideal sermon is not so mechanical as might be inferred from his analysis of it. But it is probable that the value of these lectures for those who heard them consisted much more in what was informal and incidental than in the systematic exposition. There are certain passages in the thirty-third and thirty-fourth chapters, where the "causes that enervate the applicatory power of preaching" are under discussion, in which the Professor's trumpet gives no uncertain sound. In them he characterizes the theology which was New England orthodoxy one hundred years ago as "a theology that cannot be preached." "A working theology in the pulpit must possess three elements—freedom from self-contradiction, *consonance with the necessary intuitions of the human mind*, and harmony with the Scriptures as a whole." The words we have italicized would once have been regarded as decidedly latitudinarian, but the fashion of theology, as of this world in general, passeth away. The volume closes with a noble justification of a cultured ministry in reply to the call for something "cheap and nasty" to supply the popular demand.

Classiques Anglais. Shakespeare: Macbeth. Édition classique par James Darmesteter, Docteur ès lettres, Directeur-adjoint à l'École des Hautes-Études. Paris: Ch. Delagrave; New York: F. W. Christern. 1881.

THE well-known house of Ch. Delagrave, Paris, is publishing a series of English classics for use in schools, and sends us an edition of "Macbeth," which is a model book of its kind. An introduction treats of the English theatre before Shakspere; of Shakspere's life, his works, and the history of his genius. It also gives an analysis of "Macbeth," an account of its sources, a discussion of its date, its history as an acting-play, and the text. All these matters are discussed with the clearness, completeness, and good taste of the best French criticism, and with admirable brevity; they are brought within ninety-four pages of open long-primer. M. Darmesteter is the first representative in France of the historical school of Shakspere students. French literature has heretofore treated Shakspere's plays in the old way as works of pure inspiration—an

inspiration depicting different subjects, to be sure, but always the same inexplicable outpouring embodying nothing of the author. The man Shakspere has been treated as an amanuensis or a plain mirror—a mere colorless power of writing anything and everything. M. Darmesteter, on the contrary, makes it a main point to trace the development of his powers from the inexperienced and young-mannish work of "Titus Andronicus" and "Love's Labour's Lost" through all their marvellous history. He follows for the most part the work of Mr. Furnivall, Prof. Dowden, and other members of the "New Shakspere Society" of London.

The text of "Macbeth" is good, adhering somewhat more closely to the folio than the common English editions. Explanatory notes are given at the bottom of the pages, and are admirable in their brevity, clearness, and the selection of points to explain. Notes are also given to illustrate the influence of the play on subsequent literature, mostly passages from famous authors imitated from it. This kind of illustration is very interesting, and hardly less important in a text-book than the passages from prior and contemporary authors with which all good students' editions illustrate difficult passages. It is one of the striking peculiarities of the best philological teaching of literature to connect the classic that is read in class with later classics, so as to bring it home to the students, and it would be good for editors generally to follow M. Darmesteter's example. A large number of these imitative passages are from Byron. He talked about Pope's being a greater poet than Shakspere; but "Macbeth" certainly made a sufficient impression upon him. The influence of "Macbeth" is further treated in two appendices—one on "Macbeth" in France, the other on "Sleep no more." We learn that this play is the most popular in France of all the works of Shakspere. The translation of Lacroix was played a hundred nights in succession in 1863. Rachel sought to rival the glory of Mrs. Siddons. She invented a touch for the sleep-walking scene. "Oh! mais, j'ai une idée, moi," she said: "je lécherais ma main." M. Darmesteter thinks that the poet would have accepted this Dantesque trait, and that Rachel's use of it shows that one can understand both Racine and Shakspere. French literature abounds with types of character and current expressions drawn from "Macbeth." Hugo has imitated it in many passages. "Sleep no more" is repeated not only as an expression of remorse, but as the doom of an inspired poet.

The cheapness and neatness of the book are worth mention. We have good paper, print, and fair plain binding, with nothing for show, at half the price perhaps of an English or American book of the same literary grade. One fault, however, is to be found: the proof-reading of parts of the Introduction is wretched. Henry IV. will be printed for Henry VI., Richard II. for Richard III.; the figures of dates are wrong here and there; Shakspere's youngest daughter is called Edith; and the like. For this proof-reading M. Darmesteter, in his Preface, gives his special and cordial thanks to the "professeur d'anglais au lycée Saint-Louis."

Matabele Land and the Victoria Falls. A Naturalist's Wanderings in the Interior of South Africa. From the Letters and Journals of the late Frank Oates, F. R. G. S. Edited by C. G. Oates, B. A. London: C. Kegan Paul & Co. 1881. Pp. xliii.-383. Maps and illustrations. 8vo.

THE chief value of this book is in the appendix, which consists of papers by the late Prof. Rolleston, Prof. Westwood, and others on the collection of skulls, birds, insects, and plants, made by Mr. Frank Oates in South Africa. The remainder is an account of the travels of this gentleman, compiled from his letters and journals, together with a brief memoir by his brother. These posthumous publications, the outcome of a sincere affection, are rarely successful, and often do injustice to the person whose lives they commemorate. The editor is hampered by a natural unwillingness to change in any way the writings entrusted to him, and the result often is that the attention of the public is called to that which is of interest only to a small circle of friends. This, in our judgment, is the case with the present work. Mr. Frank Oates did nothing to deserve especial notice either as a traveller or a naturalist. Had he lived to write an account of his journey, containing accurate descriptions of the birds and insects of the Zambesi region, he might have made a distinct contribution to science. As it is, we have a dry record of a singularly uneventful two years' wanderings, through a country now even better known than parts of Poland or Hungary. His one exploit, which cost him his life, was a hasty visit to the Victoria Falls, a toilsome and difficult journey, but dangerous only to the health. Unfortunately, of this visit, which was interesting because made during the rainy season, when the river is at its height, we have only this brief notice by himself: "After breakfast I visited the Falls—a day never to be forgotten." A fever contracted on its banks proved fatal a month later. His book also suffers from the fact that it appears soon after those of Holub and Serpa Pinto, upon the same regions, and inevitably, though very unfairly to him, provokes comparison with those important works.

Frank Oates landed in Durban April 19, 1873 and started immediately for the Matabele country, with the intention of going directly to the Falls, and, if possible, to the region lying north of the Zambesi. On September 15 he had reached the abode of Lobengula, the King of the Matabele, and obtained his permission to visit the Falls. The next fifteen months were spent in the attempt to pass over the two hundred miles which lay between him and his goal. The difficulties were due partly to vexatious accidents and incompetent servants, but chiefly to the climate. The natives themselves have a great dread of the fever, and for a considerable part of the year the King absolutely refuses to let any of his people accompany travellers to the river. His solicitude for the safety of the Europeans in his dominions is somewhat remarkable, as the following extract from a letter of Mr. Oates shows: "My old man is the cousin of the King and nephew of Mosilikatze, and the King sent him with me as a special mark of favor. If any harm had befallen me, he would have been held responsible, and with most fearful zeal did he fulfil his office. He would never let me sleep without a hut, or do anything he deemed imprudent or unhealthy, carrying his care of me to such a pitch that it was often a very great bore." At length, on December 31, 1874, Mr. Oates succeeded in reaching the Falls, though the only safe months for doing so are apparently from July to November. Allowing himself but a day or two on its fever-haunted banks, during which he took two water-color sketches, which are reproduced in his book, he started on his homeward journey, but died before reaching the first settlement, and was buried by the roadside.

"Many miles after they had left the grave, one of Frank Oates's pointers—his favorite 'Rail'—was found to be missing, and boys were sent back in search of him. These men sought long and wandered far in vain, till at length in their pursuit they got back even to the grave, and there, patiently watching, they found the devoted creature laid. A little longer and he must inevitably have fallen a prey to lions or other wild beasts: but now he was taken down with his companion to Bamangwato, whence they were subsequently conveyed to England. And thus it happened that, whilst Frank Oates's friends at home were rejoicing at the speedy prospect of his return, and wholly unsuspicious of the truth, this faithful dog was watching, the sole mourner, by his grave."

A word of unqualified praise should be given to the maps, the plates illustrating the scientific papers, and the admirable index which the book contains.

Oddities of the Law. By Franklin Fiske Heard. Boston: Soule & Bugbee. 1881.

MR. HEARD has collected in this little volume a number of anecdotes, sayings, remarks, and comments told of or attributed to judges, lawyers, and law-reporters. As in all such collections, many of these are old, some of them trite, and others of little value. The professional reader will, however, find in it not a few things which will be new to him. Several of the anecdotes relate to Mr. Justice Maule, whose caustic humor is better known to English than American lawyers. On one occasion a man who had been convicted of bigamy before him, on being asked why sentence should not be passed upon him, explained to the court that his wife "took up with a hawker, and ran away five years ago"; that he had never seen her since, and that he had married his second wife in consequence of this desertion. Mr. Justice Maule thereupon proceeded to instruct the prisoner before passing sentence as to the course which he ought to have taken under the circumstances:

"I will tell you what you ought to have done; and, if you say you did not know, I must tell you that the law conclusively presumes that you did. You ought to have instructed your attorney to bring an action against the hawker for criminal conversation with your wife. That would have cost you about a hundred pounds. When you had recovered substantial damages against the hawker, you should have instructed your proctor to sue in the ecclesiastical courts for a divorce *a mensa et thoro*. That would have cost you two hundred or three hundred pounds more. When you had obtained a divorce *a mensa et thoro*, you would have had to appear by counsel before the House of Lords for a divorce *a vinculo matrimonii*. The bill might have been opposed in all its stages in both Houses of Parliament, and altogether you would have had to spend about a thousand or twelve hundred pounds. You will probably tell me that you never had a thousand farthings of your own in the world; but, prisoner, that makes no difference. Sitting here as a British judge, it is my duty to tell you that this is not a country in which there is one law for the rich, and another for the poor."

On another occasion, when in the act of passing sentence upon a man, the governor of the county jail came to the table to deliver some calendars to members of the bar, and in doing so offended the judge by passing between him and the prisoner. He called the governor's attention to his breach of decorum in the following impressive manner: "Don't you know," said he, "you ought never to pass between two gentlemen when one gentleman is addressing the other?" and an apology having been offered by the governor, the interrupted interview was concluded by a sentence of the gentleman addressed to seven years' transportation.

As an illustration of the value of readiness and humor in trying cases, there is nothing better than the story told by Erskine with regard to a cause tried by him before Lord Kenyon at Guildhall which turned upon the rule of the road. The judge seemed disposed to leave it to the jury whether the plantiff might not have saved himself from a collision by going to the wrong side of the road, where, according to the testimony, ample room was left. Perceiving that Lord Kenyon was doubtful on this

point, Erskine said to the jury, in stating the defendant's case:

"Gentlemen, if the noble and learned judge, in giving you hereafter his advice and opinion, shall depart from the only principle of safety (unless where collisions are selfish and malicious), and you shall act upon it, I can only say that I shall feel the same confidence in his lordship's general learning and justice, and shall continue to delight, as I always have delighted, in attending his administration of justice; *but I pray God that I may never meet him on the road.*"

The expression of this pious hope not only made Lord Kenyon and the jury laugh, but put in such a forcible way the dangerous uncertainty which would have been created by abandoning the strict rule on the subject, that the jury was charged as Erskine desired.

A good story of Lord Ellenborough, who never lost an opportunity of being wittily savage to counsel, is given. On one occasion he showed some impatience at a barrister's speech, upon which the latter paused and inquired: "Is it the pleasure of the Court that I should proceed with my statement?" To which the Court replied: "Pleasure, sir, has been out of the question for a long time; but you may proceed." Two rather instructive anecdotes are given which bear upon the value of professional reputation in argument. The learned Sergeant Williams, the editor of the learned Saunders, was a poor advocate, but a man whose knowledge of the law of real property was unequalled. In a case before Mr. Justice Lawrence, himself a learned judge, a question arose of a purely technical character with regard to the operation of a recovery, upon which the Court expressed some doubt. Instead of citing any cases in support of his view, the worthy sergeant only emphatically said: "I assure you, my lord, it is so—upon my honor, it is so"; upon which the Court at once yielded. On the other hand, in the well-known Ryves case, in which Mrs. Ryves attempted to establish her claim to royal descent, a very unfortunate appeal to honor was made by Dr. Smith, who was beginning to say in his address to the jury for the petitioner that "on his honor, he believed his client's case to be well founded," when the Chief-Justice interfered, and peremptorily said that "he could not allow the learned counsel to pledge his honor on his own belief. To do so were a violation of the rules of the profession, and dishonor to counsel." Dr. Smith was obliged to apologize.

Country Pleasures. The Chronicle of a Year, chiefly in a Garden. By George Milner. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1881. 12mo, pp. xii-345.

THERE is a class of economists who point out the fact that American and Russian wheat is now cheaper in England than English wheat, and argue that English farming is to become a thing of the past. Worse than this, the English manufacturer is to follow the English farmer out of existence, according to the same prophets, as soon as steam machinery is somewhat more perfected, and coal a little cheapened, upon the Continent and in the United States. The income of the great estates is to be rapidly reduced; the commercial and the political importance of England are to be greatly lessened, if not to pass away. Yet "the United States of Europe" are not to be the losers. English landed estates, we are told, being no longer profitable as farms, are to be divided among a select company of *rentiers*, lovers of retirement and of nature. Great Britain, in short, is to be transformed into parks, preserves, and gardens, and become the paradise of northern Europe, the chosen home of those who neither dig nor spin, and who share Mr. Ruskin's aversion for the power loom and the steam plough.

It is curious to see how a movement which certainly looks in this direction is withstood by one at least of the great interests we have named—the manufacturing interest. Mr. Milner's chronicle is mostly that of a sylvan year in his garden at Moston, Lancashire, in a "parish or township already threatened on one of its borders by the fast approaching outworks of a great city," presumably Manchester, and where the Yorkshire hills can only be seen on days when the wind is easterly, and when also "the ejection of smoke is less than usual." So near has the town-demon approached to his garden; and yet we shall give a false impression of Mr. Milner's book if we do not hasten to say that it is given to few writers of our time to take us as far as Mr. Milner has taken us from "the smoke and stir of this dim spot." His book is thoroughly, penetratingly rural—a year book of rural seasons as studied in the centre of England for the most part, but recording occasional trips to the moors and to the Lake district. The author's method is a new, or at least an unworn one: it is to chronicle week by week and month by month the garden life of a single year (the year 1878), and to illustrate what he has seen and enjoyed by frequent quotations from the range of English poetry, in this manner connecting his own with a more general experience. Thus, under date of February 13, he writes:

"The sun rose only two or three fields away. He was a near neighbor; his light streamed through the hedges; he seemed to be set in the middle of the landscape, and to be turning everything to his own substance and color. Very beautiful were the long shadows of the trees, stretching across the hoar-frosted lawn. My own shadow—

> '—Spindling into longitude immense,
> In spite of gravity, and sage remark
> That I myself was but a fleeting shade,
> Provoked me to a smile. With eye askance
> I saw the muscular proportioned limb
> Transformed to a lean shank. The shapeless pair,
> As they designed to mock me, at my side
> Took step for step.'"

These quotations form a part of the author's plan; they are not to be regarded as selected merely "for the enrichment of the text." Mr. Milner adds:

"It has been the writer's habit to associate certain passages of literature with certain scenes of natural beauty, or with particular phases of country life, in such an intimate way that the pleasure given by the one was in no small degree dependent upon the existence and recognition of the other; and as the writer's chief object has been to convey to the reader as completely as possible the delight which he himself felt, it became not only desirable, but necessary, to insert such passages as were already connected in his own mind with the things described."

Such a task is, of course, a delicate one, but Mr. Milner has brought to it a fine scholarship in English poetry, from Chaucer to "his latest disciple," William Morris, and sympathy and taste of the most delicate. We may best indicate his literary gift by saying that among other English lovers of nature Christopher North reminds us of him the least, and Miss Mitford (in 'Our Village') perhaps the most. But Mr. Milner has a wider range of knowledge and of intellectual sympathy than Miss Mitford. Not to compare the creative gift of the two men, we should liken Mr. Milner's tastes and training to those of Mr. Tennyson, from whom he makes frequent citation: for our taste, indeed, he quotes a trifle too frequently from Tennyson; and one is surprised to find Andrew Marvell's name absent in his very catholic index of authors quoted. White of Selborne depicts a breezier out-door life than Mr. Milner, and Mr. T. Jefferies at his best has a minuter forest lore than any English writer of our time. But the present book is a delightful one, abounding in delicate and interesting observations, sometimes framed as commentary upon the poets:

"It has been said that the skylark never sings after the sun is below the horizon, and that Shelley was wrong in speaking of the bird as singing

> 'In the golden lightning
> Of the sunken sun.'

But the poet was unquestionably right. On this occasion [Whitsuntide, June 11] the moon was perceptibly brightening; and although there were thin streaks of fading color in the upper sky, the sun had been set for twenty or thirty minutes, and the west was already cold and gray. The bird was in no hurry to finish his vesper; but came slowly down from a great height, singing on his way and making but a faint drop at the last. There were no trees near him, and I saw him waver over the meadow until he found his nest and sank quietly into it. So you see the lark 'startles the dull night,' not only at its departure, as Milton puts it, but also upon its appearance."

And Mr. Milner finds place occasionally for criticism of the poet's form as well as subjects; on *Perdita's* description of the daffodils—

> "That come before the swallow dares, and take
> The winds of March with beauty; violets dim
> But sweeter than the lids of Juno's eyes
> Or Cytherea's breath"—

he comments thus:

"This passage is probably the most felicitous piece of expression in the language, and our best example of discreet and faultless art, coexisting with the flowing openness of an apparently spontaneous evolution. Much of the exquisite harmony of the lines will be found to depend on the way in which alliteration, not too conspicuous, is carried from line to line; and on the fact that, perhaps with one exception, there are not in any one line two accented feet carrying the same vowel sound."

We have quoted enough to show that while Mr. Milner is not an "apostle" of nature, nor yet of culture, he is a very entertaining writer.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alden, W. L. The Cruise of the Ghost. Illustrated. New York: Harper & Bros.
Anderson, C. H. Armour; or, What Are You Going to Do About It? New York: W. R. Smith & Co. $1.
Anderson, J. Scotland and its Early Christian Times. Second Series. The Rhind Lectures in Archæology for 1880. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
Ayers, A. The Verbalist: a Manual Devoted to Brief Discussions of the Right and Wrong Use of Words. New York: D. Appleton & Co.
Bryant's New Book-Keeping, Elementary and Practical. Buffalo: J. C. Bryant.
Burton, J. H. The Book-Hunter, etc. Philadelphia: Robert A. Tripple. $3.
Darwin, C. The Formation of Vegetable Mould, through the Action of Worms. With Illustrations. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $3.
Durrie, D. S. and Isabel. Catalogue of the Library of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin. Vol. v. Madison: D. Atwood.
Freeman, A. C. The American Decisions, containing the Cases of General Value and Authority decided in the Courts of the several States. Vol. xxix. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.
General Index to *Scribner's Magazine*. Bangor: Q. P. Index. $2.
Greg, W. R. Miscellaneous Essays. London: Trübner & Co.
Gross, Rev. J. B. The Belief in Immortality on Purely Logical Principles. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott. $1.
Gustafson, Zadel B. Genevieve Ward: a Biographical Sketch. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.
Hayes, J. I. Pictures of Arctic Travel: Greenland. New York: E. W. Carleton & Co.
Homes and Haunts of our Elder Poets. With portraits and illustrations. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $5.
Hood, Rev. E. P. Robert Hall. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Co.
Johnson, O. William Lloyd Garrison and his Times; or, Sketches of the Anti-slavery Movement in America. Revised and enlarged edition. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Johnston, G. History of Cecil County, Maryland. Elkton, Md.: Published by the Author.
Kastropp, G. Kain. Stuttgart: Adolf Bonz & Co.
Kastropp, G. Heinrich von Ofterdingen. Stuttgart: Adolf Bonz & Co.
Osborn, Lt.-Col. R. D. Lawn Tennis. London: Strahan & Co.
Osgood, Dr. H. Winter and its Dangers. Philadelphia: Presley Blakiston. 30 cents.
Passages from the Life and Writings of George Fox. Philadelphia: Friends' Book Association.
Reilly, Rev. W. M. The Artist and his Mission. Philadelphia: John E. Potter & Co.
Roach, Sallie N. Theon: A Tale of the American Civil War. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.50.
Sanborn, Kate. Purple and Gold. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Stieler, A. Hand-Atlas. Parts 27, 28. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Taylor, Rev. W. M. Paul the Missionary. New York: Harper & Bros.
Tennyson, A. The Lady of Shalott. Decorated by Howard Pyle. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.
Thackeray, W. M. The Chronicle of the Drum. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Thebaud, Rev. A. J. The Twit-Twats: a Christmas Allegorical Story. New York: Catholic Pub. Society.
Tributes from Over Seas: Being Selections from Foreign Testimonials to the late President Garfield. Boston: A. Williams & Co. 50 cents.
Verne, J. Eight Hundred Leagues on the Amazon. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Wordsworth, W. Poems. Edited by Richard Henry Stoddard. Illustrated. New York: W. J. Johnston. $3.
World of Wonders; or, Marvels in Animate and Inanimate Nature. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $2.

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The Week.

THE most important topics discussed in the President's message are the civil service, our South American relations, and the silver question. With regard to the first, he "urgently recommends" that an annual appropriation be made by Congress to carry out the existing provisions of the law (§ 1753, U. S. R. S.) authorizing the President to prescribe regulations for the admission of persons into the service, and to "employ suitable persons" to conduct inquiries into the fitness of applicants. With regard to competitive examinations, which he refers to as the "principal feature" of the measure urged upon Congress and the Executive, he suggests that the chief argument in its favor is the success of the British civil-service system, which is based upon it. A life-tenure of office, however, which may be considered an essential part of the English plan, the limitation of the maximum age of admission, and retiring allowances, he thinks, are not looked upon with favor in this country. Nevertheless, he says emphatically, "to a statute which should incorporate all its essential features I should feel bound to give my approval." He expresses at the same time serious doubts as to the advisability of doing anything of the kind, and makes objections to each feature of the English system, and suggests that as that system itself was the growth of years, we ought to proceed slowly. As he does not say what he thinks of our past rate of progress, it may be inferred that he means that we ought to proceed "just slowly enough," but not "too slowly." His objections to competitive examinations grow partly out of the usual Stalwart feeling about "mere intellectual attainments," and this explains the suggestion of the submission of "a portion of the nominations" to a central board of examiners selected to test the fitness of applicants without competition. On the whole, this part of the message is very remarkable as being the first serious discussion of the "British civil-service system" by a Stalwart politician. Hitherto the Stalwarts have never been able to refer to it with straight faces, and the fact that their spokesman has stopped laughing at it, and made an explicit announcement that it must be treated as a serious political question, is an encouraging sign of the times.

With regard to the sole guarantee of the Panama Canal, the President insists that the existing Clayton-Bulwer treaty, which provides for a joint guarantee, must be modified, and says that he has "supplemented" the action of the late Administration by proposing to the English Government a modification of the treaty, and "the abrogation of such clauses thereof as do not comport with the obligations of the United States toward Colombia, or with the vital needs of the two friendly parties to the compact"—which is sufficiently vague to cover almost anything. As to Chili, Bolivia, and Peru, he is entirely non-committal with regard to the instructions given to our representatives, but says that, on account of the "serious misapprehension of the position of the United States" in both countries, he has sent a "special envoy" to each of them, with "general instructions" intended to "bring those powers into friendly relations." The envoy referred to is no doubt Mr. Trescott. He recommends the abolition of all internal taxes except those which fall directly or indirectly on tobacco and spirits, and suggests a commission to revise the tariff. He thinks that perhaps the tax on whiskey might be lowered. He approves the recommendations of the Secretary of the Treasury that the silver certificates be retired, that the act calling for their issue be repealed, and that the monthly coinage of silver be stopped. He says that he has directed the Star-route cases to be prosecuted with vigor, strongly urges appropriations for the construction of a navy, and among minor matters recommends further legislation against polygamy by requiring the registration of marriages in the Supreme Court of Utah, and the admission of the testimony of wives against their husbands.

The President has sent two Commissioners to Lima and Valparaiso to look into the conduct of Messrs. Hurlbut and Kilpatrick, and explain to them what their instructions really are. One of these, Mr. W. H. Trescott, who goes to Peru, is a trained diplomat. Mr. Walker Blaine, the son of the Secretary of State, goes to Chili. He is a clever young man, who, after a few months' training in the State Department, is probably sent to Chili to give him a little experience in diplomacy and a pleasant foreign trip. Mr. Trescott's mission is the more important of the two. He is accredited to the Hurlbut Government, but whether Hurlbut will recognize him or have anything to do with him remains to be seen. According to the *Herald's* Washington despatches, a gentleman "who is thoroughly acquainted with the nature of the misunderstanding" says that the President merely intends to try by persuasion and argument to get Chili to treat Peru in a lenient and civilized manner; but he adds these significant words:

"*Should President Arthur adopt the views which Secretary Blaine has held upon this subject*, the Government will take steps to intervene and insist upon Chili releasing Garcia Calderon. Although this course doubtless is a delicate one, it may be necessary to adopt because the United States Minister has already recognized Garcia Calderon, but had not ascertained if his was a government *de facto*. The further difficulty in the adjustment of the affair is that the Chilians, having arrested Garcia Calderon, who really never exercised the functions of a *de facto* Governor of Peru, have now to treat, if they treat at all, with Pierola, he being the only person they can recognize as the head of the Government."

The fact that Calderon is now under arrest in the hands of the Chilians, shows, as they say in "Patience," what a particularly singular kind of a government *de facto* that kind of a *de facto* government would be.

Guiteau appears to have misconceived the theory of Judge Porter's cross-examination of himself on the witness stand. He evidently fancied that it was to be a trial of his wits instead of his lack of wits, and accordingly he made the most of his opportunity, and bent himself to the task of giving the Judge as good as he sent. Whenever he was led up to anything like inconsistency he either sheered off, or fell to blackguarding the Judge, or refused to answer. When, for instance, the Judge asked him if he would have shot President Garfield on July 2 if Mrs. Garfield had been with him, he replied that he would not. Then, pursued the Judge, interrogatively, "it depended entirely on your will?" The prisoner saw the trap and perceived that there was no way to avoid it except by shutting his mouth and refusing to answer; for if it depended entirely upon his will, then the agency of the Deity in the case was eliminated. So he took up a newspaper, adjusted his eye-glasses, and commenced reading, pretending that he had already answered the question more than once, and that it would be a waste of time to answer it again. For one whose sole defence is the plea of insanity he has been much too smart. He has had some little training as a lawyer—just enough to know that in ordinary criminal trials it is best for a prisoner to avoid contradicting himself, but not enough to know that an insane man will contradict himself frequently without being conscious of the fact.

The annual report of the Attorney-General contains very little that is important or new. He calls attention once more to the condition of the Supreme Court docket, which shows an increase of causes undisposed of, and recommends that United States attorneys be paid by salaries in all cases instead of fees. He points out that under the present system the emoluments of the officer depend upon the number, and not upon the importance of the prosecutions undertaken in his district. He adds that "it is believed that all these officers would prefer to be paid entirely by salaries, as not infrequently it is unjustly suggested against them that prosecutions are encouraged for the sake of making fees." The objection to fees might be put on a stronger ground than this. We may sympathize with the sensitiveness of the unjustly suspected district attorney, but this is, after all, a matter of sentiment. He can learn to suffer and be strong, and the Government loses nothing from the unjust suspicion. The serious fact is that the fee system furnishes ground for just suspicion as well. As long as the income of district attorneys depends on the number of cases they bring, some district attorneys will infallibly bring suits for the mere purpose of getting fees, and by this the Government will lose money. It is not merely, therefore, on account of the feelings of the shy, sensitive district attorneys that the system should be broken up.

We have had so much criticism lately of the

manner in which the duties of bank examiners are performed that it is interesting to see what their superior officer, the Comptroller of the Currency, thinks about the matter. The official view is produced in full in his report, which has just been published. What it amounts to is simply this: that the main portion of the work of seeing that the business of the bank is honestly managed must fall upon the directors, and that it is the stockholders, after all, whose duty it is to see that the directors are the kind of men they ought to be; that it is the duty of the examiners to look after the directors rather than the inferior officers of the bank; that it is not possible for the examiners to make anything like a thorough examination of the condition of any bank; that they are not bound to do so unless they "see reason to suspect dishonesty or fraud." In this case, he says, "it is their business to investigate thoroughly, and they should employ experts to assist them in so doing." But here, again, he maintains that it is not possible for them to do what they should do, inasmuch as "the small compensation provided by Congress does not contemplate the yearly auditing of all the accounts of a bank by an examiner, as the pay is entirely inadequate for such work, the amount allowed for the examination of banks of like capital being the same, without reference to the difference in the volume of their business." Unfortunately, "reason to suspect dishonesty or fraud" in the management of a bank seldom or never lies on the surface. It is very seldom indeed that bank examiners can count upon discovering such a reason in doing what the Comptroller says is all that they are ordinarily required to do, namely—ascertaining whether the officers of the bank and its directors are complying with the mere requirements of the law. Perfect bank inspection, such as will completely assure the business public, must consist not simply in finding out whether the accounts of the bank show on their face that the directors and officers are complying with the Act of Congress, but whether the accounts really tally with the facts. The bank is, after all, not a place where books are kept, but a place where money is kept, and the main question is not whether the bookkeeping is good, but whether the money is there. Any system of examination, therefore, which does not ascertain whether the money is there, or which waits to have a suspicion excited by mere discrepancies on the face of the accounts, must necessarily be defective.

The fact is that banking, unlike most other business, has to be conducted on what may be called a basis of suspicion. Every man connected with it, whether borrower or depositor or officer, has to be treated as a person who may possibly fail to do his duty or keep his engagements. The mere requirement of collateral security for every loan is a sign of suspicion. The exaction of bonds from bank officers means suspicion. The existence of Government examiners means suspicion. Banks are examined because there is, as a matter of law as well as of business experience, standing reason to suspect everybody concerned with its management. A bank conducted without this standing suspicion would soon become a very rotten concern. Every examiner who goes to a bank, therefore, is bound to treat everybody connected with it as legitimately open to suspicion. He has no right to treat any officer's character as raising him above suspicion. If he is not paid enough, or has not time enough to enable him to make a thorough examination, of course he is not to be blamed for not doing so, but such examination as he is able to make should be conducted, as far as it goes, not on the assumption that everybody in the bank is doing his duty, but on the assumption that he is not doing his duty.

The reserve of the New York banks was reduced during the week slightly below the twenty-five per cent. limit, and while the money market was easy enough during the greater part of the week, a sharp stringency was manipulated toward the close. The effort of the Secretary of the Treasury to drive cash out of the Treasury by prepaying called bonds without rebate of interest was only moderately successful, and a call was made for the redemption on January 29 of $20,000,000 more three and a half per cent. bonds, which it is expected will be prepaid if the present stringency in the loan market continues. The public debt statement shows a reduction last month of $7,249,126, making $62,373,471 for the first five months of the fiscal year. The London money market was easy during the week, and the market here for exchange on London became heavy. After several meetings of an informal character, the representatives of the trunk-line railroads failed to arrive at any plan for settling the "war" which has now raged for so many months, the two main points of contention which remain being those which caused the war. The first of these is the demand of Mr. Vanderbilt that the other roads shall abandon New England territory to the New York Central; and the other is that differential rates shall be abolished. The failure of the efforts to make a settlement, and the stringency of the money market, caused a decline in speculative stocks which ranged from ¼ to 4½ per cent., although there were exceptions to this general course of prices. United States bonds early in the week were strong, but the agitation of new funding schemes caused a lower market for the extended 5's and 6's late in the week. The general domestic trade of the country continues very active. In the foreign trade the tendency is still toward a falling-off of exports and an increase of imports, or toward a reversal of the course of the last few years.

The Tariff Convention got thoroughly tired of "the papers" on Wednesday week. In fact, paper reading broke down early in the day, leaving twelve papers unread. The delegates refused to submit to any more of them, and it was resolved that a representative of each industry should be allowed five minutes to say what it needed in the way of protection—that the delegates, in other words, instead of perorating on the principles of government, should supply information on the subject which they best understand, the profits of their own trade. There was, however, very little information forthcoming. Every one said that his business needed protection. Some said that they needed more protection than they had, owing to some foreign enemy trying to undersell them. The quinine man, Mr. Jones, fell foul of Mr. J. S. Moore, and asked for a duty on quinine, which he apparently thinks the sick get too cheap. They ignominiously expelled one of their vice-presidents, Mr. Constable, of this city, for desiring a reduction of duties on raw materials, which they evidently consider a nefarious suggestion. Mr. Roach was allowed to read another "paper," or rather have it read, before the resolutions were adopted. These were, as usual, a mass of generalities, praising the tariff, and demanding its revision in the interest of more protection. The chief lesson of the Convention is that nothing short of total prohibition will ever satisfy protectionists as a whole. Nothing else can ever produce "harmony."

The rejection by the Tariff Convention of Mr. William D. Kelley's resolution for the repeal of internal-revenue taxes leaves the country, so far as the Convention can control its destinies, in the harrowing situation of having a probable surplus revenue of one hundred and fifty millions per annum. This surplus, applied to the redemption of the 3½ per cent. bonds, will clear them all out of the way inside of four years and be productive of further evils well known to Mr. Wharton Barker and other publicists of Philadelphia. It is not the least singular of the proceedings of the Convention that the rejection of the Kelley programme regarding internal taxes should have been based not upon financial or business considerations at all, but on dread of the catch-word "free whiskey." The people, it was contended, would never tolerate free liquor. It was rather broadly insinuated, and the suspicion was evidently strong in the minds of the delegates, that "the people" would consider a repeal of the tax on distilled spirits equivalent to making grog absolutely free to all drinkers, so that a man could get drunk for the asking. "Protection" itself having considerable value as a catch-word, the delegates were not so rash as to expose it to needless collision with another catch-word of perhaps equal potency. The Convention finally passed a resolution for the repeal of stamp duties on bank checks, friction matches, and proprietary medicines.

The *Tribune* has apparently fallen into some confusion of mind about the Thugs of India, whom it uses as an illustration in discussing Guiteau's case. It says: "They run amuck, and kill or maim all who come in their way," and "no doubt honestly believe their murderous frenzy to be a religious impulse." Our esteemed contemporay has evidently been mixing up the Thug and the Malay. The Thug does not, and never did, "run amuck." He killed much, but he killed stealthily, deliberately, and with wonderful skill in concealment, and generally, if not always, by strangling. His murders, it is true, were acts of worship of his goddess Kali,

but his worship was sober and calm, and he did not maim people. The Malay who "runs amuck," on the other hand, does so sometimes under a "religious impulse," but oftener under the impulse of bang, and sometimes for the fun of it. The matter is of more importance than it seems, because an illustration is one of the things the whole value of which depends on their correctness. If you use the rose as an illustration, for instance, it must be a real rose, as it exists in nature, and not a rose of your mind; if you use a mule, it must be the true mule of Western and Southern teaming, and not the mule as you would like him to be—sweet and reasonable, and soft in the mouth. And in like manner, your Thug must be the real Thug of Hindostan, and not an imaginary Thug of the Spice Islands.

There is a performance going on in Kansas at this moment which is probably as disgraceful an exhibition of lawlessness as has occurred in any part of the country during the last ten years, and which, if reported from the South, would lead to numerous reflections on the part of the Northern press on the barbarism of that region. A banker has failed at Caldwell, in that State, and, we presume, has failed fraudulently. He was in the custody of the Sheriff under an execution of some sort, in the ordinary course of law, when he was seized by a large mob, who have held him for a week and carried him from place to place—all the time threatening his life unless he turned over to his creditors certain property which he had, or was supposed to have, in his possession. Nor has this been done secretly. The news of the operations of the mob and their negotiations with the prisoner have been telegraphed regularly to all parts of the country by the Associated Press. The State authorities have been in full possession of them from day to day, yet he is still, at this writing, in the hands of his assailants, and, we presume, still liable to be hanged unless he has satisfied the furious crowd that he has surrendered all his assets. If there be one thing in trade worse than fraudulent banking, it is the punishment of bankers by bands of brigands. If lynch law were permitted to punish the most patent and outrageous frauds against creditors, it would certainly not be very long before in some parts of the country any man who failed in business on a large scale, however innocently, would be exposed to the most horrible violence at the hands of any creditor able to get together a crowd of roughs and call them "enraged citizens." The Roman and mediæval legislation against insolvent debtors was barbarous enough, but it was far from approaching this Kansas method in cruelty and indecency. Any community in which this Caldwell outrage has lasted for a week should hereafter hold its tongue about the "Mississippi plan."

The latest news from Brazil shows a healthy growth of constitutional ideas and methods in that country. For some time past the Emperor himself has perceived that if the electoral régime enacted by the Constitution were given up for that of direct elections by the people, the result would be a more trustworthy index of public opinion. After many attempts the trial was made, and the recent election held under it justifies the hopes of its friends. Instead of a unanimous or nearly unanimous Chamber of Deputies, the present Liberal Ministry, which has been as acceptable as any in Brazil, would have to confront, were it to continue in power until the Chamber met, an Opposition of fifty in a house of one hundred and twenty-two members. For the first time in the present reign (and Dom Pedro ascended the throne in 1831) a minister of the Crown has been defeated, and, therefore, has been dismissed from the Cabinet by the people. In the recent election two ministers, both belonging to influential families in Rio de Janeiro and S. Paulo, failed to be reëlected, and their resignation only precedes that of the whole Cabinet at the reopening of the National Legislature a few days hence.

The Government is modelled after those of England and Belgium, and its written Constitution, promulgated more than half a century ago, guarantees most of the political and civil rights enjoyed in the more advanced communities. The trouble in Brazil has been that the people are not sufficiently educated to apprehend and assimilate the liberties granted by law. In a constitutional monarchy, a good division of powers and their proper balance are essential to a smooth working of the delicate machinery of the Government. Thus, if the people fail to take their full share in the direction of affairs, some other power will lose a restraint which by the theory of the Government is indispensable; and that power itself is placed in the false position of usurping attributes not belonging to it. Such has been the case in Brazil. The Constitution is very liberal. The Emperor has no responsibility, and none of his orders is valid unless countersigned by one of his Ministers. These are supposed to be, as in England, a committee of Parliament. The Parliament is made up of two houses, the Senators being elected for life by electors chosen by all citizens having a net income of about one hundred dollars per annum, and the Deputies being elected for four years by electors chosen in the same manner. Such has been the theory. But in practice the electoral laws have been so fashioned as to give undue power to the Cabinet. The Ministers have found it easy to manipulate the electors and corrupt them with the "spoils." And this abuse has compelled the Emperor, in self-defence, to resort to another abuse—that of dissolving Parliament in circumstances not allowed by the written Constitution, thus arousing among the intelligent classes a clamor against "personal power" which would imperil the throne of any monarch less respected than Dom Pedro is.

The repeated efforts Prince Bismarck is making to put the old Emperor into the foreground as the originator and champion of the measures urged in the celebrated "Imperial speech," are not a sign of strength or confidence. There was a time when he would scarcely have resorted to such a stage-trick. His utterance, in response to a complimentary address, that he firmly believed in the "ultimate victory" of his plans, "but had little hope himself of seeing the success of the proposed reforms," has rather a discouraged sound. The recent vote of the Reichstag rejecting by a two-thirds majority the appropriation for the expenses of the "Economical Council," a pet scheme of the Chancellor's, advocated by himself in an "energetic speech," showed very clearly that the combination of the Conservatives and Clericals cannot be depended upon in support of the Government measures. The "Economical Council" was to be a commission of experts on matters of trade, industry, and labor, to consider economical questions, for the purpose of advising the Government and the Reichstag. In proposing the formation of such a commission outside of the Reichstag the Chancellor was suspected of a design to depreciate the parliamentary power and to limit the range of its inquiry and action. The Reichstag, resenting this, voted down the appropriation by 169 to 83, in spite of Prince Bismarck's personal appeal, and in this vote the Clericals were found side by side with the Liberal Opposition. It is most probable that the same will be the case when the tobacco monopoly and the question of biennial budgets come up.

The Scotch landlords have long been separated from the farmers by the fact that they are generally Episcopalians, while the tenants are Presbyterians. It is long, too, since they had any political influence. They had to surrender it in order to get good farming, and they and their tenants have for fifty years belonged in the main to different parties. The landlords are mostly Tories, the farmers Liberals. These things have in some degree assimilated the Scotch landowner to the French Legitimist. Having nothing to gain, like the Englishman, by being "bluff" and hearty and genial, he has become more exclusive and fastidious and blood-proud and even haughty than his English brother, in order to protect his position against the popular lack of reverence for the caste. The farmer has, however, not remained content either with political independence or with the comparatively long leases which constitute so marked a difference between English and Scotch land tenure. He is restive under the stipulations in the lease by which the landlord exercises more or less active control over the mode of farming, and still more under the landlord's right of distress for the rent, or, as it is called in Scotland, the law of hypothec, which makes the rent the first lien on the crops of the year. They are, moreover, no longer content to have rent settled, commercial fashion, by supply and demand; they wish, like the Irish tenants, to have it fixed by a court. The communications made to the landlords by the Scotch Farmers' Associations on these subjects, during the past summer, have been received in some cases with so much hauteur, and even insolence, that they have greatly stimulated the agitation, which has now resulted in what seems to be a very formidable demonstration, which no Liberal Ministry can afford to disregard.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

THE Forty-seventh Congress met and was organized on Monday. All the Republican caucus nominees were elected by the House. On taking the chair, Mr. Keifer read a short speech, invoking "aid and generous judgment" in the fulfilment of his duties. All but three of the members of the House were present. In the Senate a number of bills were introduced, among which were bills to provide for the retirement of the trade dollar, and to provide for its recoinage into the standard silver dollar; to place General Grant on the retired list of the army; to punish attempts to take the life of the President of the United States; and to provide for the issue of three per cent. bonds. This last bill was introduced by Mr. Sherman, and enacts that such bonds be payable at the pleasure of the United States after January 1st, 1887, and that the money deposited under the Act shall be applied solely to the redemption of the bonds bearing three and a-half per cent. interest.

The President's message was delivered to Congress on Tuesday. He reviews our relations with foreign nations, and declares them to be satisfactory. Steps have been taken to secure the better protection of American Hebrews in Russia and American missionaries in Turkey. A protest has been addressed to the Swiss Government in regard to the deportation of criminals to this country, and treaties of commerce and navigation have been concluded with Rumania and Servia. In regard to the Panama Canal the President reviews the action of President Garfield's Administration in the matter, and announces that he has supplemented the action of his predecessor by proposing to the British Government the modification of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, and the "abrogation of such clauses thereof as do not comport with the obligations of the United States toward Colombia, or with the vital needs of the two friendly powers to the compact." The temporary misunderstanding between our Ministers to Peru and Chili is ascribed to the want of "prompt reciprocal communication," and the President announces that he has sent special envoys to both republics, with general instructions which, it is hoped, will enable them to bring these powers into friendly relations. The President, in treating our relations with the East, announces that he hopes at some future time to lay before Congress a scheme for the improvement of our system of consular jurisdiction throughout the entire East. In regard to domestic matters, the President in the main approves the recommendations which have been made by the heads of the different departments in their annual reports. He approves all the important suggestions of the Secretary of the Treasury in regard to the finances; recommends the retirement of the silver certificates, and that the coinage of silver be confined to what is required by demand. He is opposed to the refunding of the 3½ per cent. bonds, unless they can be refunded at a much lower rate than they now bear. The appointment of a commission to revise the tariff is recommended, but "important changes are to be made with caution." In regard to the Star-route prosecutions, the President states that he has enjoined upon the officials who are charged with the matter "the duty of prosecuting with the utmost vigor of the law."

The question of the civil-service reform is treated at some length. The President regards some sort of reform as necessary, but objects to appointment and promotion by competition on the ground that such a method has met with success in England when accompanied with life tenure, limitations of maximum age at entrance, and a retiring allowance, which features he thinks would not be regarded with favor in the United States, and he doubts the success of the system without them. He suggests the "submission of a portion of the nominations to a central board of examiners, selected solely for testing the qualifications of applicants, without resort to the competitive test." The decline of our merchant marine is deplored, and the same kind of aid and protection as has been bestowed upon our manufactures is recommended. To put down polygamy in the Territories, legislation is recommended "by which any person solemnizing a marriage in any of the Territories shall be required to file a certificate of such marriage in the Supreme Court of the Territory." In concluding his message the President calls the attention of Congress to the question of Presidential inability, and recommends that speedy consideration be given to it.

A resolution was adopted by both Houses of Congress on Tuesday, providing for the appointment of a joint committee to consider "by what token of respect and affection it may be proper for the Congress of the United States to express the deep sensibility of the nation at the decease of its late President."

The Republican Senators in caucus on Monday unanimously agreed to support a resolution of Mr. Edmunds providing for continuing the Senate committees as they existed during the last session.

The contest for the Speakership of the House of Representatives was decided in the Republican caucus on Saturday by the nomination of Mr. Keifer of Ohio on the sixteenth ballot. The largest factor in bringing about this result was the transfer, under Mr. Cameron's orders, of the votes of the Pennsylvania delegation from Mr. Hiscock to Mr. Keifer. Edward McPherson was nominated for Clerk of the House and Colonel George W. Hooker for Sergeant-at-Arms. The Democratic caucus which met on the same day renominated all the officers of the last House.

Guiteau continued the story of his life on Wednesday, and gave his reasons for assassinating the President. The court-room was crowded to excess, and Guiteau seems to have felt it to be one of the proudest moments of his life. He reiterated his old story of Divine inspiration, and said that he had considered the country to be drifting into a civil war owing to the split in the Republican party. He caused some amusement by his statement that he had had for twenty years the idea that he was going to be President of the United States, and that he expected to "make it yet," as he anticipated a decided change in public opinion in regard to himself. He made several remarks of this character which would seem to indicate, if not a disordered mind, at least an egotism so excessive as to border upon it. Their effect was counterbalanced, however, by his cleverness in avoiding self-contradiction and in getting out of difficulties when cornered in the cross-examination, which was begun on the same day and was ably conducted by Judge Porter. The aim of Judge Porter's questions was to involve the prisoner in contradictions in regard to his "Divine inspiration" theory. One unimportant but amusing point brought out was Guiteau's novel method of obtaining law business in connection with getting prisoners out of the Ludlow Street Jail in New York. He said that he paid a commission to a prisoner in the jail who was a "big talker," and who would recommend him to other prisoners. The cross-examination was continued on Thursday and concluded on Friday. The prisoner was involved in a few contradictions, but on the whole adhered closely to his "inspiration" theory. He was very insolent to Mr. Porter, and once or twice utterly refused to answer his questions. When he saw himself in danger of being cornered, or when irritated in any way, he was apt to become abusive. His remark in reply to one of Mr. Porter's questions, "If your head is so thick that you cannot get the idea in, I won't try to pound it in. Don't ask your questions in a mean, sickly sort of way," was illustrative of his whole bearing during the cross-examination. On Saturday, among the witnesses examined were Mr. Emory Storrs, of Chicago, and Senator David Davis. Mr. Storrs turned out to be rather an unfortunate witness for the defence, as he distinctly stated that he had never seen anything in Guiteau which led him to believe that he could not distinguish between right and wrong. Nothing of importance was elicited from Senator Davis. On Monday, eight medical experts testified as witnesses for the defence. An elaborate hypothetical question was put to them to the effect that if insanity were assumed to exist in the prisoner's family, and he himself had been at one time demented, and if his alleged belief that he acted on Divine inspiration were assumed to be true, did they think he was insane? To this seven of the witnesses answered that if the proposition were true, the prisoner was insane. The eighth said he would not express an opinion until he had a clearer explanation of the word inspiration than Mr. Scoville gave him. As usual, the prisoner interfered in the proceedings. He showed that he was sensitive on the question of his mental powers, saying that he would rather be "hung as a sensible man than acquitted as a fool." He also objected to the implication that he was a vulgar criminal, saying that there was "nothing vulgar about this case; it is all high-toned."

The public debt was reduced $7,249,126 in the month of November, which makes the reduction for the five months of the present fiscal year over $62,000,000, against $37,000,000 for the corresponding months of last year. The decrease for last month was twice as great as for November, 1880, and the receipts from customs and the internal revenue show an increase of $3,000,000 as compared with the same month of 1880.

The annual report of Mr. Nimmo, the Chief of the Bureau of Statistics, on the foreign commerce of the United States for the fiscal year, shows it to have amounted to $1,675,024,318, a sum larger than in any previous year in the history of the country. There was a great increase in the exportation of the products of the Western and Northwestern States, largely owing to the reduction in the transportation charges on the railroads, lakes, and the Erie Canal.

On Saturday the retiring Grand Jury presented indictments against Deputy Sixth Auditor Tilley and Contractor Brott. The attempt which was made last week to hold Tilley before United States Commissioner Bundy fell through, as we stated in our last issue, owing to the disappearance of Brott, who was to have been the Government's chief witness. As it now turns out, it would have been better for Mr. Brott had he appeared on that occasion, as he is now held as principal instead of witness. The Government's prospects in the Star-route prosecutions, which looked rather discouraging last week, are now brightening a little.

A new Grand Jury will be convened in the District of Columbia at the end of this week, and it is understood that the Government will at once present the evidence against the leaders of the Star-route ring. An indictment will in all probability be found in the Dorsey case, as the evidence is voluminous. In the Prescott and Santa Fé case the defendants will probably plead the statute of limitations in regard to part of the allegations. These proceedings will be watched with interest, as the Government is said to have some strong cases, and an opportunity will be afforded to retrieve previous failures in the Star-route prosecutions.

A new convention for the exhange of money orders between the United States and Switzerland, to go into effect on the 1st of January, was signed by the President on Wednesday. Its effect will be to reduce the charges on orders issued in the United States on Switzer-

land to the same rates as those on French, German, and Italian orders.

The Washington Citizens' Committee of One Hundred intends to take energetic steps during this session of Congress to bring about some action in regard to the Potomac flats. The committee is composed of some of the most influential citizens in Washington, but heretofore, even with the coöperation of the President, they have been unable to bring about any result in this matter, which is of such vital importance to the health of the capital.

Senator Beck was unanimously renominated by a joint caucus of the Kentucky Legislature for Senator, on Thursday. This action of course makes his election a mere formality.

Tax Receiver Hunter of Philadelphia made his report before the Common Council on Thursday. The report shows that great frauds have been committed in the Tax Office and Almshouse departments of the city government. Mr. Hunter stated that the examination of the books of the Tax Office had not much more than commenced, and that he was, therefore, unable as yet to estimate the amount of the frauds. There seems to have been collusion between the Controller and the Tax Receiver, and a system of false entries in the books of the departments adopted by which the city was "annually robbed of thousands of dollars." The whole matter was referred to the Finance Committee, at the suggestion of Mr. Hunter, in spite of an interested movement to appoint a special committee.

One Danford, a defaulting Kansas cashier, has been forcibly detained by his creditors, at Caldwell, under threat of death in case he refused to settle. The Governor tardily made a show of calling out the militia, but was defied by the mob, and a committee finally brought the prisoner to terms.

FOREIGN.

In the German Reichstag, on Wednesday, Prof. Virchow made an attack on the Government. He said that the Progressists, when they joined the *Kulturkampf*, had hoped that Prince Bismarck would definitively liberate the schools from clerical influence. To this Prince Bismarck replied that the reproach was unjustifiable, and that even if he were really inclined to continue the struggle, he should be hindered by the fact that his former allies had deserted him and driven him into the arms of the Centre party. It is said that after Wednesday's proceedings in the Reichstag doubts are no longer entertained that a Clerical and Conservative coalition has been concluded. On Thursday, Bismarck was defeated in the vote for money for the expenses of an Economical Council, notwithstanding the fact that he made a speech showing that this council was absolutely necessary, and that if money for it were not forthcoming, he would be compelled to request the governments of the various States to send their deputies to a Prussian economical council. On Friday there was a discussion on the emigration question, one speaker impliedly advising that less care be bestowed upon German emigrants on their arrival in America, as the present system was only calculated to foster the desire to emigrate. To this it was replied that the Government could not relinquish the care of emigrants either in the ports of departure or landing. It is stated that the Progressist, Secessionist, and National Liberal parties have taken measures in order that the Liberal parties may work together in future.

The Emperor William has had an interview with the President and Vice-President of the Reichstag, in the course of which he emphatically declared that his message, read at the opening of the Reichstag, was the fullest expression of his innermost convictions as to the welfare of the nation.

The speech of King Charles of Rumania in regard to the necessity of Rumanian control of the navigation of the Danube has caused trouble between Austria and that country. The Austrian Government has directed the Austrian Minister at Bucharest to suspend all personal relations with the Rumanian Cabinet until the return to Vienna of Count Kálnoky, the Austro-Hungarian Minister of Foreign Affairs. It is thought, however, that the difficulty will be arranged without much trouble.

The Servian Government will introduce into the Skuptchina in March a Jewish Emancipation Bill in conformity with the Treaty of Berlin. By this bill the Servian Jews will be placed on an equality with Jews who are Austrian subjects.

More Greek post-offices have been closed by the Turkish Government. The Porte has issued a circular to the Powers explaining that the principal motive for closing the post-offices was to retaliate for the premature closing of the Turkish post-office at Larissa. The foreign ambassadors are said to be discussing the post-office question and also the frontier difficulties.

The Russian Government has issued a decree providing that all trials for crimes against the state, as well as those especially calculated to excite the people, shall be held with closed doors, and that only the officers and the wife or one direct relative of the accused shall be admitted.

A court-martial which has excited great interest in Russia has just been brought to a close. Prince Shervashidze, who wounded a merchant in a restaurant last summer, has been found guilty and sentenced to exile in Archangel, with deprivation of his rights as a nobleman.

A St. Petersburg despatch states that the Chinese intend to fortify extensively the western frontier of Kulja next spring, and to transfer there 8,000 families to replace those who emigrated to Russia. There have been two Mussulman revolts against the Chinese garrison at Yang-Hissar during the last four months. They were attended with the usual indiscriminate massacres.

Accounts of disturbances in Ireland still continue. Torturing and killing the cattle of rent-paying farmers is a class of outrages which is growing in popularity. Opposition to rent-paying is said to be especially marked in the county of Limerick, where the Sheriff was reported on Thursday to hold 300 writs of eviction against tenants for rent due. Prof. Goldwin Smith, however, seems to find encouragement in the condition of affairs, as he has written to the *Pall Mall Gazette* that he considers the phase of agrarian crime less dangerous than the domination of the Land League. The rent-paying farmers whose cattle are being killed and who are being shot at every day or two, probably regard this as a very poor sort of consolation. The Ladies' Land League continues active operations in exorting tenants not to pay rent, and in giving assistance to those who obey their behests. A lady, Miss Reynolds by name, who has been especially conspicuous in this sort of work of late, has been served with a summons charging her with aiding and abetting a criminal conspiracy to prevent payment of rent

A great demonstration in connection with the land agitation was held at Aberdeen, Scotland, on Thursday. Two thousand delegates, representing 40,000 farmers, were present. Resolutions were adopted demanding a general reduction of rents, compensation for improvements, the abolition of the laws of hypothec and entail, and other legislation in the interest of tenant farmers. A Farmers' Alliance for Scotland was formed.

A grave robbery has been discovered in Scotland. The body of the late Earl of Crawford and Balcarres was stolen from his tomb at Dunecht some months ago, but the fact was not discovered until recently. Money is supposed to have been the motive of the thieves. No arrests have been made in connection with the matter as yet.

Mr. Samuel Morley, M. P., who has recently been travelling in the United States, made a speech on Wednesday evening, in which he said that he could bear testimony to the hearty feeling toward England which pervaded America. He also said that the Western States offered great attractions for certain classes of the surplus population of Great Britain, and recommended farmers to go there.

A meeting is to be held on Wednesday in Westminster Abbey, to consider the subject of a memorial to the late Dean Stanley. Mr. Lowell has been invited to attend the meeting, in token of the respect evinced for the memory of Dean Stanley in America.

There have been rumors circulated that the Duke of Cambridge was hostile to the appointment of Sir Garnet Wolseley as Adjutant-General of the army, but an official announcement from the War Office, to the effect that General Wolseley will, like his predecessor, transact official business under the authority and responsibility of the Commander-in-Chief, is regarded as a denial of such rumors.

In reply to several speeches in the French Chamber of Deputies, M. Gambetta said on Thursday that he was opposed to the annexation of Tunis, and that the task imposed on France by virtue of the policy she has adopted was not that of annexation, but protection. He said that the regency would prove a vigilant and necessary doorkeeper for the French colonies in Africa. He further stated that the Government had no intention of pushing military occupation to the frontier of Tripoli, because it was not desirable to have the Porte for an immediate neighbor.

M. Rouvier, the French Minister of Commerce, said on Monday that he was willing to withdraw M. Tirard's decree concerning American pork if the Americans would submit to a trustworthy system of inspection; also, that he admitted that the French Chambers ought to respond to the action of the American Congress by taking the initiative relative to the appointment of commissioners to conclude a Franco-American treaty of commerce.

At a recent meeting in Paris of the Consulting Commission of the Panama Canal, convened by M. de Lesseps, the opinion was expressed that the nature of the soil of the Isthmus had been found to be such that it was thought much of the estimated expense of construction would be saved.

The French Scientific Society has submitted a plan for the construction of a canal across France to connect the Atlantic and Mediterranean, which has been approved by the Council-General of the Seine.

It is reported that 3,000 French troops will return from Tunis to France on the 15th instant. A number of the insurgents have surrendered to the French.

The Spanish Senate has passed bills for converting the redeemable debt, and authorizing the Government to enter into negotiations with the holders of consolidated stock. In the Chamber of Deputies a resolution modifying the Parliamentary oath so as to avoid doing violence to the conscience of the deputies of any religious belief, was taken into consideration with the consent of the Ministry.

Radicals have been elected to the Presidency and Vice-Presidency of the Swiss Council of State.

The trial of Esposito, the Italian brigand, has begun in the Court of Assize at Palermo. There are six counts in the indictment.

TUESDAY, December 6, 1881.

THE GUITEAU TRIAL.

In judging the performances of Guiteau at his trial, and the course of his counsel in producing him as a witness in proof of his own insanity, we must not forget that the example of sensationalism in the conduct of the case was really set by the prosecution. It was District Attorney Corkhill who furnished the key-note of the proceedings by the utterly unnecessary minuteness with which he proved the notorious and undenied fact of the killing, and by the unnecessary and most revolting production in court of a piece of the late President's vertebræ to be handled by the jury and the prisoner. It is not surprising that after this both Guiteau and the spectators should have looked on the trial as a species of melodrama, in which everybody was entitled to make the most of his own rôle.

To Guiteau the trial is evidently the great success and the highest gratification of his life. There is probably nothing for which he has longed so much during the last twenty years as public notoriety and an attentive audience. These things he has now for the first time secured. He is more talked about at this moment than any other man in the United States, and he is eagerly listened to on his favorite topic —his own career and his mental condition at various times. But, as a correspondent well pointed out in these columns last week, the craving for fame is not a sign of insanity. In fact, the really insane, if their minds run on this point at all, believe they have secured fame already, while intense desire for it and readiness to resort to almost any means to obtain it, are a characteristic of hundreds of thousands whose capacity to bear the ordinary responsibilities of society no one doubts. Guiteau's conceit and love of talking about himself are, in fact, phenomena with which we are all familiar, not only among the sane but among the eminent and highly placed sane. We see every day able and distinguished men who think their own personality as attractive and deserving a subject as can engage the human understanding. It would never do, therefore, to allow a murderer to escape the gallows by the display of an inordinate self-esteem. It is time enough to doubt the sanity of such a man when he is satisfied that the world shares his own estimate of himself.

After one has got over the absurdity of calling a man as a witness—not as a patient—to prove his own insanity, the thing in Guiteau's testimony which is most worthy of attention is the light it throws on the lives of that large class to which he belongs, and which it is now the fashion to call "cranks." Now that his case has called unusual attention to them, it is found that everybody occupying a position in any sense prominent or public, and particularly newspaper editors, has had much experience of them. They are not absolutely cracked, but they are too unsteady and too wanting in persistence and in capacity for fixed attention to follow any regular calling successfully. They are generally much given to speculation on social and religious topics, and to the concoction of schemes of social reform. American society produces them in larger numbers than European society, because it runs less in class grooves, and presents a wider field of possibility to the philosophical as well as commercial adventurer. The rigidity of custom, and the strength of official etiquette in Europe, steady many a brain which here would go clean daft. It would, for instance, never have entered the head of an English or French Guiteau that he could get the Austrian mission or even the Paris consulship. But here it really was not such a very wild dream after all. He had seen things nearly as good go to persons whose equipment of all kinds was not indisputably better than his own.

A very great stimulus was given to the production of "cranks" by the reform movement of fifty years ago. But then it furnished them with harmless mental occupation. The people who protested against the tyranny of custom by sitting naked on their own stoops in Boston, or who asserted the non-moral quality of all spoken words by swearing profusely in the Concord stage, were not a whit saner than Guiteau. But that general expectation of the social millennium of which transcendentalism formed a part, and which spread over the world after the French Revolution of 1830, may be said to have furnished them with a wide field for their activity. They hung on to the skirts of the anti-slavery agitation in great numbers. They busied themselves with Theodore Parker's theology. They joined in the temperance movement, and made a stand against bolted flour, against meat, raw oysters, tobacco, and perpetual marriage. They started small newspapers of their own for the promotion of their favorite "ism," or published pamphlets, or established little churches which lasted until something new caught their eye. But as a rule they cared little about politics, and paid small attention to the strife of parties. The gradual decline of the transcendental state of mind; the triumph of most of the struggling reforms; the growing indifference of the public to dogmatic discussion; the failure of most of the communistic enterprises, and indeed of nearly all the early efforts after queer living, have now deprived them of perhaps as healthful an occupation as their brains could have had. Guiteau's history shows that the country no longer offers them the old opportunities of innocent fussiness. He took politics up because all other delusions and follies had failed him, and here at last he saw, what he had never lighted on in any of his other ventures, the opportunity for a great stroke.

If the public generally knew with how little respect expert testimony on the subject of insanity is regarded in courts of justice, the interest in the alienist witnesses in the Guiteau case would greatly diminish. The language used about it by the best judges has almost invariably been to the last degree contemptuous. Many of them have sarcastically described it as a kind of testimony which can be got as readily by one side as by the other in any required amount, while at least one court of established reputation has declared it to be absolutely "worthless." The reasons for this unfavorable opinion are very strong. In the first place, expert witnesses are generally retained by the party who produces them. Their value as experts depends upon their reputation and standing, and the greater this is the more they have to be paid. But it also depends entirely on their impartiality, and their impartiality is destroyed by the very fact of payment. The retaining of expert witnesses in criminal trials has long been recognized as a scandal in the administration of justice, and all expert testimony, whether paid or not—and how this may be in the Guiteau case we do not know—suffers from the suspicion attached to it.

In the second place, alienists who pass upon the question of mental disease are in reality not experts on the only material fact involved in the trial of the criminal—that of responsibility for the criminal act. What an alienist does is to pass upon the mental soundness of the prisoner, just as any ordinary physician passes upon a patient's physical soundness. What he has before him, accordingly, is not a standard of criminal responsibility, but one of mental health; and as perfect health is just as uncommon in the case of the mind as of the body, the testimony of alienists almost always discloses the startling fact that they believe a large percentage of the population of the world to be "insane." One of the experts on Monday, for instance, testified that "out of twenty-five persons in ordinary life, five are insane"; that among twenty-five ordinary business men he "would probably find five of them insane." In this statement the witness was probably perfectly sincere, but it has no bearing whatever on the question as to whether Guiteau ought to be hanged.

As has been repeatedly pointed out, this question must be decided mainly by practical tests furnished by common sense and the experience of mankind. This is precisely the point at which law and medical science on the subject of insanity diverge. To ascertain whether a criminal should be punished or not, all that justice requires to know is not whether his mind is unbalanced, or in an unhealthy condition, but whether punishment, or the fear of it, acts upon his mind as it does upon other men's. If it does, then he is responsible for his acts. The legal tests of "capacity to distinguish between right and wrong," and of knowing "the nature and quality of the act," amount to no more than this, and they are not at all the tests which an alienist applies when asked whether a criminal is sane or insane.

When, however, we reach the region of hypothetical questions in such a case as Guiteau's the investigation becomes almost farcical. The hypothetical question asked by his counsel was as follows:

"Q. Assuming it to be a fact that there was a strong hereditary taint of insanity in the blood of the prisoner at the bar; also that at about the age of thirty-five years his own mind was so much deranged that he was a fit subject to be sent to an insane asylum; also that at different times after that date, during the next succeeding five years, he manifested such decided symptoms of insanity, without simulation, that many different persons conversing with him and observing his conduct believed him to be insane; also that in or about the month of June, 1881, at or about the expiration of said term of five years, he became demented by the idea that he was inspired of God to remove by death the President of the United States; also that he acted on what he

believed to be such inspiration, and on what he believed to be in accordance with the Divine will in the preparation for and in the accomplishment of such a purpose; also that he committed the act of shooting the President under what he believed to be a Divine command which he was not at liberty to disobey, and which belief made out a conviction which controlled his conscience and overpowered his will as to that act so that he could not resist the mental pressure upon him; also that immediately after the shooting he appeared calm and as if relieved by the performance of a great duty; also that there was no other adequate motive for the act than the conviction that he was executing the Divine will for the good of his country—assuming all of these propositions to be true, state whether, in your opinion, the prisoner was sane or insane at the time of shooting President Garfield?"

In other words, if he was insane at various times down to the shooting of the President, was he probably sane when he shot him? This is not a very good specimen of a hypothetical question, but its absurdity is only an extreme illustration of the general uselessness of the class of testimony to which the answer it was framed to bring out belongs. The hypothesis is always a mere array of what the counsel who frames it assumes, rightly or wrongly, to have been proved on the trial, stated in the most extreme way for the benefit of his client, and the answer up to which it leads is determined by the form and character of the question.

There has probably never been a case in the history of crime in which expert testimony was likely to prove so utterly worthless as in Guiteau's. It is obvious to any one who has followed the trial that he is not mentally sound. His behavior from the first has been such as would be impossible if his mind were in a healthy state. No expert testimony can make this fact any plainer than it is now. But it is not to find out that he is a "crank" that the trial is going on. What the jury have got to decide is whether, in the case of men like Guiteau, punishment has the same salutary effect that it has in the case of ordinary criminals. It does not require that he should have a well-balanced mind for this; and consequently the opinion of experts as to his sanity or insanity is very nearly irrelevant, while their opinion as to the sanity or insanity of a hypothetical Guiteau, imagined by his counsel, may be set down as totally worthless.

THE SPEAKERSHIP OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

The Speaker of the House of Representatives is the most powerful man in the Government next to the President himself. While it is the President's constitutional duty to execute the laws, and he is entrusted with certain limited powers to that end, the Speaker exercises, or at least can exercise, upon the making of the laws not only more influence than the President, but sometimes even more than the majority of the House over which he presides. The principal legislative work of the House of Representatives is done in the committees. There bills are discussed, amended, and prepared in detail. The House itself is more a voting than a deliberating body. Debate is limited, and generally exercises scarcely any influence upon the votes of members, except when so directed as to make an impression upon public opinion calculated to frighten time-serving politicians in Congress. To change a legislative measure in the House against the wish of the committee having it in charge, is very difficult unless the attempt be aided by the Speaker. It is, in the first place, the privilege of the Speaker to appoint the committees which prepare legislation. Then it is the Speaker who "recognizes" members who claim the floor. It is within his power to give the preference to this one or that one, as he may prefer the proposition to be brought forward by this one or that one. He construes in the first instance and enforces the complicated rules of the House, which are a profound mystery to most members, and he may construe and enforce them, or omit to enforce them, in favor of or against motions or amendments as he may favor or oppose these, and the ruling of the Speaker is but rarely reversed by a vote of the House. The action or pretended action of the House of Representatives is not seldom so rapid and confused that scarcely anybody but the presiding officer knows what is going on, and he may sometimes put motions to a vote and declare them carried or defeated without attracting the attention of anybody except those immediately interested. It is, therefore, assumed by many that when the Speaker is in favor of a measure his support is almost as good as a majority, and that when the Speaker earnestly opposes a bill its friends will have to be very keen and active to save its chances. It is needless to point out how dangerously such a power may be abused when entrusted to an unscrupulous man.

The first quality, therefore, a Speaker should possess, to do full justice to the requirements of his position, is that impartiality which rises above all selfish considerations. He should never forget that it is his duty not to do legislative business for the House, or even without the House, but to guide the House in doing that business according to the true sense of the majority. The second requirement for a successful conduct of the Speaker's office is of course a sufficient acquaintance with the rules and with parliamentary practice and precedent, and that quickness and clearness of insight, and promptness of judgment and decision, necessary for the control of a large and somewhat unruly assembly. If the Speaker has in his bearing that natural force of authority which makes itself obeyed, so much the better. It is needless to say that a combination of all these qualities is not very frequently found.

The Republican caucus of the House of Representatives last Saturday nominated for the Speakership Mr. Joseph Warren Keifer of Ohio. Mr. Keifer achieved an honorable reputation as a soldier in the war of the Rebellion, and occupied, not a prominent, but a respectable position in the House of Representatives. There is nothing in his record which suggests a particular reason why he of all men should be chosen Speaker; but comparing him with the other gentlemen mentioned as candidates for the place, there is no apparent reason why he should not be chosen. He is a man of irreproachable character and good impulses. He will undoubtedly try to wield his power in the interest of the public good. His abilities have, by the common opinion of his colleagues, not been rated far above mediocrity. Whether he is as conversant with rules and parliamentary practice as a Speaker should be will soon become known. The minority is strong enough to give him trouble. But he has a certain dignity of manner which not seldom goes with moderate parts, and sufficient affability to conciliate good feeling. If Mr. Keifer does not make a "great Speaker," it may certainly be said that among his competitors there was, except perhaps Mr. Kasson, nobody that might have made a greater one.

Mr. Keifer owes his good fortune to a combination which may embarrass him if he permits it to exercise much influence over him. His nomination was brought about by the interference of Senator Cameron, who induced the Republican members from Pennsylvania to aid in carrying out the decree of the "bosses" that Mr. Hiscock must be punished. The fight between the Stalwarts and Anti-Stalwarts is therefore to go on. The more the old issues between the great political parties become obliterated, the more animated becomes the war of factions inside of them. This is a natural development which will lead to others equally natural. But the "bosses," after all, lack shrewdness. They permit their vindictiveness to run away with their common sense, and this never pays. The New York "bosses" have certainly not strengthened themselves by destroying the chance of a Representative of New York for the Speakership. The "bosses," it seems, have ceased to be sharp politicians.

A SHIPPING REVIVAL.

The somewhat familiar plan for the revival of our ocean carrying-trade which Mr. John Roach submitted to the Tariff Convention differs from other schemes considered by that body in this respect: the latter are intended to continue the fostering process of protection in its application to actual and flourishing industries; the former proposes to create off-hand an industry which has no existence. For the illustration which Mr. Roach triumphantly finds in our coast carrying-trade is really no illustration at all. It may be true that in ten years we have built for that traffic 120 iron and twenty-five wooden steamships, with a total tonnage of 27,563; but we have done it because the coasting trade is absolutely prohibited to foreign nations. The increase of this business, which Mr. Roach says "has exceeded our unparalleled progress in manufacturing industries," is not due to bounties and subsidies, but to the actual exclusion of foreign owners and builders from it. Merchants engaged in this trade have bought dear American ships because they were not allowed to buy any others. Mr. Roach has sold ships for this trade, notwithstanding the higher wages and heavier taxes which builders on the Delaware have to pay as compared with builders on the Clyde, because he has had a monopoly of the market. Commerce along the coast must go in American bottoms, and American bottoms must be launched from American yards or that commerce must cease.

It is scarcely necessary to say that this prohibition cannot be applied to the foreign carrying-trade. We may indeed declare that the flag of the Union shall float only over ships

built in American yards—our navigation laws do so declare; but we cannot declare that there shall be no commerce between this country and Europe except in American bottoms. If we could do that, our ocean trade might soon rival our coasting-trade in growth. But if we should shut English, German, and French ships out of our ports, Great Britain, Germany, and France would shut American ships out of their ports; and in that event it would not be worth while for us to have ocean-going vessels. The illustration which Mr. Roach draws from our prosperous and exclusive coasting-trade, therefore, is not pertinent to a foreign trade in which our high-priced American ships must compete with low-priced English ships.

From the published reports of his address it does not appear that Mr. Roach lays so much stress upon the question of taxes, as related to the shipping interest, as he did some months ago in a letter to the *Evening Post* accounting for the failure of his Brazilian line. Perhaps his silence in the circumstances is not surprising. From oppressive taxes levied by a State to burdensome customs-duties imposed by the United States, the advance is easy, and it would lead a paper-reader before a Tariff Convention upon forbidden ground. We agree with Mr. Roach that ships should be relieved of local taxation so far as possible. When a British owner is assessed only upon the income or profits from his ship, while an American owner is assessed upon the value of his ship without regard to income or profits, the inequality is obvious. We go farther than Mr. Roach, however. We contend not only that ships should be relieved of local taxation, but that foreign articles which enter into the construction of a ship should be free of duty. But so far as a revival of shipping is concerned high taxes furnish an argument for the free-ship policy rather than against it, because, if taxes add to the cost of shipowning, there is the stronger reason for allowing owners to buy ships where they are cheapest. It is worth noting, by the way, that the passage by the Legislature of this State of a law to exempt ships from taxation has not elicited from Mr. Roach those lively expressions of gratitude which might reasonably have been looked for.

It is a mistake to suppose that a shipping revival can be effected by turning the hand or by passing an act of Congress. No "policy" whatever would accomplish so magical a result as to bring to life forthwith a dead industry. We have so far lost the maritime habit, and other nations have so far outstripped us in the race of the seas, that if the most liberal measures were adopted, if unjust taxes and tariffs were set aside, if the navigation laws were repealed to-morrow and our merchants were allowed to buy the best ships in he cheapest markets, our recovery would be gradual and slow. Still less would the flag be restored to the ocean by the most lavish system of subsidies. Apart altogether from the essential wrong of that policy, it would not accomplish what some persons expect of it. It might enable Mr. Roach to sell a few ships, but it would not restore the lost ocean carrying-trade. That trade is a business and must be founded upon broad business principles. A Congress which granted a subsidy one year might withdraw it the next year. Intelligent and farseeing men of business will not risk their capital upon the caprice of Legislatures and politicians. They will not waste their time in enterprises which do not promise to be self-sustaining upon ordinary commercial considerations. The ocean carrying-trade, upon a field of fair competition, might be made such an enterprise, although foreigners have secured such advantages over us that the work would be laborious and tedious; but upon no other ground is a shipping revival possible.

MR. GLADSTONE'S NEW IRISH DIFFICULTY.

The Irish troubles of the Gladstone Cabinet appear still far from at an end, owing undoubtedly to a miscalculation about the working of the Land Act. The Land Commission, which was organized to carry it out, was apparently organized on the assumption that only a few cases would come before it, and that, in the majority of cases, the landlords and tenants would settle their differences about rent by private negotiation, on the basis furnished by the decisions of the Commission. It now appears highly probable that the judgment of the Court will be asked for by one-quarter if not one-half of the tenants, or, in other words, that it is not unreasonable to anticipate from 100,000 to 150,000 applications to have a "judicial rent" fixed. This would give the Commission, with its present force, in spite of the appointment of several sub-commissions, work enough, it is said, for fifteen years to come, and at best would leave most of the applications undecided for three or four years to come. It is plain, in fact, that instead of two or three sub-commissions, there must be one for every county, or thirty-two in all, and that the powers of every one of these would be tasked to the uttermost. The work of fixing a "judicial rent" is by no means confined to hearing counsel and examining witnesses in court. It involves a visit to the farm in litigation, and the examination of the soil in portions of it, and ocular inspection of the whole of it, often in places very remote from that in which the Commission sits. In this way a single case, however simple, can hardly help occupying two or three days.

As yet the Government has taken no decided steps in the way of preparation for the enormous mass of business with which the courts are threatened, and the result is a feeling of disappointment among the tenants, and of renewed hopefulness among the landlords, which furnishes the "no-rent" agitators with a renewed opportunity for pushing their own programme. In other words, they have apparently thus far succeeded in "swamping," or paralyzing, the Land Court, and in maintaining the condition of doubt or uncertainty which was their main capital. Accordingly, larger and larger numbers of the tenants are reported as undertaking to anticipate the action of the court by refusing to pay rent without a heavy reduction. The reduction is perhaps not greater than the court would order, and not so great as English landlords are making voluntarily; but it is imposed on the landlords by combination in defiance of the law, and made to cover the rent already due. To make this resistance more effective, "outrages" are being again resorted to as the nights grow longer, and include every species of violence, from murder and mayhem down to the maiming of cattle. The chances are, too, unhappily, that they will increase in number as the winter advances. How to repress them is now the question which perhaps more than any other occupies the public mind in England, and it is so important that it may be said not untruly to put the very existence of the Gladstone Cabinet in some peril.

The situation is briefly this: The Coercion Bill, which the Ministry passed reluctantly and at the last moment, and at the risk of alienating their more radical followers, has failed. It has not produced the slightest effect on the "village tyrants," or "dissolute ruffians"—the classes at which Mr. Forster said it was aimed—while it has, by locking up a considerable number of orators and writers, including four members of Parliament, justified the worst fears of the English Radicals about its operation. It has apparently had no effect whatever on the outrages. The situation is, therefore, considerably worse than it was before coercion was tried, because the next step to be taken is much less clear.

Accordingly, a discussion is now gradually beginning as to the advisableness of trying a suspension of trial by jury for a certain class of offences which the peasantry do not consider disgraceful in any case, and in agrarian matters look on as positively praiseworthy. It is now universally admitted that no convictions can be obtained for any of the crimes called "outrages" about land. It is, therefore, suggested that the magistrates or judges should be given increased powers of summary conviction. But even if this were done, and all the odium incurred to which a Liberal Government would inevitably expose itself by any restriction on the right of trial by jury, there would still remain the difficulty of getting evidence. Witnesses willing to testify in land cases are just as scarce in Ireland as jurymen willing to convict. Having tried this, if it failed, too, the Ministry would find itself face to face with the terrible alternative of having either to acknowledge complete defeat in their chief enterprise, or to resort to martial law in its worst form—namely, that in which the commanding officer shoots every man whose looks he does not like, or who is found out of doors after nightfall, or who cannot give a good account of himself. It is not surprising that under these circumstances the *Pall Mall Gazette* calls for two or three years' patience while the pending experiment is being tried. It is very unlikely, however, that the British public will now begin the display of a virtue which, in the case of Ireland, they have never shown any sign of possessing.

GOOD READING FOR PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

A large part of the pernicious reading in public libraries arises from the ignorance on the

part of the readers that there is anything better. People take up what is laid before them. A certain portion, no doubt, long for and ask for literary food with a "high" flavor; and another portion cannot digest anything solid; but the rest have no ineradicable objection to a good style, to some little information, and a moderate amount of thought. Indeed, we can go further. In New England at least, though transcendentalism, we are told, has run out, the desire for self-improvement, self-culture, which accompanied it has not yet disappeared. But people's knowledge in the matter does not equal either their desires or their perseverance. They do not know where to begin, or in what direction or how to go on; hence courses of reading, Chautauqua societies, and the like. Nevertheless, these do not reach everybody, and the evil remains that the boy and the young woman and the unliterary adult are turned at large into the town library with less likelihood of getting what is best for them than the cattle on the town common. With certain obvious exceptions, everything is at their call, and everything is presented to them in the catalogue as of equal merit. Books for the young, books for the old, books for the learned, books for the ignorant, books for the studious in search of knowledge, for the tired in search of recreation, for the lazy in search of amusement, are all mingled pell-mell with not the slightest indication of their difference.

It is not that the want had not been felt and pointed out often enough, but the difficulties of execution were great, and seemed enormous. Most libraries find it burden enough to get any kind of a catalogue. A select list offers the advantage of shortness, to be sure, but the preparation of notes demands another sort of ability from the copying and digesting of titles, and the fancied need of perfection was an insuperable obstacle. However careful the compiler might be, he was sure to lay himself open to criticism: only omniscience knows the best books in every branch of science. The luckless editor might get in among the juveniles a book better suited to mature readers, or declare a novel to be "sensational" which the readers would label "stupid"; he was sure to leave out Mrs. A's favorite poet, or to assign the wrong grade of merit to the history which Mr. B knows by heart. The difficulty of suiting all tastes is well known; in literature more than anything else, to coin a proverb, What's one man's trash is another man's treat. Only a wise foolhardiness could venture to encounter such perils. However, a real need is usually supplied sooner or later. Annotated catalogues we have had now for some time; of classed ones—classed according to the persons for whom they were intended, not by the subjects of the books—a beginning was made, as our readers may remember, at Quincy, Mass., in the last issue of the general catalogue, which contained some short lists of fiction "for boys from eleven to fourteen," "from twelve to sixteen," "from fourteen upward," "for girls from ten to fifteen," "from thirteen upward," etc. This apparently was found a good practice, but not good enough, because the lists were lost in the mass of other matter. Mr. Adams has now gone further and printed an exclusively "Children's book-list," intended for gratuitous distribution in the public schools.

Two numbers have appeared, one of four pages, devoted to "Fiction," "Fairy Tales," and "Historical Fiction"; the other, of three pages, to "Biography," "History," "Science and Natural History," "Travel and Adventure," and "Miscellaneous." We have not been able to get the opinion of youthful readers; to us the list seems unobjectionable, except that Abbott's so-called "Histories" would go quite as well in the class of Historical Romances, and Oliver Optic's books should not go in at all. But on one point we find the doctors disagreeing. Two critics, both of whom have much experience of the practical interworking of the library and the school, declare, the one (librarian) that the list is not a quarter long enough, the other (school teacher in another city) that there are twice as many books as children ought to read.

The first objector will be better satisfied with Mr. Larned's "Books for Young Readers," prepared for the Young Men's Library at Buffalo, a small pamphlet of sixty-three pages, containing about 1,900 titles, divided into sixty-five classes, and grouped in each class into three grades, as being severally adapted—1, to the very youngest readers; 2, to boys and girls of an intermediate age; 3, to young people who are approaching maturity and may profitably begin to share the reading of their elders. Moreover, about a third of the titles have prefixed an *, which leads the eye to the word "Recommended," printed at the bottom of each page. It will be seen that Mr. Larned has undertaken everything except writing notes, and run all risks, and it is plain from some modest words in the preface that he knows the dangers, and thinks it better to do as well as he can and take his chance than to leave so desirable a work undone; a determination for which his young clients ought to thank him. The library has printed enough copies to be able to sell some to other libraries. Trustees could not make a better investment. A large portion of the books in this list must be in every town library, and if the "recommended" books are wanting anywhere, some of them might well be procured.

Some time ago a work of similar character for more advanced readers was undertaken by the American Library Association—an annotated hand-book of good reading, or list of 5,000 titles of the best books in all departments of knowledge—best, that is, for the general reader: 5,000 books which no town library should be without. The selection was to be carefully made and the notes prepared by one editor, but he was to get assistance from every competent person whom he could induce to give him hints or to criticise his work. According to the plan, which was almost utopian, the whole book was to be kept permanently in type, and the best new publications added to the successive editions, room being made for them by dropping titles of such works as were least valuable or seemed obsolescent. This addition would have been a very valuable feature; the leaving out would have been in itself less important, and a work of extreme difficulty. Nor would the gradual growth of such a manual, by an excess of literary births over deaths, have been an evil, provided it did not make the manual too bulky and too costly. This, however, is a question for the editor and the finance manager; it does not concern the public. The plan excited much enthusiasm at the Library Conference held in Boston in 1879. Enough subscribers to guarantee the success of the first edition were readily obtained, the work was put in hand, but nothing has yet appeared, and, till lately, discouraging replies have been returned to the questions of impatient subscribers. We hope that some rumors of renewed activity and approaching publication are to be trusted; for such a work will not only be a guide to the book-buyer and the studious reader, like Appletons' 'Library Manual' and Putnam's 'Best Reading,' and induce a certain number of persons to pursue a very much better course of reading than they would otherwise do, by facilitating their selection of good books, but it might even be used as a library catalogue, at least in some of our newer or our future libraries, and as a supplementary catalogue by older collections, the trustees buying all, or as nearly all as their funds would allow, of the books in the list, and then having an edition struck off with their own book-numbers printed in.

The advantage is obvious. People will read, as we have already said, what is placed before them, especially if it is recommended to them not offensively. A library with 5,000 excellent and interesting books well catalogued under subjects, and 5,000 other inferior books catalogued in the most perfunctory way, and gradually withdrawn as they wore out, would find more and more demand for the better portion, and its circulation would be of much higher quality than that of a library of equal size consisting of ordinary books with an ordinary catalogue. We say nothing of the saving in expense to any library in having so large a part of its catalogue made to its hand—a saving which would outweigh any inconvenience that could arise from the use of two catalogues in the library. Except 'Poole's Index,' no more promising kind of coöperation has been suggested by the Library Association.

ÉDOUARD PAILLERON AND HIS PLAYS.

PARIS, Nov. 16.

THE most successful comedy of the last season was "Le Monde où l'on s'ennuie" of M. Pailleron; and judging by the representations of the piece which are taking place at the present moment, it has a chance of going through a second season. The piece is wonderfully well played at the Théâtre-Français; it is amusing, it is clever, it has parts which remind you of the "Précieuses ridicules," and other parts which remind you of the "Mariage de Figaro." The public sees known personages under some of the names, and naturally delights in these "personalities." The piece is as light as possible, and of the thinnest texture, but it is full of life, of "bons mots," of such words as everybody can repeat in daily intercourse. The chief cause of its success, however, lies perhaps in the fact that by its very lightness, its gayety, its anti-pedantic tendency, it is in contrast with the last pieces of Alexandre Dumas. The long tirades of Dumas, the novelist, the renovator of morals, the serious argumentizer on love, on divorce, on natural children, have fairly tired the public. We have had enough of all these serious analyzers of human passions; of the doctrinaires of the demi-monde, of the *vibrions*, of the fatality of vice, of the heredity of passion, and so on. We have now an old-fashioned comedy in modern costume, in which nobody is profound, and the only people who pretend to be profound are ridiculous and ridiculed; in which love is simple, natural, almost vulgar, and which does not pretend to make new laws for a new world—a commonplace comedy, which keeps us laughing for a few hours, and sends us home contented, not over-fatigued, and gives us the comfortable feeling that we belong to a society which is not rotten, nor absurdly organized, nor threatened with dissolution. A play of Dumas's has always something apocalyptic; M. Pailleron's have no "tendency" whatever—they are mere photographs.

M. Pailleron, who has become very practical and, it may be said, prosaic, began, however, as a poet. His début in the literary world was a volume of verses, 'Les Parasites,' published in 1861. As he was then already twenty-seven years old, he is therefore now forty-seven years old. His verses were satirical; this *bourgeois de Paris*—for he is a son of Paris—attacked the bourgeois class with studied violence. There

was not much sincerity in these attacks; they were a little, as the French say, *voulues*:

"Bourgeois, produit bâtard d'un accès de cynisme,
De la liberté lasse avec la royauté,
. . . . C'est toi qui posas sur le patriotisme
L'étouffoir étouffant de la cupidité!"

There was, perhaps, not much more reality in Pailleron's effusions when he announced the end of war, the political millennium; when he spoke of liberty and fraternity. There was already at that time a part of himself which could judge the other half; there was irony in him even when he played with the great words of the revolutionary school. There was wisdom in his folly; there was also much healthiness concealed under his poetical sufferings. One cannot pity him much when he speaks of his desires, his vague hopes, his ardent dreams.

In 1869 he published a second volume of verses, now forgotten, like the first. 'Amours et Haines' marks no real progress. "La Morte" is the best piece in this volume, and is inferior to the minor poems of our new school. Curiously enough, the best part of M. Pailleron in this new volume is the "bourgeois." As a husband, as a father, he finds natural touches; he has in fact become a bourgeois. He can speak with conviction of the natural emotions of man; he speaks now of love, of conjugal love, of paternal love, with a certain sense of reality. We can only find fault with him for trying at times to say too much; for becoming too eloquent and too communicative.

Pailleron had not found his path as a poet. He was, he is, essentially a dramatist. There is no lyric vein in his cheerful, objective nature. He has the brightness of a mirror; he can reflect the outside world with a wonderful exactitude, but he has none of the characteristics of the poet. His début on the stage was a short act, "Le Parasite," written in 1860 for the Odéon, the Providence of the young dramatist, the second Théâtre-Français. It was an imitation of the "Ciguë" of Augier, in the false Greek style which was for a time the fashion. This style, which originated in the plays of Menander and Plautus, is now quite abandoned. When the "Ciguë" appeared, it was considered as the sign of a reaction of the Classical schools against the Romantic. But the Romantics have it all their own way now. The cleverest imitations of Plautus and Terence are wanting in life, in reality; they are as cold as the classic school of the Empire. In the "Mur mitoyen," written in 1861, Pailleron becomes modern; it is a clever "bluette." "Le Dernier Quartier" (1863) has remained in what is called the repertory of the French Theatre; it is still played as a "lever de rideau." It is in the form which is best suited for Pailleron's talents—clever conversations, not much intrigue, a bit of sentiment mixed up with much Parisian wit—something like a delicate breakfast or a light supper. The "Dernier Quartier" is the last quarter of a honeymoon spent in the country. *Raymond*, the husband, is happy, but so tired of his happiness that he has but one idea, that of returning to Paris in order to see a certain Caroline; he learns in time that Caroline is not faithful to his memory, and becomes reconciled with his wife, who had thought him already unfaithful, and who threatened to separate from him. Can there be anything more ordinary than this subject, more commonplace? It would even be distasteful if *Raymond* was in earnest; but he is not in earnest. The whole thing is a succession of agreeable nothings; it amuses, it makes you laugh; and, strangely enough, at times, it almost moves you.

There are several pieces by Pailleron which have this very light texture. In one, the "Autre Motif," a lady, separated from her husband, and consequently much courted, discourages all her lovers by saying to them at the critical moment, "I am a widow." The adorers invariably run away. The husband dies; a serious lover goes to our lady and reveals his flame. She says again, "Je suis veuve." "I know it," says he. You can imagine the rest: they explain themselves and get married. "L'Étincelle" is often played, and it is impossible to imagine anything better played than it is by the three personages, Delaunay and Mlles. Croizette and Samary. It is again a "proverb," after the fashion of the lightest of Musset's. "Petite Pluie" (1875) and "Pendant le Bal" (1881) belong to the same order of plays: they are "situations" rather than comedies—pictures not of a life or of a year, but of a moment. They are, so to speak, impressions, and, in that sense belong to the modern impressionist school, with this difference, that the impressionist painters care especially for the truth, and Pailleron's truth is as artificial as possible: it is a sort of truth which does not come out of a well, but out of a rich boudoir, furnished in the best fashion. Pailleron has been eminently successful in this *genre*, but he has had a higher ambition—he has tried his hand at the great comedy. He wrote a sort of socialistic drama called "Les Faux Ménages" (in 1869). The "faux ménages" are unions which are neither acknowledged by the church nor by the law; they are the "false marriages" which necessarily are the rivals, the enemies, of real marriage. Such a subject is better fitted for Alexandre Dumas *fils*, who delights in all social maladies. Pailleron's play left on me a rather painful impression, such as you have when you have been without any artistic profit in a very dirty city. It was only a semi-success. "Hélène" (1872) was a total failure. I remember seeing the first representation of it. Pailleron has such a reputation for luck that nobody would believe in a defeat; but the defeat was real, and I confess having completely forgotten this unfortunate *tragédie bourgeoise*.

Pailleron is very intelligent; he understood at once that he had made an error, and he returned to real comedy. He cannot make us cry, but he can make us laugh. "Le Second Mouvement," "Le Monde où l'on s'amuse," "L'Âge ingrat," "Le Monde où l'on s'ennuie," written between 1865 and 1881, mark a great progress. Pailleron has decidedly found his manner: he throws three or four intrigues into one; shows us a sort of quick succession of *tableaux vivants*, not motionless and silent, but full of life, of movement, of animation, of agitation. His men and women all belong to modern Paris; they are, morally speaking, in a perpetual electric light—they live in a sort of irradiation. They may be in love or not in love, young or old, they are always "on the move." The light touches of these pieces are made with a sure hand; there is here and there something coarse, something even vulgar; but vulgarity and coarseness are necessary shades in social pictures. The most delightful feature of these plays is their utter modesty: Pailleron has no object; he evidently does not believe in the "holy mission of the theatre"; he does not mean to alter the "Code Napoléon," to give us a new moral standard. He has left all these ambitions to others; he contents himself with amusing the public. This want of pretension is very refreshing at a time when even the actors and actresses think themselves the regenerators of society; when you hear all sorts of phrases about the mission of art, the mission of the press. The "Monde où l'on s'ennuie" marks the revolt of the Parisian *esprit* against pedantry: it might be called "Les Précieux ridicules."

Correspondence.

THE YALE JUBILEE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The account of the New York Yale Jubilee published in the daily papers ought to have shamed every sober graduate of the University. What purported to be a report of the final address was, if not utterly inane, disgusting in abuse of a distinguished friend and benefactor of another university, whose modesty and unexampled generosity are worthy of an ideal New York Yale alumnus. A hope that this reported address might be forgotten as a bibulous "overflow of vulgarity" extemporized at the end of a too convivial jubilee, is destroyed by "A Yale Graduate" in your last number. That his verdict may not stand in your columns as the common verdict of Yale graduates is, I trust, a sufficient excuse for this letter. S. I. Smith.

New Haven, Dec. 2, 1881.

[The most remarkable thing about the "jubilee" was not that college graduates should have produced it. College education does not make a man over, and there will always be a considerable number of university men whose standard of fun does not rise above that of a party of "Bowery bhoys" in a cheap oyster-saloon. The most surprising thing in the performance was that a graduate could have been found who was willing to report his Alma Mater's shame for a newspaper, and publish it as a charming *jeu d'esprit*.—Ed. Nation.]

MRS. DALL'S CALIFORNIAN EXPERIENCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you permit me to say in your columns that the "desolation and dreariness" which my cousins turned into "delight" had nothing to do with the charming town of Stockton? I thought I had chaunted the praises of that place with sufficient emphasis. The "desolation" was the desolation of dining-rooms and restaurants all along the way, against which every invalid should be warned. When I saw what your critic said about "volcanic limestone" it seemed to me impossible that I could have used these words without some explanation of the manner in which they came to me, but on referring to the pages I find your critic in the right. At Denver the lovely building stone which attracted my attention was called "sandstone," and I was told it was "bowlder rock," or brought from the neighborhood of that town. None of the guide-books told anything more about it. At Colorado Springs I found it had been used for the college buildings, and I told President Tenney about my perplexity and asked what it was. He replied that it was a "volcanic limestone," which had been used by the Spaniards in Mexico three hundred years ago. It is hard, never crumbles, and will support no vegetation whatever. Several times after this I heard this same adjective applied to the stone. One person said it was a limestone deposited by geysers, but it does not look as if that had happened. I tried to bring a specimen away, but it was too heavy.

Will you allow me to add in this connection that the publication of this volume is teaching me what may be a much-needed lesson in regard to mental perspective? In a volume of 430 pages it is possible that fifteen may be devoted to statements which do not redound to the credit of the fruit, the manners, the food, or the emigrants whom I encountered. I supposed that if I stated things exactly as they happened, I could

not fail to give a true idea of them. I was not in the least annoyed by what I found, but I did not find what I had been told to expect. Should I, in order to produce a proper effect, have held back some of the trivial statements? I expected that critics would be interested in the new things, or perhaps I should say the *untold* things, about the Indians, the Mormons, and the Chinese, but their whole attention seems to be devoted to those which interested me so little that I could not have remembered them if I had not written them down at the time. Is this a fault in me or in the English language, which seems powerless to express what I enjoyed? or is it partly due to the surprise with which readers receive an account at variance with that given by persons who have made the whole journey with free passes? People usually go to California in winter. I went in summer; but it must be remembered that invalids must stay through the summer. In speaking of these things lately to a gentleman of much experience I was met by this inquiry: "We hear nothing but praises of California fruit and Chinese laundries. How is it that you are the first person to disenchant us in regard to both? It is very strange." To this I was able in reply to say what perhaps it is as well that a wider audience should hear:

"If you reflect, you will not think it so strange. The public who gave the reputation to California fruit was a public composed of miners, trappers, and emigrants—men who had been paying five dollars apiece for apples, and who naturally rejoiced over the juicy, though rather tasteless harvest. In the same way, the advent of the Chinese was a great blessing to men who had done their own washing and cooking for years. My own cousins, and many other persons whom I met, had been in California for thirty years. Many of them did not hesitate to say that they had never employed a Chinese servant, and all agreed as to the deficient flavor of the fruit when compared with that of New England."

It would be a comfort to authors if critics could remember that one may correct an error in spelling through six proofs and then have it reappear in the "cast," where it is somewhat difficult to throw it out in season for a first edition. Perhaps a proper system of apprenticeship, or something akin to it, in the printing houses, would be the best remedy for this.

CAROLINE H. DALL.

WASHINGTON, D. C., November 25, 1881.

THE SITE OF HOMERIC TROY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The site of Homeric Troy, in spite of the excavations of Dr. Schliemann at Hissarlik, is as much as ever a disputed question among those who believe that the plot of the 'Iliad' rests upon an historic foundation. The topographical explorations which have been made in the Troad establish conclusively enough that there are but two places which can in any measure satisfy the conditions of the Homeric site—Hissarlik and Bunarbashi. There are serious obstacles against the exact identification of either of these places with the Troy of the 'Iliad'; but perhaps, as Grote says (edit. 1869, i., p. 324), "the mistake consists in applying to Homer, and to the Homeric siege of Troy, criticisms which would be perfectly just if brought to bear on the Athenian siege of Syracuse, as described by Thucydides, but which are not more applicable to the epic narrative than they would be to the exploits of Amadis or Orlando."

Professor A. H. Sayce, who is a zealous advocate of the views of Dr. Schliemann, says in his "Notes from Journeys in the Troad and Lycia" (*Journal of Hellenic Studies*, i., page 75 *et seq.*): "If Troy ever existed, it could have only been on the site of Hissarlik. There is no other site, at once so ancient, so commanding, and so conveniently situated near the sea, in the whole of the Troad." Mr. W. J. Stillman, on the other hand, in his interesting letter published in the *Nation* of May 5, 1881, affirms that "there is not an argument which can be brought in favor of Hissarlik which cannot equally be invoked in aid of Bunarbashi," and that "there are, in favor of the latter, many which are directly opposed to the former." Mr. Stillman cites, too, the work of Nicolaïdes on the topography and strategy of the 'Iliad,' and says that in it "the argument is elaborated with what seems to me incontestable success"; and, "with map in hand, every day's fighting is followed, with every personal movement, with an exactitude and consistency which are a curious instance of the observance of the unities in the poem—Bunarbashi being admitted as the site."

It is allowed by the majority of archæologists of note that the so-called "Ilium Novum"—the Hellenic Ilion—was originally an Æolic settlement, which, after shifting its site several times, was finally established in the time of the Lydians—perhaps as late as the reign of Crœsus—at Hissarlik (Professor R. C. Jebb, in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies*, ii., page 7, *et seq.*, "Homeric and Hellenic Ilium"). It is not necessary to repeat here the arguments put forth by Professor Jebb in this important article, both for and against the possibility of identifying the mound of Hissarlik with the Troy of Homer. I will only add that it is established conclusively by Mr. Stillman in his letter to the *Nation*, and by Professor Jebb (at much greater length), in his article above alluded to, "that the belief that Homeric Troy had been utterly destroyed, and that the site had thenceforth remained desolate, formed an essential part of the Trojan legend, not merely in popular Greek rumor, but also in the view of those ancients whose treatment of tradition was more critical"; that in 332–330 B. C., as testified by an oration of Lycurgus, it was commonly believed that the site of Homeric Troy was still desolate, in accordance with the curses of its conquerors, and that consequently the Hellenic Ilion did not stand on the site of Troy.

The question may yet be decided by a more thorough archæological investigation of Hissarlik and Bunarbashi than has heretofore been made. Toward the end of last September three members of the Expedition of the Archæological Institute of America at Assos—Messrs. Diller (the geologist of the Expedition), C. H. Walker, and William C. Lawton—made a summary examination of the Trojan plain, under the kind guidance of Mr. Frank Calvert, the well-known archæologist. Mr. Lawton has written to the president of the Institute a very complete account of this excursion; and some extracts from his letter, relating to Bunarbashi and to Hissarlik, will be read with interest while we await the publication of the full report of the party, with their admirable plans and sketches—several of which are already in the possession of the Institute.

". . . The maximum length of the Acropolis of Bunarbashi, inside the walls, is 190 metres. Von Hahn has run ditches along the outside of all the walls on the western side, and at the eastern gate. He has also traced the whole outer wall of the rectangular building within the exterior fortification. The oldest piece of wall is at the western extremity of the Acropolis; this wall is inclined, built of large, irregular stones, and is evidently the base of a tower. From here to the main gate (at the northwestern corner), the courses are quite regular, and of squared stones. This gateway is so choked with rubbish that further excavations will be necessary to determine its exact plan. Beyond this gate runs from west to east the best surviving piece of Hellenic wall, forming part of the northern wall of the Acropolis. Von Hahn has excavated it to the depth of about two metres, but he has not reached the foundations at any point. Not far from the principal gate, upon this north wall of the Acropolis, are the remains of a second tower, commanding a smaller gate. The foundations of a third tower, resting on the natural rock, can be traced at the northeast corner. The rest of the wall of the Acropolis has not been excavated; but much of it can be followed on the surface. The southern side of the Acropolis retains no indication of having been strongly fortified; but it bears unmistakable remains of terraces, flights of steps cut in the rock, and house walls—which last may have afforded sufficient protection, as this side of the hill is almost inaccessible from below. At the eastern end the natural rock crops up frequently, but toward the southwest the accumulation of earth appears to be great. The large rectangular building about the middle of the Acropolis has never been excavated inside. The two adjacent circular structures on the lower plateau, just within the exterior fortification wall on the west, have been excavated to the depth of half a metre, by Von Hahn, at their point of tangency. They now consist merely of light stone walls, with a slight depression within. The remains of the fortification wall, which is so completely ruined as to resemble nothing more than a low earthwork, extend in a direction 20° west of north, across the neck which connects the rocky projection forming the Acropolis with the heights behind. This wall can be traced for a distance of 130 metres.

"On the next ridge to the southwest of Bunarbashi, Mr. Calvert has opened graves made in scanty earth, between the outcropping rocks, and discovered in them large jars like those found at Hissarlik, containing skeletons, and, often, Hellenic vases. There are, also, slight traces here of prehistoric walls. From this ridge the line of the Dardanelles is visible, and the stately peak of Samothrakê looms up over Imbros.

"Along the edge of the northern ridge of the Acropolis, as it descends toward the northwest, are many tumuli consisting of heaps of stones. Attentive study reveals, in several of these, traces of walls—probably house-walls.

"Here all signs of human life end. The long, gentle slope of nearly a mile, descending toward the village of Bunarbashi, is dotted with the outcrops of native rock; gravel occurs, but there is no trace of walls nor of pottery in the earth. This whole space must be imagined encircled by walls, if we attempt to apply Homer's description to this spot; for the Scæan gate certainly opened on the plain. A prehistoric city of so great size has never yet, I think, been found. Such an arrangement would, it is true, give room enough for the 7,000 or 8,000 Trojan citizens under arms ('Iliad,' ii., 123–131), and their 40,000 guest allies ('Iliad,' viii., 562–3); but I can more easily believe with Thucydides, that 'Homer exaggerates, as poets naturally do.' [This difficulty regarding the size of the ancient city is raised also by Professor Sayce, in his article above referred to: "The scholars of the last century, believing as they did that the Troy of Homer was like one of the great cities of Europe, naturally fixed upon the heights of Bunarbashi as realizing their ideal. Here we have a large-sized hill, or rather the last spur of the range of Ida, which would have embraced within its circumference a city as large as Edinburgh, and needs a long and weary climb to scale its summit."]

"On September 21 we visited Hissarlik. It is the dreariest spot in the world; the only rest for

the eye is in the lines of Greek wall along the upper part of the trenches. Mr. Calvert thinks that Dr. Schliemann now regrets the reckless way in which Hellenic remains were buried deep under the earth from his trenches. In fact, Mr. Calvert says that the Doctor intends to dig for the other metopes of the Apollo temple, of which one, bearing a striking relief of four horses advancing directly toward the spectator, was found by accident half a metre below the surface.

"The amount of work which has been done at Hissarlik is enormous. The heart of a great hill has been cut out. The strongest impression one has is of the squalor and pettiness of the flimsy walls of the 'Burnt City,' compared with the Ilios of the poet. His dullest line has more life in it than all these stones and dirt. There are lying about striking marble fragments from Hellenic temples; one, in particular, is a block bearing a triglyph and a metope representing the issue of a single combat. The figure of the slayer is much broken and weathered away. The prostrate man, according to Mr. Walker, wears Persian trousers. Before the little church of Kalifatli is a well-preserved Ionic capital; and within is a mosaic pavement from Hissarlik containing Europa and the Bull, a lion, and other subjects.

"From Hissarlik, Gargaros is in sight, but at a great distance. Tenedos is plainly seen, and is quite prominent enough to hide a large fleet. Samothrakê—the watch-tower of Poseidon—rises majestically above the reddish-brown slopes of Imbros.

"September 22 was spent in an unsuccessful search for evidence as to the alleged building out of the shore-line since Priam's—or Homer's—day. It is clear that Sigeion, Hissarlik, and Rhoiteion are the extremities of three surviving remnants of a general plateau in which the valleys of the Mendere and Doumbrek have been scooped out by the action of water. It is equally clear that the present surface of the plain is alluvial. The weight of evidence is against any such rapid extension of the shore-line as Strabo claims. The most satisfactory evidence would be the discovery near the present shore-line of some human monument of undoubted antiquity. Mr. Diller saw upon the low peninsula of Koum-Kaleh some small projecting bits of limestone, which make it probable that it has a solid foundation of rock. If, however, as Virchow says, it is a mere sand-spit, it may very well be of recent formation. The forces of river and strait are now in approximate equilibrium, and very little change of shore-line is in progress."

I am, sir, yours very respectfully,

THOMAS W. LUDLOW.

No. 244 East Thirteenth Street, New York, November 28, 1881.

THE POST-OFFICE DEPARTMENT ADVANCING BACKWARD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: One of the most astonishing things connected with the history of the Post-office Department is the silent manner in which the wholesale eradication, by the present Postmaster-General, of long-established postal routes has been received. It can be accounted for in a great measure by the fact that it was regarded as a blow at the huge swindles of the Star-route gang, and this to some extent it may have been. But Mr. James, in his sweeping and ill-considered measure, has cut off the innocent with the guilty, and the brunt of the punishment has fallen on an undeserving public.

When you consider how important at the present day is the receipt of a mail to the husbandman residing in any part of this busy country, how essential it is, not only as an assistance to his maintenance, but as a solace to his hours of rest; that it is to him what the opera and other amusements are to the denizen of the cities, you can begin to appreciate the deprivation sustained. But the slaughter has been by no means confined to the husbandman; the village and country merchant, the stock-raiser and trader, to whom daily market reports are as relatively essential as to the city merchant, are equal sufferers.

By the Postmaster-General's order, at one blow, mail facilities, extending over thousands of miles, that existed before the birth of men now past middle age, have been destroyed, or materially impaired; and while this curtailment of the barest necessary mail has been going on in the rural districts, the city people have had their mails brought to their very doors twice or more each day, and that at a cost far exceeding a fair compensation for carrying all the mails on the discontinued Star-routes.

Do not understand me as condemning the city delivery. I allude to it to show how glaring is the injustice done to the countrymen. The injury inflicted on the business of the whole country is much greater than the unreflecting would suppose, and the injury, particularly to the newspaper interest, is so marked and so direct that I am surprised at the long-continued silence of the press.

I unfortunately live on a Star-route that was blessed with a daily mail forty years ago, now reduced to three mails a week. This route is over a superb road thirty-five miles in length, connecting railroad towns and through a country teeming with wealth. It is the only supply to six post-offices, and contributes to three others. That our route was punished for participating in Star-route frauds cannot be said. On the contrary, it stubbornly set its face against the effort to "expedite" its mails. Two mails a day were actually ordered when expediting was at its zenith; but there being no connections at the termini, the general ridicule on the whole route was too great for the gang, and the fraudulent attempt was reluctantly abandoned. Soon thereafter the carrier concluded to leave his place of departure a half-hour before the arrival of the mails he had undertaken to carry. The result was that our mails were unnecessarily delayed twenty-four hours. Detrimental as this palpable breach of contract was to the public service, the most persistent efforts for many months could obtain no redress. After the meeting of Congress, our Representative took the matter in hand, and the wrong was at once righted. Hardly was this adjusted when our delivery was reduced, as before stated, to three times a week. That we have been made to suffer by some official for not assisting in the expediting project is reasonably certain, but that Mr. James has had such a motive is not for a moment believed. If, however, Mr. James could hear the execrations heaped on his name all over the country, it would doubtless astonish him, and might perhaps be of more real benefit than the plaudits he has been the recipient of, for his endeavors to make the Department self-sustaining.

Could not the *Nation* bring to the attention of those in authority the fact that a self-supporting mail department is not an unmixed blessing; that the two-cent postage, instead of the present rate, is not a burning desire, but that a decent regard for the rights of that vast majority of our people who dwell neither in cities nor on railroads, would be of more benefit to the country at large than either of these reforms; and that the memory of the man who should establish a permanent system that would bring a daily mail within the reach of every inhabitant, where at all practicable, would be cherished with more respect than that of Sir Rowland Hill? A Subscriber.

Central Kentucky, November 28, 1881.

OVERLAND RAILROAD RATES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Since the publication of my letter on overland railroad rates in the *Nation* of August 11, Mr. Charles F. Adams, Jr., has called my attention to the origin of the system of special freight contracts and unlawful discrimination in freight charges, as set forth in the report of the Government directors of the Union Pacific Railroad for the year ending June 30, 1878. I quote from page 15 of the document:

"In the month of July last, a sudden announcement was made that the tariffs on through-freighting business over the Pacific roads had been altered, and that, while the classification of certain articles had been changed, the rates upon others had been advanced from 50 to 100 per cent. The reason of this movement, which naturally excited surprise as well as indignation among those affected by it, was not at first apparent. It was, however, soon learned. It was purely strategic. The company did not really propose to raise its tariff rates; on the contrary, it was ready to slightly reduce them; but it did propose to take full advantage of its position to secure as much as possible of the transcontinental business. As a first step toward this, it practically did away with its open tariff, by the very simple process referred to. Under the open tariff, at the old rates, the larger business firms dealing between the two coasts had a choice of routes—that by water and that by rail. They, in practice, availed themselves of this option by sending their coarser freights, or those in regard to which time in delivery was immaterial, by water, at the lower rates; while the more costly wares, or those requiring immediate delivery, were forwarded overland. The object of the Union Pacific was to put a stop to this practice. This they did by largely raising their freights, which put an effectual stop to shipments under the open tariff, while, at the same time, they offered to all the large firms which would contract to make their shipments wholly by land, special rates at a reduction even from those in force before the change. It was thus a distinct step backward; for it amounted to the abandonment of a published and open tariff in favor of a system of private special contracts.

"This move was, therefore, not only one of great importance, but it was open to serious objections. It was made, not by a petty local road, nor by a competing trunk line, but by a great, subsidized, continental thoroughfare. As such, it might naturally be inferred that it was made only after ample consideration, and with the authority of the full board of directors. It is, however, a fact singularly illustrative of the absence of that sense of public responsibility in which the policy of the Union Pacific is now shaped, that this measure, which practically put in irons the transcontinental business of the country, was devised by two freight agents, was never, before being publicly announced, submitted for consideration even to the executive committee of the board of directors, much less to the full board, and was finally put in force, to the utter surprise of the public, on the verbal authority, so far as can be ascertained, of the president and a single director.

"It is unnecessary to comment on such a method of corporate management. It speaks for itself. Meanwhile, so far as the measure is concerned, the objections to it are apparent. The through-business over the Union Pacific is mainly done by large houses. This is natural enough, for such houses can, of course, do it most cheaply. The measure under discussion, however, made it impossible that this business should be done by any but the large houses. They have special contracts covering it at less than the published tariff rates. More than this, it locks up, in secrecy, transactions which more than all others should be public. The special contracts may be equal as between shippers, or they may not. The directors have every reason to believe that they are, but they none the less are lacking in that element of publicity which in such matters will always remain the one real safeguard against discrimination."

The contracts here referred to and so justly condemned did not contain the "boycotting" clause quoted in my former letter; they merely bound the merchant to transport all his freight by rail—viz.: "all goods purchased by or for

and shipped by or consigned to him by his procurement, directly or indirectly, or with his previous knowledge or consent"; he was still free to deal in goods which had reached here by sea, though he could not import them so himself. Next year or the year following, the "bought, sold, dealt in, or handled by" clause was introduced, which "boycotted" all goods not imported by rail, so far as the railroad companies' customers were concerned. They were forbidden to buy, sell, deal in, or handle them. Last January the railroad companies gave another turn to the screw, and introduced a clause which boycotts not only the goods, but the importers. The merchant who holds a freight contract with this company is "firmly bound" not to sell or deliver his goods to any one who is in the habit of importing otherwise than by rail. To show that there is no mistake about this humiliating exaction, I enclose on a separate slip the text of the covenant, as well as that of the corresponding clause in the contracts of the preceding year. They are clipped from the columns of the *Grocer and Country Merchant*, a local trade journal which published them, with a vigorous protest, at the time they were forced upon our merchants. The space of the *Nation* is too valuable to insert them *in extenso* here; but let them go into your advertising columns with a note of reference. They divide the importing merchants of the whole Pacific coast into two classes—viz., those who bind themselves to import exclusively by rail and those who refuse to do so; *these two classes are forbidden by the railroad company to have any dealings with one another.*

I make no comment on this proceeding, for I have no language equal to it; but I hope that the *Nation* will do so, for I have reason to believe that it will not be without effect. I pass to another item of railroad management.

Sugar refining was introduced here in 1855, and soon grew to be a large and important industry. Even paying duty on raw stocks imported from Manila, it was found possible to manufacture here at a profit, and compete with Eastern goods to the extent of the refined sugars and syrups consumed on this coast. The price was of course regulated by the cost of laying down New York sugars here. The Hawaiian treaty removed the duty from our raw stocks, and gave our refiners a clear advantage of two and a half cents per pound over their Eastern rivals. Still, Eastern crushed sugar had a slight preference, and could always be found in our market and at substantially the same price as domestic. Last January all this suddenly changed, and Eastern sugars disappeared from the market. The reason assigned was that the railroad companies had raised the freight on refined sugar from one cent per pound to two—a rate which forbade importations. The reader may be surprised that they should thus impose a protective duty (for that is evidently what it is) so high as to cut off their own revenue from the trade; but, though strong protectionists, they are not such fools as that. It now comes out that they received a full consideration for their action. The *Chronicle* of this city has brought out the fact, and it is uncontradicted, that the advance in freight is the result of a bargain with the principal refiner here, thinly disguised under the form of a transportation contract,* whereby, for a consideration of $100,000, they consent to impose this prohibitory duty on Eastern sugars for the current year. The *Chronicle* publishes statistics of sugar imported from the islands, etc., to show that through the operation of the treaty the Government loses about two million dollars per annum, while by the action of the railroad companies the people of this coast are mulcted about eight hundred thousand more in the enhanced cost of sugar. Its attack is mainly on the treaty and the refiner. Papers in the opposite interest defend the action of the railroad companies by the usual protectionist arguments, encouragement of home industry, etc. The whole public is, however, as it seems to me, more interested in a question back of this, and which I venture to think lies at the bottom of the whole railroad problem—viz.: *What right has any railroad company to impose a protective duty on sugar or any other commodity imported from one State into another?* And what is the system of classification adopted by all our railroad companies as the basis of freight charges, but a system of protective duties under another name? The overland companies, by their scandalous imposition of this duty on sugar, have brought this question squarely to the front, and incidentally suggested the true remedy for such abuses. The latter, if you will permit, I should like to discuss hereafter.

JOHN S. DOYLE.

SAN FRANCISCO, November 23, 1881.

* The transaction is alleged to be in the shape of a contract to transport for the refiner 5,000,000 lbs. of sugar at two cents per lb. Of course they could not charge any dealer a less rate than that voluntarily paid by so large a customer, who pays his freight and is not at all particular as to the transportation of the goods!

Notes.

WE understand that the American subscription to the proposed monument to Severn, the friend of Keats, has not equalled expectations. The time for closing it is near at hand. Mr. R. W. Gilder, of the Century Company, Union Square, New York, will receive and forward any sums. ——A. D. F. Randolph & Co. announce a compilation by Wm. Oland Bourne, 'Now I Lay Me Down to Sleep; or, The Prayer of Childhood in Literature and Song.'——We learn from the *Academy* that Mr. W. M. Conway, 2 Harcourt Buildings, Temple, London, E. C., proposes to issue by subscription a series of photographic reproductions of the earliest works of wood-cutting in the Netherlands, the so-called block-books, which usher in the art of printing. Some twenty-eight are embraced in Mr. Conway's scheme. Yearly or half-yearly volumes will be issued, with explanatory pamphlets, at cost price—say, from twelve to twenty-one shillings per volume.——The fifteenth annual exhibition of the American Water Color Society will open at the Academy of Design, on January 30, 1882, and close on Feb. 25. Works will be received from January 12 to 14. The secretary's address is 51 West 10th Street.——The *Sanitary Engineer*, which began as a monthly, and has latterly been a fortnightly publication, will enter upon its fifth volume as a weekly, a step which implies gratifying evidence to its conductors that their efforts have been appreciated. ——In a memoir of the late Benjamin Peirce, published in the current Essex Institute Hist. Coll. (xviii., 7, 8, 9), the striking fact is exhibited that this eminent scientist "had no less than twenty-five ancestors, heads of families, known to have been settled in New England before 1663, at least twenty of them before 1640." One of these was Lawrence Southwick, husband of the Cassandra celebrated in Whittier's verse. ——Readers of "A Colonial Monastery," in the December *Scribner's*, will be interested in Mr. S. W. Pennypacker's account of the Dunker Book of Martyrs, 'Der blutige Schau-Platz oder Martyrer Spiegel der Tauffs-Gesinten oder wehrlosen Christen, etc. Ephrata in Pensylvanien, Drucks und Verlags der Bruederschafft anno 1748'—"a massive folio of 1,512 pages," now extremely scarce. "Among the literary achievements of the Germans of Pennsylvania it surpasses, though eight (*sic*) years later, the great quarto Bible of Saur, the first in America, printed at Germantown in 1743, which for nearly half a century had no English rival." ——The Christmas number of the *Publishers' Weekly* is a picture-book in itself, apart from its utility as a guide to holiday purchases for young and old.——Among the characteristic publications of this season is Lockwood, Brooks & Co.'s "American Poets' Calendar" for 1882, with quotations for every day in the year.——A very tasteful pamphlet report of the Exeter Hall meeting commemorative of President Garfield has been issued, with a fine portrait, by Mr. B. F. Stevens, 4 Trafalgar Square, London. ——In *Le Livre* for November, English readers will at once be attracted to M. Ernest Chesneau's amiable but not very profound or well-proportioned review of English caricature. Facsimiles, after Hogarth, Rowlandson, John Leech, and Kate Greenaway, adorn the text. In his letter from Brussels, M. Léon Degeorge announces that a complete but very brief and ill-printed catalogue of the Plantin Museum has been published by the curator. He well says that, under the circumstances, a work of art was called for.——Parts 27, 28 of 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas' (Westermann) contain a railway and steamship map of the German Empire and adjacent countries, with political maps of Austria-Hungary, India, and Central Asia, Persia and Afghanistan, and of South America (quite new), together with a chart of the globe's winds, currents, and rainfall. The edition is now nearly complete.——Dr. Oscar Lenz's journey from Tangier to Timbuctoo and Senegambia, and General Schindler's journeys in Southern Persia in 1879, are described, with accompanying maps, in Nos. 94-95 of the Journal of the Berlin Geographical Society (L. W. Schmidt).——Prof. G. Ebers seems to have found novel-writing a more desirable task than the completion of his 'Egypt and the Pentateuch,' the first volume of which was published in 1868 and the second is still to come. A second edition of his book of travels, 'Durch Gosen zum Sinai,' is announced; but at the same time a new novel from his pen is issued, 'Die Frau Bürgermeisterin' (The Mayor's Wife), which presumably deals with matters less Egyptological than his previous contributions to light literature.

—In Dr. Hayes's reprint of his 'Pictures of Arctic Travel' (Carleton), we have, not a narrative of travel, but three pen-pictures of humanity and nature as they presented themselves to him in Greenland. Of the three, that which has for its subject the glaciers is by all odds the best. The topic will bear a good many superlatives without producing the effect of incongruity, and its treatment here seems to be natural and fitting. The "Doctor" is very unreal in appearance, whatever be the foundation of fact in the episode suggesting it, and the "Savage" is too weakly sketched to make any very definite impression. The little book is beautifully printed, with a striking if somewhat inartistic cover, whose designer should apply to some sailor-man for a lesson on knots.—— In the number of the *Nation* for July 28, 1881, the requisites for a useful handbook of astronomy for amateurs were pointed out, with particular reference to a new edition of Smyth's 'Celestial Cycle,' which had recently appeared. It was there stated as the opinion of the writer that the 'Celestial Objects' of the Rev. T. W. Webb was a work admirably adapted to the end proposed, and of small bulk and low price. These remarks were based on the third edition of Mr. Webb's work, which had been long and favorably known. Since that time a fourth edition has been printed in England and in New York (Industrial Publication Company). An examination of this edition shows it to be an improvement upon its predecessor.

The chief changes have been made in the addition of some 1,500 new objects to the lists given in the third edition, and in a thorough revision of the text. As far as we have seen, these additions are extremely well chosen, and the list of interesting objects given at the end of the work covers nearly all those which "common telescopes" can be advantageously used upon. Many of these objects have been personally examined by Mr. Webb himself, and in other cases his notes are from the original sources. The practical instructions are especially valuable to the amateur. The whole character of the work can be summed up in one word: it is eminently judicious; and this quality gives it a weight not usually belonging to works of its class. It is one of the few books which no observer, amateur or professional, can well afford to dispense with.——*Scribner's Magazine* has now its 'General Index' (Q. P. Index, Bangor, Me.), on the plan of its immediate predecessors. The 'Annual Q. P. Index,' which we have already described, is announced on a fly-leaf for January 15.——The Rev. George E. Merrill's 'Story of the Manuscripts' (Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.) gives a clear and interesting account of the most important manuscript copies of the New Testament, their age so far as known, their characteristics, the ways of their making and preservation, and the discovery of those not known till recently—this last being what we may call the romance and adventure of Biblical criticism. It has several engraved illustrations, brief biographies, and a good index. Not claiming any critical authority, it is not a legitimate subject of criticism as to its assertions on points doubtful. Its information on matters of known fact is timely and accurate. It says a good word for the Revised Version. Its point of view is given in the following sentence: "All the writings of the New Testament were completed, and in possession of the churches, at the close of the first century"; which is given without qualification or remark.

—The annual report of the Board of Visitors of the University of Virginia for the last academic year shows that, since the war, private benefactions to that institution have amounted to $440,000, a sum exceeding by $110,000 the whole amount of annuities paid to it by the State since 1865. It thus appears that Mr. Jefferson's hope of promoting the higher education through a combination of public and private munificence has been practically realized. The "Leander McCormick Observatory" is now in process of erection upon the mountain-site originally selected for astronomical observation by the "Father of the University."——The annual report of Acting-President Frieze to the Board of Regents of the University of Michigan is largely taken up with his favorite scheme of making the end of the Sophomore Year in the Literary Department a point of departure for the various University courses in science, medicine, political science (a newly established school), etc. The question is, we believe, one on which the Faculty have divided with a good deal of feeling, and President Frieze foresees that the East will criticise his proposal as tending to lower standards of professional training and of University degrees (which his system would award after five years' residence at the University). More or less openly, the report is a protest against the applicability of Harvard's standards for post-graduate matriculation to the University of a frontier, new, and sparsely-settled State. ——The Board of Trustees of Columbia College, last May, adopted a scheme reorganizing the instruction in modern languages, and supplementing the undergraduate course with a post-graduate course of two years. This is now being put in execution by Prof. Charles Sprague Smith.

—The following note appears in *Potter's American Monthly* for December. That the editor (to say nothing of the contributor and his integrity) should never have encountered Mr. Hale's famous little story, is an amusing proof of the distance which separates Boston from Philadelphia:

"'A Man without a Country.' The above article is furnished us by one of our contributors, who translated it from the German. *Never having seen the article in print before in this country*, he requests its publication for the benefit of those of our readers who also may never have heard or known of the facts stated. The name of the author is not furnished."

—Akin to the topic which we have discussed elsewhere, as to furnishing the young and unlettered with proper guides to the use of our public libraries, is the need of supplementing the serious part of our lyceum courses with suggestions for private study and investigation in the lines in which an interest has been awakened. An example of a short, well-selected bibliography of this sort has just been afforded by the Peabody Institute, of Baltimore, which has published a fly-leaf indicating "a short course of reading in connection with Mr. Freeman's lectures on the English people in their three homes." To the books enumerated is appended a sign of their being procurable at the Peabody, Johns Hopkins, Mercantile, and Maryland Historical Society libraries. The list is annotated to some extent, and does not err by formidable excess of citations. We hope to see this become a regular feature of the Peabody Institute's lecture courses, and receive the flattery of imitation by the Lowell Institute in Boston, and by all other established courses of the higher grade. Apropos of Dr. Freeman, we have heard the wish expressed that he might abandon his written lectures in favor of free and informal talks with his audiences.

—It is a pleasure to be able once in a while to say a good word for Mr. Mapleson's performances at the Academy of Music. The famous manager may be looked upon as a sort of æsthetic chemist, who gathers his heterogeneous artistic materials from all parts of the globe, mixes them in various proportions, and then ascertains how a New York audience will "react" on the compound. Occasionally, when the mixture is not of the proper sort, the reaction consists in a gradual evacuation of the auditorium before the end of the performance, as on Monday week, when "William Tell" was given. In the performance of "Aïda," however, on the following Wednesday, the vocal material was of excellent quality, and the result was that a large and fascinated audience remained until the last note had been sung, a few minutes before midnight. Verdi's "Aïda" is not only dramatically but musically the queen of all Italian operas, and in listening to it as interpreted by such artists as Galassi, Campanini, and Mlle. Rossini, the audience gets an idea of what an operatic performance on the Continent of Europe is like. If Mlle. Rossini had appeared earlier in the season, several other débutantes, the public, and the critics might have been spared the mutual annoyance of making each other's acquaintance. Now that she is here, we hope she may be given every possible opportunity during the remaining three weeks of the opera season of renewing her triumph in "Aïda." Mlle. Rossini's tones are of good quality, their color being neither too dull nor of too great metallic brilliancy, and if she could only get rid of her everlasting vibrato, which occasionally makes an actual trill of what should be a smooth note, she would rank among leading *prime donne*—provided, that is, she is able to make as favorable an impression in other rôles as in that of *Aïda*. Her dramatic conception of the part is likewise of more than average merit, although it cannot be denied that she could still benefit greatly by seeing that character as impersonated by Materna, the greatest living dramatic vocalist of her sex. Mlle. Cobianchi, who also made her début on the same occasion, is another useful addition to Mr. Mapleson's company, and might advantageously take the places in some operas of several of her predecessors. Galassi was as good an *Amonasro* as we have ever seen, and Campanini sang beautifully. It is his misfortune that he does not look like an artist, and that his acting is so imperfect that he never allows one to forget that he is Campanini, the lyric tenor. An important feature in "Aïda" is the ballet, which did some very creditable work, especially in the tableaux, which were formed more instantaneously and in better order than usual by the girls, while the black slave boys were even obliged to repeat their comic evolutions. Signor Arditi again proved his special sympathy for Verdi's opera by the good control he had secured of the orchestra, the chorus, and the brass band on the stage, whose several performances were better dovetailed than usual. "Aïda" is in many parts a diluted and simplified "Lohengrin." It is brimful of fresh and delightful melodies, whose quaint, exotic intervals afford a pleasant contrast to the orthodox forms of Italian and German melody. Signor Arditi's orchestra does not contain such good material as some other orchestras in the city, but in "Aïda" it succeeded in making a charming display of the brilliant hues produced by the alternation and varied combinations of string, wood-wind, and brass instruments. In introducing these changes in orchestral coloring Verdi was not guided, like Meyerbeer, by a mere desire for change and effect, but by a true dramatic instinct, which enabled him to find in each case that clang-tint which best harmonizes with the dramatic situation.

—The first piece on the programme of the Symphony Society last Saturday was Schubert's Quintet, op. 163, arranged for full orchestra by Dr. Damrosch. There has been so much said of late about the possible existence of a tenth symphony by Schubert that, had it not been announced that the present arrangement was made last summer, Dr. Damrosch would have subjected himself to the suspicion of trying to show that if the tenth symphony in question did not exist, it was easy enough to make one. Even those who may not have agreed with Dr. Damrosch's opinion that the quintet needs more than five instruments to display all its innate beauties, evidently felt grateful to him for making the experiment. At least the applause was very generous, and the conductor was recalled several times to bow his acknowledgments. Schubert was one of the greatest of all the masters of orchestration; and although he would very probably in many places have chosen different instrumental combinations from those heard on Saturday, others are so thoroughly in harmony with the character of the passage that it seems as if no other instruments could have equally well expressed it. Even if the experiment had not proved a success, there would have been no harm in it. A string quintet bears the same relation to an orchestral piece that a simple sketch does to an oil painting. If an artist should take an original sketch by a great master and paint it, the act would be justly looked upon as vandalism; but Dr. Damrosch's orchestral arrangement leaves the original quintet exactly as it was; and fastidious musicians who are apt to prefer a sketch to a full painting may still go on playing it as if the new version had never existed. The people as a whole will prefer the orchestral arrangement; and as it was Dr. Damrosch's aim to popularize the composition, his object was clearly attained. Saint-Saëns's fourth concerto for the piano, op,

44, followed as the second piece. Like the typical concerto of the Mozartean period, it has a short orchestral introduction before the piano enters; but in its general form it differs from the regular concerto very much as symphonic poems do from symphonies. The movements are fewer in number or more closely connected, and, what is particularly commendable, the whole composition is much shorter. Saint-Saëns never tires the hearer by diffuse thematic treatment. He puts his ideas in their most direct and effective form, and never before he has carefully cut and polished them. This, combined with his thorough knowledge of all orchestral resources, constitutes the principal charm of his compositions. The piano part of the new concerto in the hands of Madame Schiller seemed to lack brilliancy and importance; and we happen to know that when played by the composer himself it is exceedingly sparkling and effective. Two Norwegian melodies for string orchestra, by Grieg, were charmingly played by the orchestra and gratefully received, especially the second. The peculiar northern flavor which pervades some of Grieg's other works is not conspicuous in these songs, which might have flowed from the pen of any German musician. Beethoven's Eighth Symphony brought the concert to a close.

GARFIELD'S WORDS.

Garfield's Words: Suggestive Passages from the Public and Private Writings of James Abram Garfield. Compiled by William Ralston Balch. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1881.

DURING the last Presidential campaign a small volume of extracts from General Garfield's speeches was compiled as a sort of campaign document, but it never had any great success, and it is hardly likely that Mr. Balch's collection will attract much more attention. He has endeavored to select from the late President's speeches, addresses, arguments, and letters the most characteristic and interesting or epigrammatic and pithy phrases or passages. The difficulty that we feel in looking over the volume is that General Garfield had not sufficient conciseness or epigrammatic point of expression to make such a selection of any particular value. Epigram is hardly possible without wit, and General Garfield was not a witty man. Moral and political ideas may of course be expressed with a sententious force which will take the place of wit, but General Garfield had not, properly speaking, a gift of sententious expression. Originality of thought may often supply the place of both these, but he does not seem to have had, to judge from the volume before us, much originality of mind. A great many of the extracts given were no doubt impressive when first delivered; but examined in print, and judged, as they necessarily must be, by literary standards, their impressiveness disappears. "God reigns, and the Government at Washington still lives," is almost the only expression used by him which can be properly said to have taken root in the popular heart. "I would rather be beaten in Right than succeed in Wrong" is merely a new form of an old idea; as is also: "There are some things I am afraid of, and I confess it in this great presence—I am afraid to do a mean thing"; and "It is cheaper to reduce crime than to build jails." Under the head of "Character" Mr. Balch gives a number of sayings which, taken together, show, what we should have known without them, that General Garfield placed a high value upon character; but there is nothing in them which indicates any originality of view, or delicacy of observation, or novelty of idea with regard to it. Many of the sayings are platitudes, which it was hardly worth while to reproduce, announced with a characteristic enthusiasm that, at the time of their utterance, may have saved them from seeming so. Most of the extracts relate to public life, political questions, or topics connected in some way with these. And here again, while the extracts possess a certain value from the evident conviction and elevation of aim which lay behind them, they express nothing which cannot be found elsewhere in other forms. General Garfield's merits as a lawyer, a politician, or an orator are not to be tested by any such ephemeral collection as this. His strength did not lie in isolated phrases or sayings, and his efforts in any direction have to be judged as a whole rather than in their parts. In this he resembles most successful public men.

It is perhaps yet too soon to attempt to form any final opinion as to the precise position which the late President will occupy in the history of American public life. The tragic end of his life brought his career, his character, and his private life into such a glare of publicity that his individuality at the end underwent a sort of metamorphosis in the minds of a large part of the general public. This glare now casts back a reflected light upon his earlier career, and makes it seem somewhat different from what it would have been had his Presidency terminated in a natural manner. The interest taken in his sufferings by foreign nations, and the discussion of his character and public services which this interest occasioned, gave to the feeling about him in his own country for the time being a somewhat new color. This was not so marked, perhaps, as it was twenty years before in the case of Lincoln, because with him European opinion in many cases passed from an extreme of something very like contempt to the opposite pole of obituary adulation. Lincoln the awkward, ungainly, backwoods rail-splitter, became Lincoln the martyr, the wise and far-seeing statesman. The causes which produced the revulsion of feeling in regard to him in Europe were so obviously connected with the success of the North in the Rebellion, that European admiration of him, when it at length came, did not produce a profound impression on this side of the Atlantic. It was accepted here as a tribute of respect which we had all fought for and won; and the bitterness of the struggle, while it gave a peculiar sweetness to the enjoyment of this as well as all its other results, left behind it in the national memory an irritation against foreign critics and observers which made us feel, for the time being, superior to the very criticism we most keenly cared for.

All this was entirely different in the case of General Garfield. In the satisfaction of having the President of the country suddenly become the object of the respectful sympathy of the press, the public, and the governments of Europe there was absolutely no alloy. It was felt to be spontaneous, and not offered as a salve for previous injuries. It seemed to give a new importance to its object, while at the same time it somewhat affected the atmosphere through which we regarded that object. General Garfield, as he appeared in English eyes, was necessarily different from the purely American Garfield as we knew him. To the English imagination he was a public man such as they know public men to be—an American Gladstone, or Bright, or Cobden—a sort of combination of British premier and Republican elective sovereign. This called for less imaginative effort in his case than would have been required with regard to most of our politicians, because General Garfield had won his way up to the Presidency by a parliamentary life, and his success was founded in great measure on readiness in debate and familiarity with public questions. To a certain extent, in our appreciation of the foreign sympathy lavished upon us, we fell into this foreign view ourselves, and for the time being General Garfield acquired a sort of new Anglo-American individuality. The idea of making a collection of his "words" seems like a legacy from this period. But an American Congressional career is, after all, at bottom very different from an English Parliamentary career, and in nothing more different than the small scope the former gives to wit, epigram, or pointed rhetoric of any kind. It really stifles rather than encourages it; and if General Garfield's long public service had made him a successful producer of brilliant phrases or memorable sayings, he would have been almost a *lusus naturæ*.

SCANDINAVIAN TRAVEL.

The Land of the Midnight Sun. Summer and Winter Journeys through Sweden, Norway, Lapland, and Northern Finland. By Paul B. Du Chaillu. With map and 235 illustrations. New York: Harper & Bros. 2 vols. 8vo.

Norsk, Lapp, and Finn. By Frank Vincent, jr. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 8vo.

The Story of a Scandinavian Summer. By Katharine E. Tyler. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 8vo.

PAUL DU CHAILLU has produced a magnificent work, eclipsing all his predecessors who have written about the Scandinavian Peninsula. What first strikes one is the elegant appearance of the volumes, and the excellent map and engravings. The latter, 235 in number, are mostly (the portraits entirely) from photographs taken exclusively for use in this work. Those representing winter scenes in Lapland are the work of the Swedish artist, M. Bergman, who has visited that country. It would be difficult to show wherein the illustrations could be improved, and they alone are well worth the price of the book. While the majority of the works of this class have been written by persons who had no preparation for the task, who were utterly ignorant of the languages and dialects spoken in the north of Europe, and whose sojourn was too brief to repair this defect, M. Du Chaillu made a series of journeys at different times from 1871 to 1878, and spent nearly five years in the country. His work is therefore something more than a mere traveller's tale. He acquired a good speaking knowledge of the Scandinavian languages, and in this way was enabled to share the home-life of all classes, and observe accurately the manners and customs of the inhabitants. During this period he travelled, as he tells us, and as the narrative shows, "in an irregular course, by routes often crossing each other, and at different seasons of the year, either from the Baltic to the Polar Sea or from the east to the west." He observed "the whole coast from Haparanda to the extreme northeastern point of Norway, a distance of 3,200 miles, the greater part of it both in winter and summer"; and besides, he "sailed on almost every fjord, whose shores have in the aggregate an extent of 3,000 miles or more." His great merit lies in his fine descriptions of the scenery and physical characteristics of the country, and in his accurate and sympathetic account of the manners and customs of the peasantry. We think he is sometimes too lavish in his praise of these rude peoples, and that he might have found something to criticise, as Bayard Taylor did; but his pictures of their interiors, of their daily occupations, of their dances and weddings and other festive gatherings, and of their religious worship, are so true and life-like that we can easily forgive him for not having the heart to find fault with a race to which he became fondly attached, and which he designates as "probably the most independent,

honest, and faithful of the European nationalities."

M. Du Chaillu professes to have paid special attention to the prehistoric and viking ages, but the archæologist and historian need not therefore look to him for any new or important information. He gives a few chapters on Scandinavian geology, sketches the outlines of the stone, bronze, and iron ages, and undertakes to give an account of the runes; and while these chapters have more or less value for the general reader, they have scarcely any for the scholar or the scientist. The history of Scandinavia is alluded to in the vaguest manner, while the literary and artistic activities of its inhabitants are utterly overlooked. We might have expected some indication of the position of Norway and Sweden in the world of culture. The naturalist Sars is mentioned, but he is called "Tars." Peter Christian Asbjörnsen is very generously spoken of, but no appreciation is shown of his great service as the Grimm of Norway in rescuing the folk-lore from oblivion. But we will not quarrel with our author about this. It is sufficient for us to record the fact that literature, history, science, and art do not come within the scope of his work. Nor are we disposed to point out all his peccadilloes in the translation of Norse and Swedish phrases, in his remarks about the politics of the country, and in what he has written about the theatres and a dozen other minor matters. It takes more than five years to become a thorough Scandinavian scholar, and it is not to be expected that all M. Du Chaillu's comments and criticisms should stand the test of careful scrutiny. The work is a thorough, instructive, entertaining, and systematic description of the Scandinavian peasants and their physical environment, and as such we most heartily recommend it.

It would not be difficult to enumerate fifty English men and women who have recorded in elegantly printed and bound volumes their personal experiences in the valleys and on the fjords and lakes of Norway and Sweden, and given us, in more or less brilliant passages, their impressions of arctic scenery and the midnight sun; but, with two or three exceptions, their works are scarcely worthy of mention. Mr. Vincent pleads the want of a satisfactory American work on Scandinavia, and raises expectations in us that he is going to supply it. He says he has not forgotten Bayard Taylor's 'Northern Travel,' but remarks that "it was written a quarter of a century ago, and is therefore slightly antiquated." He forgets that we have had in the meantime Charles Loring Brace's 'Norway and Sweden,' J. Ross Browne's 'The Land of Thor,' G. W. Griffin's 'My Danish Days,' John Dean Caton's 'A Summer in Norway,' Samuel Kneeland's 'An American in Iceland,' Bayard Taylor's 'Iceland,' and E. L. Anderson's 'Six Weeks in Norway,' some of which will compare favorably with 'Norsk, Lapp, and Finn,' both in scope and accuracy. We by no means find the thorough "ethnographic, philological, and topographical" treatment of the North which Mr. Vincent sets out to give us, and it is evident he had not the necessary equipment for such a task. But his work has one important quality: it is graphic and very entertaining. Mr. Vincent is an experienced traveller and a close observer of men and things. We can heartily commend his chapters on the Lapps and on the Grand Duchy of Finland, in which he furnishes a good deal of information not easily accessible elsewhere. 'Norsk, Lapp, and Finn' will induce many to leave the beaten tracks of southern Europe, and spend their vacations amid the grotesque scenery of the fjords and valleys of the North.

We cannot say as much for Miss Tyler's 'Scandinavian Summer.' Throughout her 394 pages we find scarcely one interesting passage. She discourses everlastingly about breakfast, dinner, supper, and bed-time, without the power of forgetting herself for a moment, excepting when she fills in her narrative with tedious extracts from commonplace guide-books. Her descriptions of the fjords and mountain scenery, and of the celebrated fish-market in Bergen, are so tame that it is difficult to read them with patience. All she has to say of the midnight sun is: "I know nothing finer, unless a sunset on the Nile, with the afterglow; perhaps even that is less wonderful than the midnight sun under favorable circumstances. But personal comfort has a good deal to do," etc. She goes on to tell how she "made interest with the stewardess to procure her a bottle of hot water," etc.; and, as if conscious of her utter lack of the descriptive faculty, she quotes in a foot-note Bayard Taylor's incomparable page on the phenomenon in question. It is to be regretted that Miss Tyler undertook a task for which she had no fitness.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—III.

If all the makers of boys' books on foreign countries were as conscientiously accurate in spirit and details as Mr. Edward Greey in his 'Young Americans in Japan,' published by Lee & Shepard, Boston, the adults of the next generation would be saved much vicious prejudice. Every one of the twenty chapters is headed with a pretty stanza translated from the Japanese, and all show the keen observation of a quick-eyed traveller mellowed by long study of the language. Mr. Greey, having studied the subtleties and technique of native art, has himself designed the cover, and added a few sketches among the one hundred and seventy-one pictures which will make the work a prize even in the nursery. Most of the illustrations are well-known veterans, that have already lived as many lives as a cat is supposed to worry through. Far better, however, than Aimé Humbert, who first drew most of them from native works, does the American author interpret them. The text is a pretty, lively, and amusing story of travel from Nagasaki, overland and by way of the Inland Sea, to Tokio. There, the hilarious comments of Johnnie and Fitz, the criticism of Mrs. Jewett and Sallie, and the sage and explanatory remarks of the professor on the objects seen in their travels, end. Fun without caricature, facts without dulness, abound in this most interesting book.

Mr. Alden's 'Cruise of the *Ghost*' (Harpers) is intended exclusively for the entertainment of youth, and must be judged from that standpoint. Hence, it is a most delightful, exciting, plausible, and intoxicating little book, and those lads who have a love of the water and of boats will regret that it is not continued in the same vein through an unlimited number of volumes. Looked at from the point of view of a more mature age, and acquaintance with the locale of the story, one is impressed with the fact that Mr. Alden has been inspired rather by the Government charts than by an actual personal knowledge of the navigation of the South Bays of Long Island. The ancient mariners who frequent Shinnecock Bay will be surprised to learn that one may drift, even in the densest fog, through the intermittent inlet which is at times opened through the beach hills, out to sea without being aware of the circumstance. The extraordinary skill with which a third-classman (second year) at Annapolis, at home on a vacation, handles a twenty-foot light-draft sailboat in a heavy northwest gale several miles off the Long Island coast, and his subsequent management of a water-logged brig, cannot fail to convince the people of the United States that the money expended in the education of our naval cadets has not been spent in vain. There can be no doubt that Mr. Alden is a "sailor-man" by practical training.

We are glad to announce another volume of Mr. Towle's "Heroes of History"—'Ralegh, his Exploits and Voyages' (Lee & Shepard). Raleigh's life has been many times told, but it has a charm that will always make it worth telling over again, and we doubt whether any life of him is more attractive to the young than the one before us. It was worth while to tell the "apocryphal" stories (as Mr. Edwards pronounces them) of the cloak and the ring, as they are stories that everybody ought to know; but at the same time the reader ought to be informed that they are apocryphal, or at least are so considered. We shall always quarrel with the illustrations in books of this class until the book-makers understand that the pictures form a part of the history, as well as the text. Portraits of the hero and other personages; views of actual places; pictures of real objects; contemporary representations of interesting events; nay, even maps of the regions described, or plans of cities and battle-fields—will not such illustrations as these be as entertaining to our boys and girls as the made-up pictures which we find in this class of books? We do not believe in cramming children with information, but the accuracy of knowledge and the insight acquired by constant familiarity with historical realities cannot be valued too highly.

Miss Sarah Brook's 'French History for English Children' (Macmillan) can hardly be called a "juvenile," as it is, in its style and the treatment of its subject, adapted to the age, say, of fifteen and upward. For these it is very well fitted—decidedly attractive for young readers, and failing, we think, principally in the matter of emphasis. All readers, and particularly children, need to have their attention fastened on what is essential—the great men, the great events, the great ideas—and let the rest go. In this the book before us is deficient. There are also some slips—as where the *Duke* of Anjou is spoken of in the twelfth century, and the *Count* of Lafayette (p. 392). On page 39 we find the exaggerated statement that, in the time of Charles the Great, the laborers on an estate "were always slaves." There are nine excellent maps, forming the best small historical atlas of France with which we are acquainted; but we think the first map (of Gaul) should have given the Gaul of the fourth century rather than that of Cæsar's time—or both could have been given on the same map.

Children receive pleasure from the mere jingle of simple verses and the recurrence of simple rhythms, without much regard to the sense conveyed by them. A collection of songs for children, therefore, to be appreciated, calls less for melodic inventiveness or harmonic depth on the part of the author than for skill in securing sufficient rhythmic variety to avoid monotony. From this point of view 'The Little Folks' Album of Music,' with music by J. W. Elliott, J. M. Bentley, and other composers (Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.), can be commended. The book is nicely bound, the songs are clearly printed on good paper, and there is an appropriate picture for every song—domestic scenes, pictures of animals and flowers, comic pictures, etc. Mothers or nurses who can play a simple accompaniment on the piano can easily teach the little ones to sing the melodies, and will thus find this collection a good means of getting them interested in music, and discovering whether it will be worth while subsequently to put any one of them through a regular course of vocal or instrumental music. It may perhaps be questioned if children will see the point of the

play on words in the first and second songs, but there is certainly no harm in it.

The 'Five Little Peppers' (D. Lothrop & Co.) were poor children—so poor that even butter for their brown bread was almost an unheard-of dainty, but so brave and helpful withal that we are sorry that the author, Margaret Sydney, did not show us how they would have bettered themselves by their own steady effort. On the contrary, she provides them with sudden friends, rich and benevolent enough to smooth all their way for them. The prettiest thing in the book is the planning of the brother and sister to make out a Christmas tree from their own scanty resources. It would have been far finer as a bit of artistic work, as well as more useful morally, to carry it out to the end, and to show the beauty of taking pleasure in little things, than to bring in the other people and heap upon the children the old hackneyed balls, dolls, and hoops. The author, also for the sake of a sensational page, "gives away" the motives of her good genii who have done everything for the children out of admiration for their courage and perseverance. The Peppers are discovered to be near connections, to whom not much less was due in common humanity. If ever the nondescript English which Mrs. Pepper uses was heard in real life, it certainly was not in the old New England villages, or from the old New England stock from which she came.

'Under the Dog-Star' (Porter & Coates) and 'Hazel-Nut and her Brothers' (Cassell), are two books of the kind upon which are lavished every variety and luxury of wood-engraving. Too seldom is the story at all equal to the beauty of its dress, but in these two the pen fairly rivals the pencil. "Jock" writes his autobiography, which we are by turns ready to pronounce most canine or most human, to prove the falsity of the common sayings about "a dog's life" and "a cat-and-dog life." He inserts the stories to which he from time to time listens with his playmates the children. One of them, "The Onion that Sprouted," is quite a marvel of the story-teller's art, in its unaffected simplicity and its faint touch of pathos. Its moral is exactly the one which the history of "the Peppers" failed to teach—that keen, sweet pleasure may be found in the love and care of little things. "Hazel-Nut" is a little maid who comes to a household where there are already so many brothers that one of them insists, in his delight, "How can she be a real sister? We never have girls in our family." The devotion of the boys to her, with its softening, steadying effect upon them, is the thread, not too plainly apparent, by which are linked together the many pleasant adventures in the life of four stirring, frolicking, but high-minded boys in Cambridge and New York. It is all very entertaining for the elders as well, from the novel undertaking of "A Great Fair of Cats" to the fate of the "poor, foolish, brave yellow dog, Rufus."

Adjectives which should duly describe 'Bessy Bradford's Secret' (Cassell) might be thought over-strong, so we prefer to repeat the author's own description of the characters in the story: "The extreme selfishness of Pete"; Charlie, "idle, heedless, reckless, mischievous"; Harold's "hot temper"; Fanny, "always borrowing trouble"; Robbie, "an unmitigated little prig"; Maud, "a Paul Pry in petticoats." The deeds or misdeeds of these children during a short summer holiday make up what the author calls "a tale of persistent meanness." Why is it not better to teach by the example of goodness and not by the warning of evil? It only remains to be said that the pictures, though pretty enough in themselves, are often a surprising misfit to the events they are supposed to illustrate.

'A Story of Four Acorns' (D. Lothrop & Co.) is a graceful little fantasy by Alice B. Engle, in which the sights and sounds of the forest are inwoven with fitting verses and stories into the long dream of a child. Its effect can hardly be that of reality, but it will be a delightful winter reminder of summer haunts for children who already care for the woods, and it ought to help to awaken in others that love of nature which so often proves an invaluable zest and solace in mature years.

The 'Robinson Crusoe,' published in London by Bickers & Son (New York: Scribner & Welford), is a single volume, of clear print, of less than 400 pages. It is of course condensed, particularly in the part succeeding Crusoe's island experience. Several motives justify this proceeding where young readers are in view; but the lesson in toleration furnished by the episode of the Catholic priest, on the return to the colony, is marred by an omission like the following (p. 335):

"It is true, this man was a Roman; [and perhaps it may give offence to some hereafter if I leave anything extraordinary upon record of a man whom, before I begin, I must (to set him out in just colors) represent in terms very much to his disadvantage, in the account of Protestants; as first, that he was a Papist; secondly, a Popish priest; and thirdly, a *French* Popish priest]; but justice demands of me to give him a due character," etc.

The particular feature of this edition, however, is the illustrations, which are Stothard's, and here the budding bibliophile may amuse himself with a little comparison. Stothard's engraver in Stockdale's self-styled "splendid edition" (though it is full of typographical errors) of 1790 was Medland, and it must be admitted that he was more skilful than the artist whose handiwork, copied by the autotype process, is before us. The differences in rendering are instructive. Moreover, some plates are to be found in one edition which do not occur in the other; one is reversed, and so on.

Illusions: A Psychological Study. By James Sully. [International Scientific Series]. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881.

EXCEPT the structure and functions of the brain, the subject of illusions is probably the most confused and confusing in the whole range of modern psychology. On the one hand, it is admitted that our sensations and perceptions are only symbols of the objects they represent, and that our best chosen words have still less in common with the thought they would express. Berkeley proved that we were mistaken in thinking that we could know matter, and Hume showed that true knowledge of cause or even of our own mind was illusory. On the other hand, it is asserted that the general consensus of mankind is sufficiently accurate to guide conduct, and that it is an illusion to expect more. While the whole field of mental science is thus open to any one who would treat this subject, he is compelled to base that treatment upon some quite definite theory of mind in general. The merit of such a work must therefore be sought less in its details than in its method and scope, and in these essential respects Mr. Sully has made a valuable and original contribution to psychology.

In his work on Intelligence, M. Taine assumed that all the material of which our knowledge is made is illusions, and that, as the latter mutually limit and correct each other, the former becomes accurate and valuable. Mr. Sully, however, asserts that the mind is always surrounded by a penumbra of illusions, and that only a little fatigue, excitement, or inattention is sufficient to break through the mental solidarity or consensus and admit some one of them to domineer over even the senses. They may not only simulate the immediate knowledge of perception, and assume all the varied forms of dreams; but introspection, insight, memory, and belief are all subject to illusions. Concerning illusion of the senses and dreams the author has only collected facts from a wide reading, and grouped them around a theory of normal perception which does not differ in any essential respect from that of Spencer and Wundt. In the chapter on introspective illusion, or the errors involved in the apprehension of the content of our own minds at a given moment, it is admirably shown how we not only constantly mistake external for internal states and feelings, and are apt to find almost anything that we seek in our subjective experience, but that with respect to our real motives, our dormant aspirations, and our highest emotional experience we are greatly liable to deceive ourselves. We constantly exaggerate the intensity and persistence of present but evanescent states, and mistake the wish to feel in a particular way for the feeling itself. From the inability to analyze the "deliverances of consciousness" the introspective philosopher asserts the simplicity of the idea of beauty, or of the soul itself, or declares that the utterances of conscience are immediate, and that the will may be intuited as free, or as a power of spontaneous determination of action superior to and regulative of the influence of motives. The mind tends to mix up facts of present consciousness with inferences from them, and to invest itself with the supreme power of absolute origination. Indeed, this is essentially the standpoint of the old rational psychology still in use in many of our colleges. The early atomists thought of the discontinuity of matter as granulation, which even the naked eye could sometimes perceive as particles. The microscope, and still further chemistry, reduced the limits of these ultimate elements, revealing great complexity where simplicity had been assumed. So, too, what had long been assumed as ultimate and simple psychic elements are resolved by better methods Space, *e. g.*, is analyzed into a system of local signs, between the nearest of which, as distinguishable under the compasses, there may be many really different sensations which we cannot distinguish. Thus, in a word, nothing is simple or immediate in the mind, as the introspective method (which has, after all, a certain justification and is only in process of being fashioned) assumed.

The fundamental illusion of memory is wrong localization in time. Not only is a very small interval of time magnified and a larger one always reduced, but a year seems in retrospect much shorter relatively than a week. We exaggerate the impressions of early life, because we project our present moods into the past, because youth is most impressible, because only very few early impressions really survive, and because harsher features are softened and pleasant ones transformed and idealized by the very progress of our experiences and emotional life. We remember what was novel or strange, and then unconsciously transform it by reasoning from later standards of novelty, so that the past, so far as it is restorable as it was, is hardly recognizable. In short, says Mr. Sully, memory resembles an old manuscript exposed to dampness; it is here blotted and discolored with foreign material, and the letters run together; there eaten entirely away, or glued, leaf to leaf, and with other portions even transposed or dislocated, and which must be rather interpreted than read. Even dreams often get woven inextricably into the memory-continuum. The feeling of familiarity in new experiences is another of the spectra of memory, and may be explained as resonances from a vast and mysterious past of inherited ancestral experience, analogous to the

Platonic reminiscence. Such errors in filling up our past life make our personal identity less a simple idea than an imaginative conjecture, for they involve at least an illusory sense of continuity. As, however, identity depends in part upon constancy of cœnæsthesis, or the mass of organic sensations, any great moral or physical change will confuse it, as in several incipient forms of insanity, where the patient regards the new somatic feelings which attend his disease as a foreign power or personality, or conceives his present as detached from his former self.

Not to dwell longer upon its forms, it is plain that the very notion of illusion implies some standard of certainty, or else universal doubt, even of perception, follows. Science can never answer, with all its relative tests, the final form of the question how far illusions extend; but rather it, like all thinking, must at last take its stand on a stable consensus, as a body of commonly accepted belief, from which skepticism and every individuality of opinion differ, when examined psychologically, far less than is commonly thought. We only wish the author had given more attention to the pathological and the philosophical departments of his theme, or at least had not lost sight of the fact that this consensus is always practical at bottom, so that it is natural selection which secures us chiefly against illusions by eliminating them with their consequences. We should not forget that many so-called illusions are inseparably connected with conduct which has been most accurately adapted to the environment, and that this accounts for their persistence in the face of the most conclusive scientific refutation.

Washington Irving. By Charles Dudley Warner. [American Men of Letters.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1881.

We are not sure whether we are announcing a truism or a paradox when we say that, as a rule, biographies of literary men are better unwritten than written. Despite the passionate desire of modern times to get some insight into the exterior life of the man Shakspere, we have a strong conviction that the world is really better off without it. For the true life of the man of letters is in his books; and that other life which is merely, as the evolutionists tell us, his struggle with his environment, if it does not, as is too often the case, unpleasantly jar on our feelings, or damage the ideal we had formed, is apt to be dull, material, and commonplace.

In a slight degree the latter is the case with the biography of Irving. His life was bright and happy; no eager interests, no passionate purposes, ruffled its calm expanse. He won, with ease, honor, friends, wide fame, and universal goodwill; nothing that we can learn about him but increases the affection in which we hold his memory; yet the narrative of his life leaves us hardly more than the impression of a pleasant day in June—calm, sunny, marked by no event beyond the moving of the shadows. This easy uneventfulness of life may have been the cause of two notable facts in Irving's literary career. One is, that his external life seems to have had no effect on his work beyond giving him (as in 'Bracebridge Hall' and 'The Alhambra') variety of background for his figures; and the other is, that his work shows no improvement with advancing age, but rather the reverse; his 'Knickerbocker,' written pretty much "as the linnet sings," being distinctly better—not merely more spontaneous and attractive, but more artistic—than the more careful work of his later years.

A biographer, under these disadvantages, has two resources: he may adroitly turn to the work to illustrate the man, and thus beguile the reader into a pleasant literary ramble while the subject waits; or he may enliven the uneventfulness of the narrative by personal anecdote. Both these resources Mr. Warner has tried; nor can we blame him for giving us twenty-five or thirty pages of 'Knickerbocker's History,' which we read, for the hundredth time, more satisfactorily from his clear type than from the battered copy on our book-table, and with hardly less enjoyment than when that copy was new, and its owner had never seen Sterne nor heard of Rabelais. It so happens that the last biography of Irving noticed in these pages was the first of a series which, if our memory serves us, came to an untimely end. We heartily trust that the series of which this handsome and very readable little book is the first instalment may have better luck.

Aryo-Semitic Speech: a Study in Linguistic Archæology. By J. F. McCurdy. Andover: Warren F. Draper. 1881. 8vo, pp. xi-176.

We have in this volume one more attempt to prove the original connection of our own family of languages and that of which the Hebrew and Arabic are leading members. If its author had made himself creditably known to scholars by sound and important contributions to philology, no one would have the right to grudge him such amusement as he might find in discussing the subject presented in it. So far, however, as we are aware, this is his first and only publication, and must be taken to represent his productive leisure and force during the years while it has been coming out in instalments in a journal more noted for theological soundness than for philological profundity. That being the case, the undertaking was a thoroughly ill-advised one; and it is much to be regretted that the author had not experienced friends to dissuade him from it, and direct his attention to more profitable subjects. Nobody in the world, probably, whose critical opinion is worth having, will care to know what a novice opines about the ultimate unity of Semitic and Japhetic speech, or with what ingenious and captivating analogies that unity may be sustained by one whose name is attached to no investigations in any accessible and legitimate field of inquiry. It is much as if an intending chemist were to commence his public career with speculations on the relations and possible identities of the simple elements. As Professor McCurdy himself points out, the prevalent opinion of scholars is that the question he attempts to solve has never been competently discussed; and not only that, but it cannot be competently discussed at the present time, when the comparative grammar of Japhetic speech is undergoing a revolution, and a comparative grammar of Semitic has never been produced. There has, indeed, been a regular progress in the best opinion on the subject, from certainty through doubt to denial. Fifty years ago learned and unlearned alike held, with hardly a thought of question, that all our languages were only corrupted descendants of Hebrew; then, as the latter was gradually remanded to its proper place as one, and by no means the most primitive, of a little group of dialects of extremely peculiar character, the asserted derivation dwindled to a persuasion of ultimate kindred between the tongues of the two leading historical white races—a persuasion to be substantiated by such indications as could be pressed into service without too careful examination; and now the nearly universal opinion is that the question is no scientific one, at least in the present stage of glossological science. We may not be justified in asserting that it will never be legitimately solved—the future may be left to settle that; what is certain is, that no solution yet made, down to the one before us, has any substantial value, or will stand longer than till some one shall take the trouble to demolish it.

Neither in its subject nor in its method, in its grasp of philological principles nor its critical estimate of authorities, is Professor McCurdy's work entitled to favorable attention.

The Lake Regions of Central Africa. A Record of Modern Discovery. By John Geddie. With thirty-two illustrations. 12mo, pp. 275. London and New York: T. Nelson & Sons. 1881.

Mr. Geddie has divided his narrative of the discoveries made within the past thirty years in Central Africa into three parts, devoted respectively to the rivers Nile, Congo, and Zambesi. As is natural, the greater portion of the book is devoted to the travels of Livingstone and Stanley, though "honorable mention" is made of Baker, Grant, Speke, Burton, and Cameron. No single journey is given in detail, with the exception of Stanley's descent of the Congo, and as the author apparently lacks the power of making clear geographical statements, the result at times is somewhat confusing. We doubt whether an uninformed reader, for instance, could form from this work any accurate conception of the present condition of the question of the Nile sources, or of the relative position of the great lakes and their watersheds. Nor would he be much helped by the wretched map which the publishers have seen fit to insert. Mr. Geddie's constant efforts to be humorous are at once fatiguing and unsuccessful. Occasionally he is decidedly coarse, especially when he is referring to cannibalism. Of the general accuracy of his statements, so far as our present knowledge goes, we have seen no reason to doubt, and we can accordingly commend the book as a popular and readable account of one of the most fascinating, if not the most important, chapters in the history of geographical research. We regret, however, to say that its value is lessened by the want of an index.

Reports on the Estate of Sir Andrew Chadwick and the Recent Proceedings of the Chadwick Association in reference thereto. By Edmund Chadwick, Chairman, and James Boardman, Secretary and Treasurer of the Chadwick Association. To which is prefixed the Life and History of Sir Andrew Chadwick, etc., by John Oldfield Chadwick. London and New York: Charles L. Woodward. 1881. Pp. 300.

Sir Andrew Chadwick, knighted by Queen Anne in 1710, in 1712 one of the Band of Gentlemen Pensioners, married Margaret Humphreys in 1713, and died in 1768. Nothing seems to have been found out concerning his method of acquiring a moderate fortune, and no reason can be given for this preposterous book except the fact that various Chadwicks thought themselves his heirs. It seems quite certain that Sir Andrew was son of Ellis Chadwick, of Carter Place, in Lancashire, grandson of Robert, and great-grandson of Ellis C., of Wolstenholme. Soon after Sir Andrew's death, Sarah Law, a first cousin, claimed and obtained much of his property; but certain leaseholds were in trusts, the leases ending in 1847. In 1842 a John Chadwick presented a claim as descended from James, oldest uncle of Sir Andrew, and obtained a part. The claimants since have been numerous, and apparently every presumed line of Chadwicks, traced to an uncle of Sir Andrew, is tainted with illegitimacy, or at best its legitimacy is lacking in the necessary proofs.

There is not the slightest reason for any one but a reviewer or a Chadwick to wade through this volume. There is no interest connected with the worthy knight or his fortune beyond what may surround any person of moderate means who flourished in the past century. His

money was distributed and spent long ago, and but for the fact of certain long leases which ran out so recently, there would have been nothing to make a stir about. But as one Chadwick, in humble life, did so lately obtain a small amount, of course his innumerable cousins and namesakes have tried for their share. The report treats of these matters in detail, but with a solemnity utterly out of place, when we reflect that the writers had arrived at the painful conclusion that there was nothing left undivided for even the truest heir to obtain. One of the writers sneers at certain American Chadwicks who not only claimed the property but refused to join the Englishmen in this search. But really an American claim-report is usually a credit to our national love of humor. Our pretensions to English estates are broad and noble; they are not fettered by probabilities, and they are as brilliant as soap-bubbles. These Chadwicks have painfully hunted out the records of the property which Sir Andrew really owned, and have found out who obtained the wealth by due process of law. Then they dolefully conclude that, though robbers inherited, it is too late to dispute the division. A true American would never waste time in looking for actual houses or lands; but a rumor of a square league in Lancashire, or a dozen parishes in London, or a million pounds in Chancery, would suffice for him to found an association. The contrast of the two styles can now be well made; and as an exhibition of credulity and misplaced energy, this Chadwick book will probably find its appropriate place in the back shelf of every large library.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Appleton, J. H. A Short Course of Quantitative Chemical Analysis. Philadelphia: Cowperthwait & Co.
Auton, C. Recollections of Auton House: a Book for Children. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 25.
Baldwin, W. J. Steam-Heating for Buildings. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
Baumbach, K. Stats-Lexikon. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Bell, A. M. Sounds and their Relations. Philadelphia: Cowperthwait & Co.
Bersier, E. St. Paul's Vision, and Other Sermons. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1 50.
Boalnois, R. Dirty Dusthins and Sloppy Streets. New York: E. & A. F. Spon.
Brosien, H. Lexikon der Deutschen Geschichte. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Bunyan, J. The Pilgrim's Progress. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $3 50. Also, Chas. Scribner's Sons. $8.
Burns, R. The Cotter's Saturday Night. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $1 50.
Butterworth, H. Young Folks' History of the United States. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1 50.
Chase, F. E. Ballads in Black. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Clarke, J. F. Chatterbox. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1 75.
Clarke, J. F. Events and Epochs in Religious History. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $3.
Cornelius, J. W. Sabbath Home Readings. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 50.
Defoe, D. The Life and Adventures of Robinson Crusoe, with Stothard's Illustrations. New York: Scribner & Welford.
Dobson, W. T. Royal Characters from the Works of Sir Walter Scott. New York: Scribner & Welford.
Dühring, E. Sache, Leben und Feinde. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Dulckin, F. W. Curiosities of the World. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3 50.
Ecce Spiritus. Boston: George H. Ellis. $1 25.
Edwards, E. Words, Facts, and Phrases. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $2 50.
Fraser, D. Thomas Chalmers. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. 75 cents.
French, H. W. Nuna, the Bramin Girl. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1 25.
Grossi, T. Marco Visconti. London: George Bell & Sons.
Hardy, T. A Laodicean. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1. Also, Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Hauff, W. Tales of the Caravan, Inn, and Palace. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $1 25.
How is Your Man? Boston: Lee & Shepard. 30 cents.
Howells, W. D. Dr. Breen's Practice. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1 50.
Jung, K. F. Lexikon der Handelsgeographie. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Kirkman, M. M. The Baggage, Parcel, and Mail Traffic of Railroads. Chicago: *Railway Age* Pub. Co.
Knox, T. W. The Boy Travellers in the Far East. Part iii. Adventures in Ceylon and India. Illustrated. New York: Harper & Bros.
Latchford, H. The Wit and Wisdom of Parliament. New York: Cassell & Co. 25 cents.
Lawson, J. D. The Law of Usages and Customs, with Illustrative Cases. St. Louis: F. H. Thomas & Co.
Like a Gentleman. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Lommel, E. Lexikon der Physik und Meteorologie. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Lossing, B. J. Harper's Cyclopædia of United States History. 2 vols. New York: Harper & Bros.
Mackenzie, R. America: a History. New York: T. Nelson & Sons. $1 25.
McCarthy, J. The Comet of a Season: a Novel. New York: Harper & Bros.
Miller, Janet. Kinfolk. New York: W. B. Smith & Co. 75 cents.
Mitchell, J. A. The Summer School of Philosophy at Mount Desert. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $3 50.
Morselli, Dr. H. Suicide: An Essay on Comparative Moral Statistics. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $1 75.
Müller, H. A. Biographisches Künstler-Lexikon. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Needell, Mrs. John H. Julian Karslake's Secret: a Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 25.
Oberholtzer, Mrs. S. L. Come for Arbutus, and Other Wild Bloom. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 25.
Odgers, W. B. A Digest of the Law of Libel and Slander. American edition, by M. M. Bigelow. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Palmer, L. Jeannotte's Cisterns. Troy: H. B. Nims & Co. $1 25.
Poe, E. A. The Bells. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $1 50.
Sayings and Doings of Little Lou. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1 50.
Schouler, J. History of the United States Under the Constitution. Vol. i. 1783-1801. Washington: W. H. & O. H. Morrison.
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Smith, G. B. Life and Speeches of John Bright, M.P. Two volumes in one. With portraits. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. $2 50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 15, 1881.

The Week.

SENATOR DAVID DAVIS has made the "discovery" that President Arthur's message is the first Presidential message in forty years that has not spoken of the "South as a distinctive part of the country." Considering that President Arthur was identified with that wing of the Republican party which looked upon Southern outrages and the portentous dangers threatened by the "solid South" as their most valuable stock in trade, this fact is very creditable to him. But it is also a matter of great significance that scarcely any reader of the message seems to have been struck by the absence of any allusion to Southern affairs. Only one or two papers that we have seen called attention to it. The "paragraph about the South" does not appear to have been missed at all. It has dropped naturally from the list of political topics. This shows how large an artificial element there was in the agitation which of late years has been striving to represent the Southern question as still the most important and urgent one before the people. The absolute silence of a "Stalwart" President on this subject puts in a somewhat ludicrous light, retrospectively, the conspicuous effort made last year by the leader of the Stalwarts to advance the Southern question as the leading issue in the late Presidential election—the very election which opened to Mr. Arthur the succession to the Presidency. That Southern question, the terrors of which were then paraded in so awful a glare, has evidently ceased to be political capital.

Mr. Garland's disability bill, introduced in the Senate on Thursday, provides that in case of the removal, death, resignation, or inability of both the President and Vice-President, the Secretary of State for the time being, or if there be no Secretary of State then the Secretary of the Treasury, or in case there be neither Secretary of State nor Secretary of the Treasury, then the Secretary of War, shall act as President until the disability is removed or a new President elected, "or in case there be no occasion under the law for an election, until the existing term of office of the President so removed, resigned, dead, or disabled, shall have expired." The existing provisions of law give the succession to the President of the Senate, or, if there be none, to the Speaker of the House. There are many reasons why neither of these officers is well fitted to fill a Presidential vacancy. Their politics may be opposed to those of the President or Vice-President whose place they take, and in theory at least their original selection is based on purely parliamentary or legislative grounds, while the successor of the President ought to be taken from the executive branch of the service. It is true that the Vice-President, who may at any time become President, is *ex officio* presiding officer of the Senate, but he is not a Senator, and is still supposed to be selected with a view to the possible discharge of Presidential duties. Mr. Garland's bill makes no attempt to deal with the serious questions which arose last summer, as to what "inability" is, or who is to decide when a case of it arises. It is really more important to settle this by law—if it can be so settled—than to change the line of the succession.

The appointment of Mr. Frelinghuysen as Secretary of State will be generally regarded as a "safe" one. Mr. Frelinghuysen is a man of a conservative turn of mind, a good lawyer, and a politician of experience. While possessing abilities of a solid character, he lacks those qualities which, however shining and valuable elsewhere, are peculiarly out of place in the management of our foreign relations. He is without that brilliancy which likes to exhibit itself, and that restless ambition which constantly wants to be doing something and is thus inclined to make work for its activity when there is no need for any. Nor will he be likely ever to yield to the temptation of resorting to startling strokes of policy for the purpose of making political capital for himself. Our foreign policy requires a sober head and a steady hand, ready to act with judgment and vigor when there is necessity for it, but just as willing to be satisfied with the dulness of ordinary routine when there is none. There is scarcely anything more dangerous and expensive in the conduct of foreign affairs than excessive zeal in meddling with other people's business, and trying to exercise an influence all over the world. Mr. Frelinghuysen has no sensational tendencies, and is likely to be on the safe side with regard to the real interests of the United States. The only thing he may have to guard against is permitting his good nature to be drawn into some of the foreign schemes of the coterie gathered around General Grant.

Mr. Blaine retires leaving considerable diplomatic confusion behind him, and fully justifying the apprehension which we expressed when he took office, that he would prove "rockety and journalistic." There can be little doubt, indeed, that but for the sedative influence of President Garfield's illness and death, he would by this time have made far more trouble for us than he has. The selection of Kilpatrick and Hurlbut for the two leading South American missions indicated, to begin with, a somewhat light minded view of the responsibilities of his place—one a harum-scarum cavalry officer, and the other an old stump orator from Illinois, who had done some political "work" for him. Having appointed them, however, ordinary prudence would have prevented his putting too heavy burdens on them, or selecting their posts as the scenes of his leading international rumpus. Hurlbut speedily gave way to the strain, and began to commit the absurdities which Mr. Blaine himself had to expose in the letter of reprimand published a day or two ago, and Kilpatrick's death has enabled some of his friends to defend him by alleging that the worst of his despatches was a forgery perpetrated after his decease. A special agent has been sent out to clear up the mess, and he will doubtless be able to do so, but not without having our diplomacy seriously discredited in the eyes of both Chili and Peru. Mr. Blaine's now celebrated despatch about the Panama Canal, in which he tried to do away with the Clayton-Bulwer treaty by pretending not to be aware of its existence, was very "journalistic." It was an extension to diplomatic discussion of the journalistic practice of forbidding all mention of the name of an obnoxious person in your paper. He has thus imposed on his successor the disagreeable duty of accounting for his failure to notice the most important document in the whole affair. Mr. Frelinghuysen will have either to abandon Mr. Blaine's ground, or make clear in what manner European agreement not to meddle with the canal would be offensive to a protector of its neutrality such as we propose to be. Either task will be troublesome, after all that has occurred.

Mr. Blaine's instructions to Messrs. Kilpatrick and Hurlbut, if either of these gentlemen had been selected for his place on the ground of fitness or experience, would certainly leave them, or the survivor of them, in an unenviable position. Happily for Mr. Hurlbut, he never made the slightest pretence, so far as is known, to any sort of diplomatic training, good, bad, or indifferent, or to any serious knowledge of international law or modern history. Mr. Blaine, too, it is to be presumed, knew all about him before he appointed him, and accordingly, when he shows by the publication of his despatches that Mr. Hurlbut either did not understand Mr. Blaine's English, or assumed that when Mr. Blaine said a thing he meant exactly the opposite, the discredit does not fall on the envoy alone. In fact, we think it must be divided pretty equally between him and his chief. Mr. Blaine told him that if Chili exacted territorial indemnity for the cost of the war, she would be within her right, though the exercise of this right would be perhaps inexpedient or harsh, and that he should use his influence to induce the Chilians to forego this right, and allow the Peruvians to pay a money indemnity instead, if they were able. But of the completeness of Chilian discretion in the matter, under the laws of war, he did not make the least question, and he warned the Peruvians that it would be "injudicious" for them to declare that "under no circumstances would the loss of territory be accepted as the result of negotiation." Mr. Hurlbut, after having passed these ideas through his mind, informed the Chilians that when organized resistance ceased "the state of war should cease"; that "it was one of the first duties of the Chilians to make peace"; that to take territory from Peru would be "incompatible with the dignity and public faith of Chili"; and that it was "contrary to the rules which should prevail between civilized nations to proceed at once and as a *sine*

qua non condition to incorporate into Chilian jurisdiction [*sic*] territory which is undoubtedly Peruvian," without giving the Peruvians the choice of making a money payment instead. He further laid it down that the amount of the money payment should, if the parties failed to agree, be determined not by the conqueror, but by "disinterested arbitration."

Except the peculiarity of the Hurlbut mind as an interpreting instrument, there is only one way of accounting for the extraordinary body of doctrine which the envoy put into his "memorandum" to Admiral Lynch—namely, his having been allowed to see the despatch of the same date on the same subject which Mr. Blaine wrote to General Kilpatrick. In this despatch, the Secretary, after a somewhat diffuse statement of the victor's rights after a successful war, reached the singular and entirely illogical conclusion, that upon the question whether the Chilians should take territory or money as their indemnity, "the power desiring the territory cannot be accepted as a safe or impartial judge." Why the position of the Chilians should constitute an exception to the rules under which all other victors have acted, the Secretary did not explain, and probably would have found it difficult or impossible to do so. But the Kilpatrick despatch was distinctly more minatory and exacting than the Hurlbut despatch, and wound up with a mysterious and, as far as we can see, wholly gratuitous intimation that if either of the belligerents allowed any European power to act as "friend," or to offer "aid or intervention," there would be "more active interposition on the part of the United States." What this also meant is probably not known to anybody but Mr. Blaine. But the effect on General Hurlbut's brain was to neutralize the effect of his own despatch completely, and to satisfy him that high ground was going to be taken by somebody, and that it would be well for him to get ahead of Kilpatrick in taking it; and he accordingly sat down and penned the "memorandum" which Kilpatrick afterward contradicted.

Mr. Hurlbut has probably had less difficulty in understanding Mr. Blaine's letter of November 22, with regard to his operations in Peru, than his original instructions gave him. Mr. Blaine, it is true, declares that the State Department "is in the possession of no information which would seem to require the withdrawal of the confidence reposed in you"; but as the letter strongly objects to almost everything that Mr. Hurlbut has done since he has been in Peru, and winds up with the announcement that the President has decided to send a special envoy to discharge the duties which would naturally fall upon him, this continuance of confidence must have struck him rather as a testimonial to his character as a man than as a sincere expression of regard for the value of his services as a diplomat. The trouble into which Mr. Hurlbut has got has evidently arisen from a misapprehension of his position in Peru. Mr. Blaine sent him out as an ordinary minister, and in this light he was regarded by the Chilians, Peruvians, and Bolivians. But the functions which he assumed on taking charge of the post were not those of a minister, but of a sovereign government, with full powers. He in fact set up a Hurlbut government, and proceeded to negotiate as a sovereign with the numerous other governments with which he found himself surrounded.

This furnishes a simple explanation of all his acts. As a Minister he was not, Mr. Blaine shows, entitled to hold diplomatic communication with Don Patricio Lynch, because Don Patricio is the commander of the Chilian army of occupation, while Mr. Hurlbut is accredited to Peru. But any government can address a "memorandum" to another government on any subject it chooses. Again, Mr. Blaine expresses disapproval of the letter written by Mr. Hurlbut to Señor Garcia, the secretary of General Pierola, on the ground that he was accredited to Calderon, and had nothing to do with Pierola, who was carrying on a rival government of his own, which the United States refused to recognize in any way. He thinks he should have told Pierola to communicate anything he had to say to Washington. But the most distinct indication of the assumption of sovereign powers by Mr. Hurlbut is to be found in the fact that he attempted to establish diplomatic relations between the Argentine Confederation and Peru. To do this he telegraphed to the United States Minister accredited to the former country suggesting that a Minister should be sent by it—for what purpose does not appear. Mr. Blaine says with regard to this: "This would have been clearly without the sphere of your proper official action at any time, but as there then existed a serious difference between Chili and the Argentine Confederation, you might naturally have anticipated that such a recommendation would be considered by Chili as an effort to effect a political combination against her. The United States was not in search of alliances to support a hostile demonstration against Chili, and such an anxiety might well be deemed inconsistent with the professions of an impartial mediation." So we should suppose. Mr. Hurlbut, of course, could hardly expect a *de-facto* government of the sort established by him in Peru, with nothing but earnest moral feeling behind it, to last very long, but he may congratulate himself on having outlived Calderon, to whom he was accredited, and Pierola, with whom he negotiated, and upon having succeeded in retaining the confidence of the United States to the end.

According to the *World*, the real secret of the desire of Chili to annex a part of Peru is the British influence in that country. England's attitude toward Peru has, it seems, completely changed "since the signature at Santiago of a contract intended to give the British house of Anthony Gibbs & Co. a virtual monopoly of the trade in fertilizers for the next quarter of a century." The particulars of this contract have not come to light, nor is it easy to establish any connection between the contract and the change in the attitude of Chili. Chili has apparently abundant reasons for desiring to annex Peruvian territory in the expenses of the war and the difficulty of getting a money indemnity, apart from any pressure brought to bear upon it by the British Government for the sake of the firm of Anthony Gibbs & Co. But assuming that the *World* is quite right, and the British Government is exerting the most powerful pressure for the sake of promoting what are supposed to be British material interests in Chili, this ought not to surprise or shock us. We have known all along that during the past few years, while we have been wholly idle, Great Britain has been extending her commercial relations with Chili, until the Chilians are in close connection, so far as material interests are concerned, with England. The absurdity of attempting to get up a scare over British influence in Chili, as something new and unexpected, is all the more apparent when we reflect that this kind of influence is the direct and necessary consequence of our own negligence in not doing exactly what the English have done in Chili.

The Senate is usually less eager than the House of Representatives to "go behind the returns" and inquire in behalf of partisan interests into the circumstances of the election of its members. In the cases of Messrs. Miller and Lapham, of this State, reluctance to do this might be increased by the fact that there is not in the Senate just now the majority necessary to set aside the election, as elections have been set aside on no stronger grounds by either party in the other branch of Congress. The reasons given by Senator Hill, in the report of the Committee on Privileges and Elections, for declining to disturb the sitting members are, however, sufficient. As to the regularity of the election of Messrs. Miller and Lapham the committee is of opinion that, conceding the facts submitted by the protesting members of the Legislature, they do not affect the validity of the proceedings. Whether the Legislature did in separate bodies proceed to vote on the second or third Tuesday after the Governor's notice, whether at some of the ineffectual sessions a quorum was not present, and whether a majority of all the members-elect of each body voted on the day of election, are matters of no consequence, provided that a quorum was present when the Senators were chosen and a majority of those present voted. The dismissal of these technical objections is a right conclusion, for the obvious reason that the intent of the Constitution and the laws is to secure an election, not to prevent it; to give expression to the will of the people, not to thwart it. To deprive a State of representation in the Senate on account of the blundering or negligence of the Legislature, when the mistake or omission was trivial and technical and there was in the final election a substantial conformity to the Constitution and the laws, would open a way to gross abuses. As to the "rumors of bribery" mentioned by the Democratic members of the Legislature in their memorial to the Senate, the committee wisely decides that "mere allegations" and "rumors unaccompanied with evidence" do not warrant any movement toward investigation.

The New York banks are still below the 25 per cent. reserve limit, and the loan market is, therefore, easily within the power of speculators who have a few millions of cash. This power early in the week was actively exercised in favor of high rates for money, and borrowers at the Stock Exchange paid as high as 6 per cent. per annum plus $\frac{1}{8}$ of 1 per cent. per day. To increase the disbursements of the Treasury, Secretary Folger gave notice that he would prepay, with full interest to January 29, any part of the $20,000,000 of 3½ per cent. bonds called for redemption then, such prepayments not to exceed $5,000,000 each week. The moral effect of this announcement of the Secretary and the moderately-increased disbursements of the Treasury, together, intimidated the speculators who were "rigging" the loan market, and late in the week it was possible for all having acceptable collaterals to get money at 6 per cent. Foreign exchange continues to rule about midway between the gold-exporting and the gold-importing point; the main tendency of the foreign exchanges is, however, against gold imports, as the merchandise imports are increasing while the merchandise exports are falling off. American securities are well held in Europe, and the amount going there probably exceeds the return movement. United States bonds were notably strong during the week; the advance was $\frac{1}{4}$@$\frac{3}{8}$ except for the extended 6s, which are the first in order to be paid off. There were several meetings of representatives of the trunk-line railroads for the purpose of restoring harmony. The reported result was an agreement that West-bound rates should be advanced in January, but nothing was accomplished toward a settlement in the matter of chief importance—the East-bound freights. The tonnage of the trunk-line roads is now not as large as a year ago, although, taking the railroads of the country as a whole, the current business is larger than then.

Among the anti-Mormon bills introduced into Congress will be one providing for challenges and oaths to jurors in trials for bigamy and polygamy. The object of this and all similar measures is to prevent such cases from coming, as used to be said in Congress, before "twelve unblushing polygamists" for decision. It seems to have escaped the lawyers who have considered the subject at Washington that the ordinary principles of the common law governing jury trials are quite sufficient to prevent polygamists serving on juries in polygamy cases, without any new legislation whatever. There is already a United States statute against bigamy, and upon an indictment under that statute no one would be competent to sit on a jury to try a bigamist who was conscientiously opposed to its enforcement—that is, who was a Mormon—any more than a man conscientiously opposed to hanging could be taken as a juror in a murder trial. By excluding all such persons, an anti-Mormon jury can be obtained, as was done in the Reynolds case years ago, and no statute could make the process any easier. But whether obtained in one way or another, such a jury would be packed, and any conviction by it ought to be revolting to our sense of justice. To break up polygamy in Utah by packing juries would be quite as bad as polygamy itself; and it is perfectly clear that no new statute can make the impanelling of an anti-Mormon jury easier than it is now.

The *Times* says that the proposed American line of steamships, which are expected to make the voyage between this country and Europe in five or six days, will be incorporated under the laws of Delaware, because these are so much more favorable in respect to taxes that the saving "by an incorporation in Delaware instead of in New York will amount to thousands of dollars annually." It is to be hoped that no mistake so bad as this will be made in building the "twenty-four-knots-an-hour" steamers. A law passed by the New York Legislature at its last session provides that "all vessels registered at any port in this State and owned by any American citizen or association incorporated under the laws of the State of New York, engaged in ocean commerce between any port in the United States and any foreign port, are exempt from all taxation in this State, for State and local purposes." The exemption is complete. Delaware could not do better for the fast line except by levying a tax for its benefit.

The "Institute of Heredity" held a meeting last week, at which some important sociological questions were discussed. The main problem before the society, as stated by Dr. J. Storer Cobb, the presiding officer, was "how to set and continue in motion such parental influences as shall make the hereditary tendencies of future generations wholly good," and the true solution of it was stated by Warren Chase to be that the law, as it undertakes to regulate marriage and divorce, also ought to "scrutinize those who wanted to marry," and prevent such marriages as the study of heredity shows are likely to have bad results. As an illustration he referred to the well-known fact that the children of tobacco-loving parents relish tobacco "as ordinary children do candy." A general law regulating engagements would, no doubt, relieve society of a great deal of trouble. It is notorious that parents, who have hitherto had the matter in their hands, have made a complete mess of it, and the innovation introduced in this country of taking it out of their hands and leaving it to the determination of those who are contemplating marriage, is viewed with alarm by all conservative sociologists. Young people themselves are all at sea about it, and their sense of the need of advice and instruction in the matter is so strong that they show a tendency now to resort to editorial supervision, and the leading journalists of the country are having their minds continually distracted from their other duties by being called upon to give advice to young men and women, who wish to know whether marriages contemplated by them are likely to turn out well or not. The objection to journalistic supervision of engagements is obvious. Editors have no power to compel the appearance of parties as witnesses or to take testimony, and their decisions are based on mere *ex-parte* statements, often colored by passion or untrue, while they can have no binding force whatever. By some oversight Dr. William H. Atkinson was allowed to make an address, in which he threw ridicule on the whole scheme, and called the Institute "a body of ignoramuses," but quiet was restored by a pleasant paper from Mr. H. H. Brown on "Our Boys and How We Crucify Them."

The Guiteau trial has been from the first the most extraordinary criminal proceeding in modern times; and among its minor incidents none have been more remarkable than the announcement on Sunday that the leading counsel for the defence was now going to lecture upon it. Mr. Scoville, it seems, who has undertaken a disagreeable task at great personal loss, is in actual distress for money, and, in order to enable him to continue to perform his professional duty, was yesterday to deliver a lecture on "incidents and developments connected with the Guiteau case that may properly be presented in a public meeting and yet are not appropriate to the court-room under the rules of law and evidence." Under ordinary circumstances a suggestion that a lawyer engaged in defending a criminal was going to lecture on his case while the trial was going on, would lead to his punishment for contempt; but, as such a course might prevent Mr. Scoville's continuing in Washington, it is not likely that he will be interfered with. Nevertheless the whole thing is grossly improper and scandalous.

The verdict rendered in the Scott-Sampson theatrical libel suit in London shows that "personal" journalism, when pushed to the point of circulating a direct charge of attempt to blackmail by means of threats against a woman's reputation, may become unsafe and unprofitable. The defendant was Mr. Henry Sampson, editor of a weekly paper called the *Referee;* the plaintiff, Mr. Clement Scott, the dramatic critic of the *Telegraph*. The transaction out of which the libel grew was a loan of £500 by Admiral Carr-Glyn to Mr. Scott. The payment of this money in some way came to the knowledge of Mr. Sampson, who thereupon published in the *Referee* a statement to the effect that a certain theatrical writer had forced Admiral Carr-Glyn to pay, by threats of making disclosures of a terrible character with regard to the late Miss Adelaide Neilson, who had left the Admiral the bulk of her property. The *Referee* went on to characterize the transaction and Mr. Scott in no measured terms. The whole thing was a pure invention, and Mr. Scott has now recovered a verdict of $7,500. The trial threw a strong light on the extraordinary risks which plaintiffs have to assume in cases of this kind. The defence adopted the usual course of cross-examining the plaintiff to show that if he had not done what was charged in this libel, he had done things quite as bad. The object of course is to mitigate the damages, by showing that the plaintiff's reputation is not, after all, worth so much money as he says it is. The possibility of its being brought into use is one of the main explanations of the common unwillingness to resort to civil suits for the vindication of character.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT ARTHUR took up his residence at the White House on Wednesday, Dec. 7.

On Monday President Arthur sent to the Senate the nomination of ex-Senator Frelinghuysen, of New Jersey, for Secretary of State. The Senate confirmed the nomination unanimously, without discussion or reference to a committee.

It has been positively announced that Postmaster-General James will retire from the Cabinet on or before January 1.

A Cabinet meeting was held on Friday. Among the questions said to have been discussed was the organization of a better form of government for Alaska, and the establishment of telegraphic communication between the United States and Chili and Peru. The question was raised as to how far the support of this country could be given to such an enterprise without compromising the rights of Chili and Peru in their present complicated relations.

A large number of bills and petitions were introduced into the Senate on Wednesday. A great many of the bills are for the settlement of private claims, and are technically termed relief bills. On Friday in the House of Representatives a special committee, consisting of one member from each State, was appointed to arrange a programme for conducting proper services in both houses over the death of President Garfield. The committee will act with a committee from the Senate appointed for the same purpose. Little business of importance, beyond the introduction of bills and the confirmation of Mr. Frelinghuysen as Secretary of State, has been transacted in either house during the week. Mr. Keifer is reported to be hard at work organizing the committees.

Among the many bills introduced into the Senate during the week is one by Senator Hoar to provide for the education of Indian children. This bill authorizes the Secretary of the Interior to cause every Indian child dwelling west of the Mississippi River, exclusive of those belonging to certain civilized tribes, to be placed at schools under such general regulations as may be approved by the President, and provides that a sum not exceeding $500 shall be expended for each child.

Senator Edmunds has introduced a bill into the Senate, authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to pay the necessary and reasonable expenses incurred in consequence of the assassination of President Garfield, provided the aggregate sum allowed and paid for such expenses does not exceed $100,000.

The Bankruptcy Sub-Committee of the Senate Judiciary Committee reported to the full committee on Tuesday a bill embodying a new National Bankrupt Act. This bill places the whole matter in the hands of the circuit courts under their equity jurisdiction. The sub-committee, after the fullest investigation, decided that this plan was preferable to that embodied in the Lowell Bill and the other bills which have been presented to them. The committee does not approve of any plan which contemplates the appointment of registers in bankruptcy.

Certain memorials from members of the New York Legislature, affecting the right of the present Senators from New York to occupy seats in the Senate, which were referred to the Committee on Privileges and Elections, have been reported back to the Senate, with the request that the committee be discharged from their further consideration, as they did not consider any of the reasons alleged in the memorials as invalidating the elections sufficient to justify further investigation.

The original instructions, together with the subsequent letter, sent by Secretary Blaine to Messrs. Hurlbut and Kilpatrick, Ministers to Peru and Chili respectively, have been furnished for publication by the Secretary of State. From the original instructions it seems that Mr. Hurlbut was directed to recognize the Calderon Government, for the reason that the Chilians were in possession of the country and themselves recognized Calderon as the actual executive power. It would also seem that Mr. Hurlbut acted directly contrary to his instructions when he rebuked the Chilians for insisting on the cession of Peruvian territory, for it is distinctly stated in his instructions that "the United States cannot refuse to recognize the rights which the Chilian Government has acquired by the successes of the war, and it may be that a cession of territory will be the necessary price to be paid for peace." Neither in the instructions to Mr. Hurlbut nor in those to Mr. Kilpatrick is there any suggestion of an effort to put the United States in the position of an uninvited arbitrator, and much less to lay down the law as to what terms of peace the Chilian Government was to accept. In the letters addressed to Messrs. Hurlbut and Kilpatrick after their contradictory performances, both Ministers are reprimanded. Mr. Hurlbut is censured for answering Pierola's letter, for carrying on a diplomatic correspondence with Admiral Lynch, for misrepresenting the attitude of the United States by quoting a part only of his instructions, for intimating that he was accredited to Calderon because Calderon would not consent to a cession of territory, for suggesting to the Argentine Republic that it send a Minister to Peru, and finally for negotiating for a naval station in Peru. In short, it will be seen that in every act of General Hurlbut while in Peru he misunderstood and misapplied his instructions.

The defence practically closed its case in the Guiteau trial on Tuesday, Dec. 6. Congressman Farwell and Mr. George C. Gorham were put on the stand to testify in regard to the political condition of affairs at the time of the assassination, but nothing of importance was elicited from them. On Wednesday the prosecution opened their testimony in rebuttal. Ten "prominent citizens" of Freeport, Illinois, were called to the witness stand. They had most of them known the prisoner's father and declared their belief in his sanity. He had held a number of important public offices in Freeport, including the superintendence of the county schools. He was unusually intelligent; had a logical mind; was a public-spirited man, etc. The evidence of these gentlemen was not shaken by the cross-examination, and did much to upset the theory of hereditary insanity. More testimony of the same kind was brought forward on Thursday, showing that Mrs. Maynard, the sister of the prisoner's father, whose sanity had been impugned by the defence, had never been considered insane. The prosecution then proceeded to bring forward testimony to prove the sanity of the prisoner himself. A large number of witnesses were called, who testified that they considered him a man of excessive egotism, with a great passion for notoriety, and an accomplished swindler, but that they had never suspected him of mental unsoundness. Mr. D. McLean Shaw, a New York lawyer, created a sensation by testifying that Guiteau had said to him in his office some ten years ago that he was "bound to be notorious before he died"; that "if he couldn't get notoriety for good he would get it for evil." When Mr. Shaw asked him what he meant, he replied that he would "imitate Wilkes Booth, and shoot some of our big men." This testimony exasperated Guiteau to the greatest degree. He covered Mr. Shaw with abuse, calling him a "lying whelp," and other names of a similar description. On Monday, with the consent of the prosecution, the defence called Dr. E. C. Spitzka to the stand. He testified that he had examined the prisoner and had not the slightest doubt of his insanity. He said he regarded him as a "congenital moral imbecile or monstrosity." In the cross-examination which ensued Dr. Spitzka said that he was professor of comparative anatomy at the Columbia Veterinary College, but refused to allow himself to be called a "horse-doctor." On Tuesday Dr. Fordyce Barker, of New York, was put on the stand by the prosecution. He was examined by Judge Porter, who put a number of questions to him the answers to which bore directly or indirectly against the defence. Guiteau's conduct during the week was but a repetition of what it has been throughout the previous days of the trial. Mr. Corkhill has been the main object of his abuse during the last few days.

Mr. George Scoville, counsel for Guiteau, is advertised to deliver a lecture on Dec. 15, in Washington, on "Some incidents and developments connected with the Guiteau case that may properly be presented in a public meeting, and yet are not appropriate to the court-room under the rules of law and evidence." It is stated that Mr. Scoville has been forced to take this course in order to obtain money for the support of his family during the time he has devoted to the defence. Considerable comment has been made on the propriety of such a performance.

In certain civil suits brought against a Star-route contractor, Benjamin B. Wiley by name, in the United States District Court at Philadelphia, verdicts were given against him for a total amount of $24,400, which was the amount of the bonds accompanying the proposals for carrying the mails on the four routes for which he was contractor. In the case of Joseph Funk, another contractor, judgments were given against him and his sureties for $9,149.

It is stated that if the necessary appropriation be granted by Congress, Pension Commissioner Dudley will have all the claims which cannot be established by evidence that is of record investigated by special agents.

Assistant Postmaster-General Hatton has made a rule that the sender of any mail matter requested to be returned if not delivered within a specified time, has a right to lengthen or shorten the time originally named on the envelope, but it must remain as long as three days in the office of destination. Additional postage will not be charged for the return of such matter.

The Senatorial contest in Virginia has been exciting considerable interest. It is expected that Mr. Riddleberger will receive the nomination. A rumor having been circulated that President Arthur would "interfere with the fight," on Friday the Washington *National Republican* published a letter from George C. Gorham to Senator Mahone, in which the former states that he had an interview with President Arthur, in the course of which the President contradicted the statement that he was "taking part" in the matter in behalf of Riddleberger; and, on the other hand, he had no views "which in any manner conflict with the friendly sentiments hitherto expressed" by him to Mr. Mahone.

The trial of Lieutenant Flipper for embezzlement of Government funds was concluded on Friday. The defence claimed that Flipper had been entirely innocent of any guilty intentions; that he had been careless in his manner of selling "commissaries" and collecting the money, but not dishonest; that when he discovered his shortage he was afraid to speak of it, by reason of his peculiar position in the army, and had made false statements, hoping to be able to raise funds before being required to turn them over. The Judge Advocate replied that, since the funds had not been presented when called for, Flipper was responsible, and guilty of embezzlement, whatever the causes which led him to commit the crime may have been. He also severely criticised his conduct in making false statements, and reiterating them until the funds were found. After the close of the Judge Advocate's argument

the court was adjourned *sine die*. The verdict will not be known until it has been passed upon by the reviewing authorities.

A sensation was created in the city of Buffalo, on Monday, by the announcement that smallpox of a malignant type had appeared in a thickly settled portion of the city. Dr. Briggs, the health physician, is stated to have said that there is danger of an epidemic.

In consequence of the dreadful calamity at the Ring Theatre in Vienna, the Fire Commissioners on Monday passed a resolution that an immediate inspection be made of all theatres and places of amusement where machinery and scenery are used in this city. The inspection is to be made by the chiefs of battalion in their respective districts, and they are directed to make detailed reports in writing to the Board.

The weather has been very stormy on the Atlantic during the week, and the European steamships due in New York have been several days behind time. Life boats were smashed to pieces and great damage done to the woodwork of the decks. Several sailors were washed overboard.

It is said that all the capital has been subscribed for Mr. Jacob Lorillard's proposed new steamship line to England. Mr. Austin Corbin is among the large stockholders. At his suggestion, the new steamers will land at Fort Pond Bay, ten miles from Montauk Point, where there is said to be a fine harbor. New steel rails will be laid between Hunter's Point and Fort Pond Bay, and express trains will be run between the two points, making the trip in two hours. It is believed that twelve hours can be gained over vessels entering by way of Sandy Hook.

Several instances have come to the notice of the Government at Washington of late of the practice of shipping thieves and worthless persons from Switzerland to America. A flagrant and recent case of this is that of a thief named Dunkel, who was sent from the Canton of Basel under a contract made by the communal authorities with one Baumgartner by name, who was to receive 185 francs upon furnishing proof that Dunkel had been landed in some American port. The American consular authorities in Switzerland protested to the Swiss cantonal authorities against sending this man Dunkel, who is an incorrigible thief, to the United States, but their protests were unheeded. It is probable, however, that Dunkel will be sent back to Switzerland, and the authorities in Washington will undertake to put a stop to this practice.

On Sunday, the 4th inst., General Judson Kilpatrick, United States Minister to Chili, died at Santiago. On Friday, the 9th, John W. Forney, the well-known politician and journalist, died in Philadelphia.

FOREIGN.

A great calamity occurred in Vienna on Thursday evening. The Ring Theatre took fire from the falling of a lamp on the stage, just before the beginning of the performance. The flames spread with great rapidity. The galleries were crowded and the means of exit very insufficient, and the result was the destruction of some 800 lives. The excitement in Vienna has been intense. On Monday a public burial of the victims took place. A solemn requiem mass was celebrated in St. Stephen's Cathedral, which was attended by an immense crowd, including some of the highest dignitaries of the empire. The coffins containing the bodies of the victims were lowered into a common grave 150 feet long and 14 feet wide. Subscriptions are pouring in from all parts of the world in aid of the sufferers. The fire is probably the greatest disaster of the kind that has ever occurred. It is stated that there was an iron curtain before the stage which was intended for just such an event, and had this curtain been lowered the flames would have been cut off from the main body of the theatre for a sufficient length of time to enable the audience to escape. In the panic, however, the curtain was forgotten by the employees, who devoted themselves to saving their own lives.

The Tunisian question continues to occupy the attention of the French Chambers. On Saturday M. Gambetta delivered a speech in which he said that he desired, in accord with the other powers, to effect a settlement of the Tunisian debt similar to that which had been applied to Egyptian finances. He stated that the French loss in the campaign had been eleven hundred men. He also stated that the Bardo treaty was binding until honorable means should be found for releasing France from her obligation toward the Bey. He added that it was possible to reorganize Tunis without depriving her of her independence.

On Monday a debate took place in the French Senate on the Tunisian credits. A number of criticisms and attacks were made upon the Government, but the credits were finally voted. In the Chamber of Deputies on Friday there was a debate upon the proposed commercial treaty with Italy. M. Rouvier, the Minister of Commerce, announced, incidentally, that the Government did not intend to ask for a prolongation of other existing treaties, and that a competent committee would examine such treaties as ought to be signed during the Parliamentary recess. The treaty with Italy was finally adopted.

The action of M. Roustan, the French Minister to Tunis, against the *Intransigeant* newspaper for libel has begun in Paris. The trial has been looked forward to with interest, as it was expected that facts in regard to the Tunisian war damaging to the recent Ministry, and especially to M. Roustan, would be disclosed. As yet, however, no serious charges have been brought forward, notwithstanding the fact that M. Gambetta has released all the public officials from obligation to observe the usual official secrecy.

The committee on the bill for the sale of the French crown jewels inspected them on Wednesday. It is proposed to retain certain of the jewels, including presents from foreign monarchs and the Regent diamond. The committee is in favor of disposing of such as have no historical value.

It is announced that the Chambers of Commerce of Paris, Lyons, Bordeaux, Marseilles, and of a large number of other French cities have pronounced in favor of negotiations for a Franco-American treaty of commerce.

MM. Sully-Prudhomme, Pasteur, and Cherbuliez have been elected members of the French Academy, to fill the places of MM. Duvergier de Hauranne Littré, and Dufaure.

Considerable excitement was caused in Berlin by a recent attack upon Herr Windhorst in the *North-German Gazette*. The article in question accused him of having raised the question, in the Committee of the Whole on the bill for the incorporation of Hamburg in the Zollverein, whether England and Russia would not oppose the incorporation of the lower Elbe. The article further insinuated that Herr Windhorst had been the mouthpiece of foreign agents in the matter. Herr Windhorst has declared in reply that the attack was based on a prejudiced report of the proceedings of the committee. In consequence of this article, the members of the Centre party, regarding it as an insult to their leader, resolved to absent themselves from Prince Bismarck's soirée on Thursday evening, for it was thought that the article had been instigated by Herr Bitter, the Minister of Finance. The latter has disavowed the whole affair, and has stated that the *North-German Gazette* would publish an article giving Herr Windhorst satisfaction. It is generally anticipated that there will be another split between the Ministry and the Centre party.

Crime continues to increase throughout Ireland. The election in Londonderry county to fill the seat in the House of Commons made vacant by the promotion of the Hon. Hugh Law to the Lord Chancellorship of Ireland, resulted in a victory for Mr. Porter, the Liberal candidate. This election is looked upon as a heavy blow to the Land League in Ulster, for it had been confidently predicted that the Catholics would vote unanimously for the Conservative candidate, but the result shows that the majority of them voted for Mr. Porter. Almost all the judges, in opening the different assizes, have alluded to the lawlessness and terrorism prevalent in the country. The courts are almost powerless to execute justice, as it is impossible to get juries willing to convict persons accused of murder or other crimes. It has been suggested that persons under indictment for murder in Ireland be removed to Eugland for trial and tried by English juries. This suggestion has been strongly condemned by some of the Liberal papers. It is open to the practical objection that it is as difficult to get evidence as it is to get verdicts.

A meeting was held at the Chapter House of Westminster Abbey, on the 13th inst., to consider the subject of creating a fund for a memorial of the late Dean Stanley. The Prince of Wales moved the resolution, which was seconded by Lord Granville, and supported by Mr. Lowell. A resolution was unanimously adopted in favor of a recumbent effigy, to be placed near the grave of his wife, and also in favor of the completion of the windows in the Chapter House. Mr. Lowell, among others, delivered an address warmly eulogizing Dean Stanley.

Mr. Henry Labouchere, member of Parliament for Northampton, delivered an address to his constituents recently, in which he stated that he had Mr. Gladstone's assurance that the Government would support Mr. Bradlaugh's application to take the oath.

Lord Dufferin, British Ambassador at Constantinople, requested an audience of the Sultan for the purpose of representing the necessity of reforms in Armenia. In consequence of this demand, the Porte has decided to institute a commission on reforms and send a commissioner to Armenia.

The Turkish Minister of Foreign Affairs has informed General Wallace, the American Minister at Constantinople, that the man who murdered Mr. Parsons, the American missionary, died more than a year ago.

The threatened trouble between Austria and Rumania has been averted by the fact that the Rumanian Minister at Vienna has assured the Austrian Government that his Government greatly regretted the interpretation given to King Charles's speech from the throne at the opening of the Rumanian Parliament. He made a satisfactory explanation of certain passages in the speech.

Count Kálnoky, the newly appointed Austro-Hungarian Minister of Foreign Affairs, has had an interview with the Emperor William and Prince Bismarck, in the course of which he announced his resolution to continue the policy of Count Andrássy and Baron von Haymerle.

The ceremony of the canonization of four new saints, Labre, De Rossi, Laurent, and Claire, was celebrated with great pomp by the Pope at Rome on Thursday. The Pope is reported to have appeared very feeble and to have constantly required the support of his assistants.

There are rumors of changes in the Japanese Government. It is reported that Yoshida Kiyonari, recently Minister at Washington, will be made Chief of the Finance Department.

The silk difficulty between the Japanese and foreign silk merchants has been adjusted by a compromise. A central silk market is to be established on a site convenient to foreigners, and there all business will be transacted. Meanwhile the Japanese will continue to take their staple to the foreigners. The price of silk is reported to be much lower than before the formation of the guild.

TUESDAY, December 13, 1881.

PRICES AND EXPORTS OF GOLD.

The influx of gold into this country during the past two years has been so great that the general impression is that any export of gold is impossible, and the very idea of such a thing is scoffed at. But there are a few indications that such an export is not only possible but somewhat probable; and that this statement may not place us among those alarmists who are continually seeing panics and crises ahead, we submit a few facts on which this opinion is based, with the hope that they may direct attention to the matter.

Not only has the home money market been for some time past stringent, but the same stringency exists in the foreign money centres, and to an even greater degree. In addition to this there is an uncertainty hanging over the foreign markets of which we feel as yet no effects; for there is likely to arise a new demand for gold on the part of Italy which cannot be met save by a disturbance of the markets, or by a transfer of gold from this country. The first necessitates a further rise in the bank rates, which cannot but affect legitimate trade. Is the second likely?

Gold is, after all, a commodity, and it is bought and sold as so much iron would be. The mere fact of its having been selected among civilized nations to act as a medium of exchange has in no way changed its nature. Its value is governed by the same laws that govern the values of other commodities, and, like other commodities, it tends to flow toward that place where it is most needed, where the demand for it is strongest, and where its value is highest.

But there is another point to be considered, and it is one of great importance. It has recently been shown that since 1878 there has been in this country a rapid and marked rise in the prices of articles of common consumption, and notably of food products. The general rise has been estimated to be as high as thirty-six per cent., and in the case of some food products as high as seventy per cent. The *Public* recently said:

> "While the increase in the cost of grain since 1878 has been fifty per cent., in meats forty-four per cent., in dairy products seventy per cent., and in sugar and the remaining articles of food only fifteen per cent., the increase in clothing has been twenty-six per cent.; in the class embracing the metals, coal, oil, hemp, and glass, and representing the department of tools and machinery, the increase has been thirty-one per cent., and in lumber and building materials thirty per cent."

And in a subsequent issue it was shown that since January, 1879, there had been an increase of thirty-eight per cent. in the amount of money in use, or a somewhat larger increase than was determined for prices. From this it may be inferred that the rise in prices is in part due to an inflation of the currency. But it would be unsafe to charge this rise wholly to the currency. For as compared with January, 1879, trade and manufactures are more active, the exchanges have enormously increased, and a larger quantity of circulating medium is required. Besides this, the rise in the prices of manufactured products and of some food products has not been confined to this country, so that the rise cannot be due entirely to such a cause as an inflation which exists only in the United States.

What will be the effect of this rise in prices upon the commerce of the country? Its first effect will be to check exports. Notwithstanding all our boasts of being a great manufacturing nation, it remains a settled fact that by far the largest portion of our exports—more than eighty-five per cent.—consists in agricultural products, food, and raw materials of manufacture; or in those very commodities the prices of which have increased most. The most important part of our foreign commerce is at once affected. The returns of the Bureau of Statistics show that in the month of October, 1880, domestic merchandise to the value of $84,272,736 was exported, while in the same month of 1881 the value was only $66,799,465, and this, too, in spite of the increased price in the latter year. It is true that in 1880 there was a great foreign demand for food products; but there was also something of a demand this year. The speculation in grain has caused a greater reduction in the amount of grain exported than would have resulted from the fact that the crops in Europe had yielded more in the year 1881 than in the year 1880, and that consequently less would be required from this country. There was an upward tendency in the price of wheat as soon as it was represented that the harvests would prove deficient, but this tendency was so intensified by speculation that for a time wheat was actually cheaper in New York than in Chicago. All this has reacted upon exports; for the exporter can obtain less profit by exporting a high-priced than a low-priced commodity, and a foreigner entering a market where prices rule high cannot find it to his interest to buy goods.

Imports will also be affected by the high prices, but in a different manner. As prices rise the foreigner will find that his profits are increased, and he will be induced to send his goods to this market, unless the rise be due to an inflation of an irredeemable currency, which would in whole or in part neutralize his gains. But there is no depreciation in our currency, although there is an inflation. So that in making his exchanges the foreigner will lose nothing, because one dollar of paper is exactly equivalent to one dollar in gold. The high prices, then, will tempt importations, but discourage exports, and, unless prices are forced down by an over-importation, this may be carried so far as to create a so-called balance of trade against this country; and, should this be brought about, gold or securities will be exported, for there will be no demand for our silver. At present the greatest rise has been in the prices of exportable commodities, and not of imported, save in the case of iron.

But every period of great speculation and high prices in the history of this country has been attended with a great increase in imports, and followed by a crisis. The very interesting tables of the prices of staple commodities in the New York market since 1826, in the last report of the Director of the Mint, when compared with a table of imports and exports, clearly show this tendency of imports to increase under a régime of high prices. In the month of October, 1881, the imports had increased by more than four and one-half millions over the imports for the same month in 1880, while exports of domestic merchandise had decreased by more than seventeen millions. With these facts before us, the only question that can arise is, Will the action of this agency be so strong as to turn against us such a balance as was for the ten months of 1881 in our favor ($180,473,603)? We think not. If gold is taken from us at all, it will be because it is more needed in Europe than here, and will consequently bear a higher value. But the possibility of largely increased imports and decreased exports must not be overlooked; though in discussing all matters relating to the foreign commerce of this country it should be remembered that it is governed not by the natural laws of trade, but by arbitrary and meddlesome legislation. This legislation interferes to a certain extent with the normal movement of the precious metals. The tariff system renders it almost obligatory on the foreigner to pay for what he buys of us in gold, or in some substitute for gold, and this has undoubtedly produced an inflation of the currency, with all its attending evils, moral and political, social and financial. It forces us to take gold in payment of a debt which, under a more liberal commercial system, would be settled by a transfer of commodities. The high prices may force us to take goods.

Will any honest and consistent Protectionist now favor a duty on imported gold, which has brought about high prices and a consequent inducement to foreign merchants to flood our markets with their goods?

THE PRESIDENT ON "THE DECLINE OF OUR MERCHANT MARINE."

The passage in the message in which the President discusses the sad condition of our mercantile navy is certainly a little mysterious. He deplores its decline, and at the same time says this decline would not have occurred if we had given our "navigation interests a portion of the aid and protection which have been so wisely bestowed upon our manufactures." He is, in fact, apparently in favor of encouraging our ships to take part in foreign trade by bounties, for the same reason that we protect our manufactures against foreign competition.

We have no doubt that some day our Protectionist friends will furnish the public with an explanation of the mental operation by which they make their love of a high tariff compatible with their desire that Americans should have a large share of what is called "the carrying-trade"; or, in other words, their desire that foreign freights should be made cheaper. But at present this operation is hardly comprehensible to outsiders. These freights are now kept down by competition between foreign vessels. Protectionists who are clamoring for a revival of American shipping by means of bounties, however, wish to increase this competition by enabling American vessels to take part in it. This would make freights lower still, and thus stimulate the carrying-trade. The carrying-trade is, however, another name for foreign commerce—the very thing which Protectionists detest, and which the protective tariff is meant to check and repress. The object of putting high duties on foreign goods under a protective tariff, as distinguished from a "tariff for revenue

only," is to make it difficult for foreign goods to reach us. They are partially obstructed by the cost of freight and insurance, which saves us the necessity of making our tariff higher. If the freight and insurance were lowered, we should have to raise our duties in order to keep them out, and prevent their underselling American products. To lower freights is therefore to lower the tariff, so that it looks at first blush as if a person who was in favor of lowering freights without raising the tariff, or, in other words, was in favor both of protecting American industry and of paying bounties to shipowners to enable them to bring cheap foreign goods to our markets, was a little daft or "cranky." The mystery, we are sure, will some day be cleared up, but at present it is decidedly dark.

Putting the question of inconsistency or self-contradiction aside, however, no sound Protectionist ought to have anything to do with American attempts to take part in the foreign carrying-trade. It is, from the Protectionist point of view, a distinctly immoral, if not accursed, traffic. If we owe it as a sacred duty to the American laborer to shield him from the competition of foreign goods, any American who goes into the foreign trade as a shipowner plainly engages in an enterprise hostile to the best interests of his poorer countrymen. If he were in the business already when the protective system was established and the great truths of protection obtained their first lodgment in the national conscience, his refusal to go out of it without compensation might be excusable, like the readiness of the West India slaveholders to receive compensation for their emancipated negroes. But the man who would now deliberately go into it would be distinctly sinning against the light. That President Arthur wittingly recommended that people should be bribed to go into it by grants of Government money, is something we will not yet fully believe. There must be in this part of the message something to be explained.

It is in the domestic carrying-trade, if any, that shipowners ought to be encouraged to invest capital. Every one acknowledges the utility and morality of the interchange of commodities between the various States of the Union. There is on this point no difference of opinion. Freights between Portland and New York, and New York and New Orleans and San Francisco, cannot be too cheap. The cheaper they are the better for the American workingman and the better for the American manufacturer, too, because the less he has to pay for transport the more he has for wages, or profits, or both. Here, however, we do nothing to lower freights. On the contrary, by shutting foreign ships out from the coasting trade, we help to keep inter-State transportation high. We refuse to allow the American manufacturer who wishes to reach an American market with his goods, to avail himself of the cheaper transportation offered by the pauper crews of European vessels—another most extraordinary inconsistency. The true Protectionist policy ought to seek to make internal transportation as cheap, and foreign transportation as dear, as possible. In other words, the pauper sailors of Europe ought to be invited to carry our goods to and fro among ourselves, but have every obstruction offered to their bringing goods here from Europe. We ought not to pilot ships from foreign ports into ours, or let them use our lighthouses, and ought to sell them bad charts at low rates.

It may be said by some sophists that it is proper for Americans to engage in the foreign carrying-trade, because a large part of it is devoted to transporting American products to foreign markets, and thus "keeping the balance of trade in our favor," or, in other words, bringing over European gold in exchange for our grain, and cheese, and cattle. This plea is specious, but will not bear examination. In the year 1880, not to go any further back, we exported in merchandise $833,633,595; in the same year we imported in merchandise $667,953,302; this apparently leaves a balance of $165,682,293 due to us from foreigners. It is but a small part of the total transaction, but still if we received it all in specie it would be something. But we did not. In 1880 we imported $93,034,310 in specie, and exported $17,142,199, so that we only gained at best $75,892,111, or about half the balance due to us, so that the fact remains very palpable that the foreign carrying-trade, which some people wish us to encourage Americans to perpetuate by Government bounties, was the means of landing on our shores about $600,000,000 worth of foreign goods. In trading with foreigners, we took in exchange for our goods over seventy per cent. of theirs. If there be any value or truth in "Protectionist principles," if "tariff" be a synonym for gospel or glad tidings, as some speakers at the late Convention seemed to think, this surely was a most nefarious traffic—a traffic not to be encouraged by a civilized nation, but stamped with the reprobation, both legal and moral, which finally overtook the slave trade; though this, too, like free trade, once had its apologists, and even apostles.

MORMON POLYGAMY.

If the President's suggestions toward the more effectual suppression of Mormon polygamy seem inadequate, it must be remembered that, though the Republican party has been denouncing the evil for twenty years, very little aid has been rendered by the Republican press toward making legal provision for its suppression. Most articles on the subject consist simply in turgid expositions of the wickedness of the Mormons and of the power of the United States Government. This has been carried on so long that even the law officers of the Government, like District Attorney Beatty, have fallen into the same method, and instead of detailed plans for striking terror into bigamists, give us declamation on the greatness of the country which tolerates Mormon practices. President Arthur proposes that the law of evidence should be so far modified as to enable a wife of a bigamist to testify against her husband. He also recommends "legislation by which any person solemnizing a marriage in any of the Territories should be required, under stringent penalties for neglect or refusal, to file a certificate of such marriage in the Supreme Court of the Territory."

It is almost impossible to judge of the value of the first of these suggestions without information, which the United States district attorneys doubtless possess, as to the readiness of Mormon wives to testify against their husbands. If the prosecuting officers, on preparing cases against polygamists, have found no difficulty, or but very little difficulty, in getting Mormon wives to come forward and testify, and have been prevented from producing them solely by the rule which excludes their evidence, the proposed change in the law would doubtless ruin polygamy before very long. It would not be necessary to procure a very large number of convictions to do it. A few, following each other at short intervals, would be sufficient to strike terror into Mormon husbands. They would be made afraid of their own wives. Nothing so demoralizes a man as the consciousness that he has foes or traitors in his own household. It is in reality the belief that one of the wives would prosecute a man who provided himself with two or more, that furnishes monogamy in the country at large with its principal support. What we should like to know now, therefore, is whether the President's suggestion is based on any report of the law officers of the Territory, showing that the testimony of Mormon wives can be readily had. If this be true, it is most important. But we cannot help suspecting that if it were true we should have heard of it before now. District Attorney Beatty, in his letter to the New York *Tribune* on which we commented lately, says nothing about it. If it be not true, if it be very difficult or impossible to get the testimony of Mormon wives against their husbands, it simply shows that the great difficulty of the Mormon problem for us is the contentment of the women with their "peculiar institution." In this case the solution must, therefore, be found in leading the women to desire, if not something better, something different.

We must also ask, before we build too much hope on the President's proposed change in the law of evidence, in what manner it is proposed to compensate the wife-witnesses for the social and domestic ruin which must necessarily follow the trial at which they appear. In this part of the world a wife who prosecutes her husband for bigamy does not mean to live with him again. Moreover, she has the community on her side. Whichever way she turns she finds sympathy and encouragement. In Utah, on the other hand, a Mormon wife on leaving a Gentile court after prosecuting her husband to conviction would find every door closed against her, and respectable livelihood among her old friends and associates no longer possible. Her position, in short, would be very similar to that of a woman among us who had eloped from her husband with a paramour. Is any provision thought of, or proposed, for supplying to the Mormon women who are willing to aid in bringing Gentile justice to bear on Mormon iniquity that support and consolation which, in this part of the country are supplied by public opinion to the victims of bigamy? If so, what is it? This is a most important and most practical question. Upon the answer to it depends, in our opinion, whether any change in the law will be of the slightest efficacy.

As regards the proposed compulsory registry of marriages, we are here again met by

the fact that, Mormon marriages being secret, even if we make the registry of them imperative, we have, in order to punish failure to register, to prove the celebration of the marriage. In doing this we should be met by precisely the same difficulty which meets us in attempts to prosecute for bigamy: the marriage cannot be proved except by persons present at it, and nobody is present at it but Mormons. In other parts of the world, where the marriage laws are made by the community which is to obey them, their efficacy is secured in large part by the support of public opinion. For instance, no legal penalty would have the force, as a sanction of marriage under prescribed forms, which is exercised by the woman's dread of the disgrace of unlawful cohabitation, and both parents' dread of inflicting on their children the disgrace of illegitimacy. The marriage laws in Utah will have no such support. A secret, unregistered marriage will be a good marriage still, in the eyes of all those whose opinion a Mormon woman cares about. The children of it will be legitimate in the eyes of all those on whom their social position or prospects seem to depend. All these difficulties require far more discussion than they have yet received, and irresistibly suggest the question whether polygamy will not have to be stifled in the Territories by monogamist immigration, just as slavery in the Territories was stifled by free immigration, rather than by positive penal legislation.

AN ILLUSTRATION OF THE WORKING OF THE CAUCUS.

If Mr. Adin Thayer should think of writing again on the caucus, he ought certainly to prepare himself by a little preliminary study of its working in this city, and he could hardly begin better than by attending the trial now pending of General Tremain, by the Eighth District Association (Republican caucus), for having allowed himself to be voted for at the last election by some of the Republicans who were disgusted with the regular nomination. Mr. Thayer, in his address to the Massachusetts club, admitted and even claimed the right of bolting. Said he: "To a certain extent, and under certain limitations, I acknowledge the right, nay, the imperative right of bolting. No human power should compel me to support a dishonest measure, or a corrupt or incompetent man for office." This is in all respects a praiseworthy position, but, as we pointed out to Mr. Thayer, nobody holding it could get admission to any Republican caucus in this city. In order to be elected to any of our District Associations he would have to pledge himself to support the nominations, whether he liked or approved of them or not. Our Republican politicians are practical men, and do not permit their action to be impeded by the "sickly sentimentality" of doctrinaires like Mr. Thayer, with their high-flown fudge about "dishonest measures" and "corrupt men or incompetent men." They do not allow members of the caucus to set up their private judgment about men or measures against the decision of the majority. They think that a person who objects to regular nominations is apt to be, to use Mr. Thayer's language, "freakish and uncertain," and believe that he will, "in nine cases out of ten, sink into complete indifference to public affairs—the indifference which has thus far been the ruin of every free government." And they ridicule also, almost in Mr. Thayer's language, "the divine right of bolting." Accordingly, they allow nobody to come into the caucus who will not promise to take what they give him without murmuring. If any one refuses to vote for their nominees, and begins whimpering about his conscience, and his manhood, and "the moral law," like the theorists of the Thayer school, they simply kick him out. They hold that too many of the dearest hopes of mankind rest on the success of the New York caucus to allow any tricks to be played with it by amateurs, and casuists, and doctors of divinity.

At the last election they nominated for the State Senate in the Eighth district a man of damaged—seriously damaged—reputation, both public and private. The nomination was objectionable in the highest degree from every point of view. As soon as it was announced the Citizens' Committee asked for a hearing from the Senatorial Nominating Convention, with the view of pointing out the defects of the candidate and procuring his withdrawal. They were refused a hearing. They then had a private interview with some of the managers, and with the candidate himself, at which they showed the strong probability of his defeat for reasons given, and asked for the substitution of some one to be named by the chairman of the State Committee. This was denied. They then appealed to the State Committee to adjust the matter somehow, but in vain. As a last resource they then put General Tremain in nomination. The district is and has long been Republican, and there is ordinarily no difficulty in electing a Republican candidate in it. On this occasion the reformers did not succeed in electing their man, but they defeated the regular nominee. Their candidate, General Tremain, is a good Republican and a member of the caucus in regular standing. He was not a member of the Citizens' Committee, and did not participate in the revolt, but he allowed himself to be nominated and voted for. For this he has been put on trial with a view to his expulsion, and a committee is at this writing drawing up charges against him.

As Mr. Thayer has remarked in our columns, it is not caucuses of this kind—close caucuses defended by pledges—he was talking about, but open caucuses, with the right of bolting reserved, such as exist in Massachusetts. But the New York caucus is simply what all caucuses everywhere tend to become as population grows dense and neighbors cease to know each other. The managers in this city have long ceased to entertain, if they ever entertained, the amiable delusion that the caucus is of divine origin. To them it is a purely human institution. They modified it to suit themselves when they made its meetings accessible only to such as were elected by the ballots of those already in possession, and the smaller they can now keep it of course the more power its members possess. All their interests are opposed to any considerable increase of its members or any general participation of the Republican voters in its proceedings. They therefore make it difficult even for the zealous and energetic to get in, impossible for the indolent and careless. Indeed, they furnish the latter with a standing and unimpeachable excuse for "neglecting their political duties."

There must of course be party nominations as long as there are parties. The caucus is in theory a preliminary meeting of the party for the purpose of nominating, and it was this theoretical preliminary meeting which Mr. Thayer had in his mind in addressing his club. But no such meeting takes place in fact. In the great centres of population no such meeting is possible. It is as impossible as election for office by show of hands, or legislation by mass meeting. What is needed, to adapt our nominating machinery to the changes in the condition of our society, is a device, legal or other, for giving every party voter a voice in the selection of the party candidates; in short, putting him to no more inconvenience or loss than participation in the final election puts him to. There might be preliminary caucuses still, or prearranged caucus nominations, but the preference of the whole party expressed at the polls would furnish obnoxious or disreputable candidates with a sufficient warning to get out of the way. If the Gibbs nomination in the Eighth district had been passed upon by the Republican voters, Gibbs would have seen reason for disappearing; a better man would have been put in his place, and a Democrat would not have been elected. Friends of the caucus are fond of pointing to the fate of Rome as an example of what will happen to us if we fail to attend our primary meetings. They, however, apparently overlook the fact that Rome fell mainly because she did not invent representative government. And if the making of party nominations by the party votes be necessary to our salvation, we shall be damned if we do not devise more efficient means than the caucus for bringing it about. Abuse of those who stay away from caucuses has been fully tried and has utterly failed, and the caucus managers do not desire their attendance. So that the reform must come from outsiders.

SIR GEORGE BRAMWELL AND THE ENGLISH BENCH.

London, December 1, 1881.

On Monday last the Bench of Judges and the most eminent members of the bar met together to pay deserved honor to Sir George Bramwell. The banquet formed a striking scene, but I gladly leave the description of it to correspondents skilled in the art of so-called word-painting. My object in writing to you is not to give a picture of the banquet, but to call attention to the light thrown on English habits and opinions by the outburst of general sympathy and admiration which has marked the close of the late Lord Justice's career.

Nothing gives so good a measure of a nation's character as the objects of its admiration, and "Baron" Bramwell—to give him the title by which he will always remain known—belonged to a class of men who always have been, and I suspect always will be, the true favorites of the

English people. Yet he (and this is true of the class to which he belongs) had nothing about him at first sight calculated to win common popularity. He was not a striking speaker; the basis of his success in life was solid sense and a firm grasp on the technicalities as well as the principles of his profession. He was nothing of a rhetorician: he had none of those rhetorical graces which were possessed by such a judge as Cockburn; he was totally free from that desire for applause which frequently warped the judgment of Lord Campbell. His affectation, if so it can be called, lay in the desire to put forward a kind of manly simplicity, which, though it was perfectly genuine, he probably liked somewhat to obtrude upon a world too much given to respect forms and the outward pomp of office. He was, also, as he himself admitted with singular grace on bidding farewell to his friends, a person of naturally warm temper, and seems to have reproached himself with the fault, which certainly he alone on Monday night remembered, of occasionally letting some slight irritation display itself on the judgment bench. These qualities, good and bad, are not exactly those which appear calculated to gain something like public affection. But any critic of character will easily perceive that Baron Bramwell's great excellences and virtues, no less than some of his minor defects, were precisely suited to gain the good will of his countrymen. He was manly in the best sense of the word—simple, natural. He displayed, without any effort at displaying it, just that kind of sound sense and acuteness which Englishmen of all classes appreciate, and to sense he added a fund of humor which, though it hardly took the form of wit, gave raciness to every word he uttered. Humor, in his case, was, as it ought always to be, combined with humanity. To a prisoner who had to struggle with unjust prejudice, or with the still more subtle injustice of suspicious circumstances, Bramwell was the very ideal of the just judge. To any man in danger of suffering from unfairness, to have Sir George Bramwell on the judgment seat was better than to have enlisted the services of the best advocate at the bar. I have myself witnessed a case where the judge, by his firmness, saved from utterly unjust conviction a prisoner who was, on mere ground of rumor and suspicion, held guilty of murder by all his townsfolk; and those who have had more experience at the bar would, I believe, say that this was not by any means a solitary instance of Baron Bramwell's action as protector of the innocent. With all his sternness toward habitual or cruel criminality, he has always shown compassion for men "caught out in what the world calls guilt and first confusion." Nothing was ever more wisely, as few things were ever more characteristically, said, than the few words of his speech in which he described his view of the duties of a judge toward criminals who had, so to speak, "slipped" into crime; and all his audience knew that his own practice exactly illustrated his doctrine.

Moreover, as we have hinted, the foibles of an estimable character tended almost as much as his virtues to endear the late Lord Justice to his countrymen, and especially to the bar. If you can apply the term "fanatic" at all to a man of such admirably good sense, you may say that Baron Bramwell was a "fanatic for common sense." He was endowed with all that confidence in the truth of common truths, and that implicit reliance on the force of natural logic, which admirers and detractors alike admit to be a marked characteristic of Englishmen. His mode of thought and his mode of feeling were precisely in harmony with those of his countrymen. That he held his opinions with manly independence, that he bowed to no man, that he contradicted popular opinions or popular prejudices, really gave an additional charm to his essential sympathy with the views of life prevailing among the mass of rational and educated Englishmen. This is a point worth notice, because it explains a phenomenon which puzzles historians or critics—the deep and lasting popularity of men like Johnson, whose whole life appears to have been, and in one sense was, an expression of their independent and even wilful opposition to the opinions and feelings of their neighbors. There is nothing at bottom more captivating than the vigorous assault on opinions for which we care little, by an opponent who unconsciously displays fundamental agreement with feelings for which we care much. This is certainly the cause of half Johnson's hold on the interest of Englishmen, and will, I conjecture, be the cause of whatever lasting influence may be retained by Carlyle. In any case, the union of apparent opposition to public opinion with real sympathy with prevailing feeling, has been one source of the respectful admiration felt throughout England for Sir George Bramwell.

It is hardly necessary to add that such admiration for such a man is as creditable to the English nation as to the object of their respect. The permanent weight with the public of character and good sense is, in reality, the guarantee for the lasting welfare of the country. It has done more than anything else to mitigate the evils, which are none the less for not being clearly recognized, of party government. During the revolutionary era of 1848 a lady at Paris said or wrote to Mrs. Grote that the misfortune of French public life was that there "were no Mr. Grotes" to take part in it: the writer alluded not to Mr. Grote's historical talents, but to his singular equity and disinterestedness, and very nearly hit the true cause both of the political calamities of France and of the political good fortune of England. Yet if the genuine appreciation of judicial virtues, displayed both by the bar and by laymen, is of favorable omen for the prosperity of England, it would be absurd not to notice that the English respect for sense, acuteness, and vigor has its weak side. Sir George Bramwell, and the public who rightly admire and respect him, are both a little apt to hold that common sense and natural logic may be treated as the measure of all things. When the Lord Justice took part, as he occasionally did, in legal controversies, he was invariably vigorous in style and always uttered something worth attention—for, as has been happily said, he is under an absolute "incapacity for talking nonsense"; but those who calmly considered his criticisms on the act for regulating the liability of employers and employed, must have been conscious that natural acuteness and judicial training are not of themselves a sufficient qualification for dealing dogmatically with matters involving considerations, not only of jurisprudence and of policy, but also of political economy.

Sir George Bramwell's defects, such as they were, as a controversialist, are in themselves hardly worth more than passing notice. What is far more deserving of criticism is the ignorance or prejudice displayed by some of the current remarks evoked by his retirement. There is, for instance, traceable in almost every notice of the late Lord Justice's career a tendency to speak, or rather to write, of the state of English procedure when Bramwell was called to the bar (in 1838), and even at the period immediately prior to the passing of the Judicature Act of 1873, as a time of darkness or barbarism. Now, no sane man will deny that the system which was remodelled in 1851, and all but subverted in 1873, had very grave defects, but it is the mere cant of ignorance to disregard the fact that this system was sound at bottom and, like all good things, bore good fruits. It produced, for instance, lawyers and judges of trained acuteness and of the highest judicial excellence. There are few things more absurd than to eulogize the merits of Baron Bramwell and to depreciate without limit the system under which Bramwell and men like him rose to the bench. Moreover, though the recent changes in legal procedure are on the whole not only changes, but reforms, these improvements in procedure involve, like every other improvement in the world, certain evils. Whether, for example, the special kind of legal acuteness and knowledge which was fostered by a strict and over-rigid system of pleading will be nourished under a system which will ultimately abolish pleadings altogether, is a matter of fair doubt; that arrangements for constituting a very strong Court of Appeal do in fact tend to weaken the strength and weight of courts of first instance, and to depress the position of an ordinary judge, is not open to question. The very term "ordinary judge," which is gradually coming into vogue, is the sign of what may in the long run prove a very serious judicial revolution. The virtues of English magistrates have certainly been stimulated by the fact that a lawyer who at once obtained a seat upon the bench felt his ambition completely satisfied. He had risen, speaking generally, as high as he could rise; he had no hope of promotion; he had no fear of neglect. It is patent to every observer that this state of things no longer exists. Every ambitious barrister would prefer to pass at once from practice at the bar to the Court of Appeal; a judge, even if he be not excessively ambitious, may reasonably feel mortification in sitting after years of long service in a court of which the judgments are constantly reviewed by men whom he knows to be his juniors, and may think, not unfairly, to be intellectually not more than his equals. The reform of the English judicature has swept away many abuses, but it is idle to conceive that the gains achieved by it are not balanced by some evils.

It is curious to notice that the same kind of critics who speak with irrational contempt of the state of English procedure and law some fifty or forty years back, also complain that a series of legal reforms have effected no practical good. Of the utter stupidity of such complaints it is hardly possible for any one but a lawyer to form a complete conception. But it is worth notice that they all originate in a confusion of ideas which I will venture to say is as common in New York or Boston as in London. Many otherwise intelligent persons entertain in their own minds two absolutely inconsistent ideals of a good system of procedure. At one time they fancy that what may be demanded from a court is that it should settle every dispute in that proverbial "five minutes" in which, as we are constantly told, any man of common sense could determine cases which occupy the courts for months or years. At another time the same critics imagine that the right function of a tribunal is to do absolute justice by sifting every case to the very bottom. Yet that these two ideals each more or less exclude the other is manifest on a moment's reflection. There is a good deal to be said for off-hand, rough-and-ready arbitration by rule of thumb; there is a good deal also to be said for elaborate investigation into the facts of every case, combined with the strictest and most careful application of the principles of law. But what is perfectly clear is, that speedy and more or less arbitrary determination of difficult cases is absolutely incompatible with the thorough weighing of evidence and the logical application of general principles. Half the would-be reformers of procedure complain because judges

do not at once decide every question off-hand, and also investigate it to the bottom. It is the old story of the ignorant longing for inconsistent advantages—of the wish to have your cake and to eat it.

Why has not a judge like Sir George Bramwell not only given us a perfect system of procedure, but also contributed to the codification of the law? This is the complaint which, expressed at much greater length, I have read in one of our leading journals. It is one worth notice because of the almost inconceivable depth of popular ignorance which it betrays, and because this ignorance goes a good way to hinder that codification of the law which all educated Englishmen of a certain class fancy that they desire, and which no Englishman knows how to effect. The plain truth is, that the habits and functions of a judge do not in any way specially qualify him to codify or to contribute to the codification of the law. He has not the special training of a draftsman: and draftsmanship, that is, the expressing rules in clear, apt, and precise language, is, whether the world believe it or not, a special art, requiring in most cases special training for its mastery. It is, further, the peculiar function of a judge to deal with particular cases. The object of a codifier is to lay down principles. The object of every experienced judge is to decide any given case without laying down a whit more of principle than is really required for its decision; the more experienced the judge, the less the number of his *obiter dicta*. Hence his attitude of mind, his way of looking at the law, is completely opposed to the attitude which must be occupied by any one who wishes to reduce the law to a series of principles. Of all the men who possess a knowledge of law, probably the last who in general is fitted to codify it is a judge, and this conclusion, which is suggested by the nature of judicial functions, is, I conceive, to a great extent confirmed by experience. In all countries it is the writers of text-books, professors, jurists, under whatever name described, who have mainly contributed at any rate the materials for the codification of law. The authorship of the Indian codes is due to Macaulay and to men who followed in his steps; but Macaulay never tried a case, and this is true of many if not all of those who may be called his successors. That foreign codes have in many cases been the reproduction of professorial teaching or writing is, if the assertion of those who have looked into the matter can be trusted, past a doubt. I do not for a moment mean to maintain that judicial experience and knowledge will not be needed by the body which, though probably at some still very distant date, undertakes the codification of English law; but I confidently predict that other talents and other kinds of education than those generally possessed by the best members of the English bench, will be absolutely required by any body of men who may be called upon to bring the attempted codification of English law to a successful issue. It is well to admire, and fervently to admire, Sir George Bramwell and men like him, but it is the mere delusion of ignorance to fancy that judicial excellence implies the possession of the same kind of qualities as those which in different shapes were found in Bentham, Austin, or Macaulay.

A. V. Dicey.

BISMARCK AND THE NEW REICHSTAG.

Berlin, November 22.

Notwithstanding about a dozen new elections, which have been necessitated by former double elections, a correct estimate of the character of the present Reichstag can even now be given. It does not greatly differ from my first statement. Of the whole number of 397 members, about 160 are Liberals of all shades, 12 are Social Democrats, 18 Poles, 15 Alsace-Lorrainers, who still protest against their annexation to the Empire; 10 Guelphs, who urge the reëstablishment of Hanover as an independent kingdom; 72 Conservatives, and 100 Ultramontanes. The few outstanding elections, consequently, cannot greatly change the present relative strength of parties.

The new Reichstag was opened on the 17th instant, not by the Emperor in person, as up to the last moment was anticipated, but by Prince Bismarck, who looked indifferent, pale and careworn. Thus the solemnity was unimposing, and lasted only twenty minutes. A few days before the opening all sorts of rumors were afloat. The official papers published threats and blandishments; they hinted at new energetic measures, ministerial changes, and the appointment of a Vice-Chancellor, and spoke of the Chancellor's impending resignation—a manœuvre which provoked an incredulous smile; they tried to convince their more gullible readers that the Crown Prince was opposed to Bismarck, while the Emperor stood by his Chancellor. While, consequently, one man believed that the latter was about to adopt a new policy, another was eager to learn the particulars of the new and "of course Liberal" programme, and a third was even prepared for something like a peaceful *coup d'état*. But nothing of all this happened. Instead of a speech from the throne, Bismarck read an imperial message—quite a new and republican form of making known the Emperor's pleasure to the representatives of the people. This important state paper is very satisfactory, as far as foreign affairs are concerned, and all those who wish for friendly international relations will hail it as a harbinger of peace and good will; but the greater part, which treats of home matters, does not breathe the same conciliatory spirit, and discusses our interior policy as if no new elections defeating the Administration had taken place.

There is only one change for the worse—namely, that the old Emperor identifies himself with his Chancellor, and not only endorses all his schemes and plans, but also indirectly expresses his displeasure with those who dare to oppose his programme. To make plausible to the people what Bismarck has in store for them, sentimental warnings and appeals are resorted to; fancy and romantic dreams are skilfully blended with sober political measures. This is a new, bold, and, under the circumstances, successful manœuvre, particularly well calculated for the agricultural districts of eastern Germany, where patriotism is identical with reverence for and absolute submission to the sovéreign; but "the Imperial legacy" will probably be rejected by the large cities and manufacturing towns, thus injuring the prestige of the Crown. The Emperor, at the instance of his Chancellor again, demands the prolongation of the legislative period to four years (now three), measures for improving the condition of the workingmen, their insurance against accidents, infirmity, and old age, the establishment of saving institutions for their benefit, founded on corporate associations, higher taxes on beverages, the increase of indirect taxes, and, as far as possible, the abolition of direct taxes, and finally the tobacco monopoly.

"All these measures," Bismarck causes the Emperor to say, "are free not only from fiscal, but also from reactionary thoughts of ulterior scope. Their effect politically will simply be that by their realization we shall leave to a new generation the newly-created empire consolidated by uniform and productive finances. We consider it to be our imperial duty to ask Parliament to take this task in hand again, and we should look back with increased satisfaction on all the successes with which God has visibly blessed our Government if we succeeded in carrying with us the consciousness of having left behind to the fatherland new and lasting pledges of its domestic peace, and to the needy and indigent greater security and a larger measure of that assistance which they have a right to claim. We are confronted with far-reaching and difficult questions, whose solution is not to be achieved in the short space of one session, but which we hold ourselves bound before God and men to raise, without regard to their immediate success."

These are the Chancellor's own words, used by him on several former occasions. But however meritorious it may be to alleviate the sufferings of the poor, behind all these fine sentiments there lurks Bismarck's animosity against the Liberals and his hatred of the party of Progress. Divested of its phrases, the message means war to the knife on the defenders of Liberal ideas; but in all other respects it is quite innocent and harmless, as it does not propose to submit to the Reichstag carefully prepared bills, covering the ground occupied by the Emperor, but confines itself to a few glittering generalities. Thus the only practical question which intrudes itself upon the impartial observer is, what Bismarck can and will do in his dealings with the Reichstag. In answering this question you must always bear in mind that his authority has been impaired by the late election, and that less than at any former time has he a compact majority on which he can rely. During the last legislative period his Conservative friends had 108 votes; now they are reduced to about 72, and the Centre numbers about 100 members. Thus a Conservative-Ultramontane coalition may be formed for certain purposes, but if not amounting to at least 200 members, is powerless, as the other reactionary elements, which are hostile to the Government, will only occasionally join them. Besides, a Conservative-Ultramontane majority will dwindle away as soon as peace with Rome becomes the order of the day; for the Papal See will haughtily ask so much that even the most orthodox Protestant cannot submit to its demands.

The election of the presidents of the Reichstag, which took place on the 19th inst., does not refute my assertion. The Conservatives and Ultramontanes, it is true, made a bargain, and with the assistance of some Poles, Alsace-Lorrainers, and a few other reactionary members, elected the whole Clerico-Conservative ticket, consisting of Mr. von Lewitzow, a Prussian Protestant, Orthodox, and "Junker," who obtained 197 votes out of 345 polled; Mr. von Frankenstein, a Bavarian Ultramontane and Chamberlain of the Pope, and Mr. Ackermann, a Saxon State-rights man (Particularist) and poor "Schindluderchen." The Liberals of all shades disdained to make any compromise with the afterward victorious parties, and in nominating their candidates (Messrs. von Stauffenberg, who received 148 votes, von Benda, and Haenel) for the presidency and vice-presidency, only wished to show their strength and unity. This object they attained; but the idea of presiding over the business of a Reichstag in which they have not a majority would have been preposterous if not suicidal. If, however, for the present too weak to form a majority, the united Liberals, under all circumstances, are numerous and strong enough to defend what remains of their former acquisitions against any reactionary encroachment.

Although the recent elections have brought a favorable change for the Liberals, neither they nor any other party are strong enough to form a majority. Bismarck, therefore, for every new measure, is forced to look out for new associates, and to treat with them for each individual case. Some apprehend that he will soon get tired of such a hopeless business and resort to the old conflict which from 1862 to 1866 took place in the second Chamber of the Prussian Landtag. It is

the method of repeatedly dissolving Parliament until he obtains one more subservient to his plans and wishes. In my opinion a dissolution of the Reichstag will not weaken, but only strengthen the Liberal ideas of the country, and will return a more radical Parliament. Bismarck is too good a connoisseur of the political drift of an excited people not to understand his position perfectly well. I therefore think that he will not provoke a quarrel with the Legislature, so long as he can get on with it; but as soon as he sees no outlet he will not recoil from the most energetic measures, first of all sending the Reichstag home. The present session will probably be a very peaceful one. Besides the budget to be passed, there are very few important bills. In spite of the opposition of the Liberals to the inclusion of Hamburg in the Zollverein, and the payment of the necessary funds for carrying it out, that measure will not be rejected, as too many members are bound by their former votes in this respect; but the salary of the Conseil Supérieur (*Volkswirthschaftsrath*) will be rejected by a great majority, and the tobacco monopoly will not be reached. The Reichstag will probably adjourn before Christmas, and if the legislative machine be brought to a standstill, it is for the present much better than a flood of bad laws. † † †

Correspondence.

THE FRUITS OF THE PACIFIC COAST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have seen frequent reference made to the relative qualities of our fruit as compared with those peculiar to the product of California; but I do not find anywhere a brief, direct comparison presented—the statements pro and con are general, and far too sweeping on both sides. A critique, recently published, of a lady's impressions in this respect, and her reply in your issue of the 3d instant, prompt me to submit the following.

During the last fifteen years I have been actively engaged in the maintenance of a pomological garden, near Cleveland, Ohio, on the lake shore, and am now; and in this period I have had occasion to make many visits to California, Oregon, and Washington Territory, as well as British Columbia. Naturally, wherever and whenever I met samples of fruit, I took a direct personal interest in their character, using the basis of my home-grown specimens for comparison. Briefly summed up with regard to California fruit alone, as compared with that of New England, the Genesee Valley of New York, and of Michigan, together with the zone of the lower lake region where I live, the following synopsis may be interesting:

Apples and pears....	Decidedly	inferior	to	ours in flavor.
Peaches (on the low lands).....	"	inferior	"	"
Peaches (on the mountain slopes)..	"	superior	"	"
Plums, apricots, and nectarines.....	"	equal	"	"
Grapes (as a special crop).....	"	inferior	"	"
Grapes (as an average crop).....	"	superior	"	"

I know that the Californian will rest content under almost any criticism sooner than a reflection upon the flavor of his vintage; but I am free to maintain that when a well-ripened bunch of Delaware, Catawba, or Concord grapes, taken from the trellises of the southern shore of Lake Erie, is brought into direct contrast with the very finest of the large variety known to the vineyards of the Golden State, the impartial and just judge will award the best flavor and aroma to the Eastern grape. But when you consider the whole average quality of the entire crop as it annually ripens in California, and compare it with that which we have to show for our entire vintage, then the scale is turned in favor of the Western clusters. All their grapes ripen, and they ripen every year; it is just the reverse with us.

The apples and pears of Oregon, Washington Territory, and lower British Columbia are simple in their excellence and fine flavor—as good as our own; their plums, apricots, and nectarines superior to ours, and equal to the best Canadian orchards; while the peach and the grape are not successful on their soils and in their early October frosts. With regard to cherries and all the small fruits, I may say without reservation that their quality on the Pacific Coast is fully equal to our own in excellence. Also, in this connection, I may record my verdict in favor of the Florida orange contrasted with that which is so extensively cultivated in lower California, at and around Los Angeles especially. When the size and flavor of the products of the vegetable garden are considered, the general average in California is a very high one, especially so in the cultivated sections of northern California, Oregon, and Puget Sound.

Henry W. Elliott.

Smithsonian Institution, Dec. 12, 1881.

SECRETARY BLAINE ON TRANSPORTATION TO BRAZIL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read with no little interest the published record of the proceedings of the Tariff Convention held in your city on the 29th ult. It is not my purpose at this time to notice the wide divergences of opinion, the inconsequent logic, or the bald absurdities advanced by many of the speakers before that pretentious body. I am content to leave what was there said to the good sense of my fellow-countrymen, convinced that many of the pernicious and false doctrines there enunciated will prove their own best antidote.

I am not, however, prepared to let the letter which was received from our distinguished premier, Mr. Blaine, pass without correcting at least one glaring misstatement of fact which occurs in the second paragraph: ". . . but I confess to some discouragement when I see the American minister to Brazil, at this moment en route to Rio de Janeiro, compelled to reach his post by going first to England or France, in order to avail himself of a line of steamers." This is not true. Our minister to Brazil is not *compelled* to go first to France or England in order to reach his post, for the sufficient reason that a monthly line of A 1 passenger and freight steamers is now, and has been for several months, plying between the ports of New York and Rio de Janeiro. As these steamers are advertised as carrying the U. S. mails, it is somewhat surprising that our Secretary should be ignorant of their existence. I enclose an advertisement of the sailing of one of these steamers, the *Nebo*, from Roberts's stores, Brooklyn, on the 3d inst., touching at Baltimore, and departing thence on the 7th inst., only a few days after this letter was read.

By the way, the novel proposition advanced in the concluding paragraph of Secretary Blaine's letter, that "It is idle to think of selling a man until you first induce him to enter your store," must have provoked a smile from the go-ahead merchants in your city who have carried the system of selling by sample through drummers to its present enormous proportions.

Respectfully, W. J. N.

Baltimore, December 5, 1881.

THE ROOT OF THE SHIPPING DIFFICULTY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir:—

"We contend not only that ships should be relieved of local taxation, but that foreign articles which enter into the construction of a ship should be free of duty."

While entirely agreeing with your excellent article, "A Shipping Revival," from which the above is extracted (*Nation*, December 8, 1881), I desire to call attention to the inadequacy of half measures, and the ultimate injury to the cause of commercial liberty which must result if its advocates allow themselves to be contented with part of a principle the whole of which is essential to produce the economic results expected. It is very well that ships should be relieved of local taxation. It is, as you justly say, necessary, to enable our ships to compete with others not so taxed. But both local taxation of ships, and the taxation on ships' materials, are such drops in the ocean of our ships' disabilities that the immediate abolition of both would, of itself, accomplish nothing toward the restoration of our marine tonnage. What are the materials used in the construction of ships? Labor, and labor only. The ore in the ground, the coal in the earth, and the timber growing in the forest, are the only exceptions. All else in the finished ship is the labor of men. So, also, the whole cost of operating the ship after completion, whether driven by wind or steam, resolves itself into labor, and nothing else, as any thoughtful person, however practically unfamiliar with shipping, can see for himself on the least reflection. In order, therefore, to carry out the spirit of the propositions—viz., to relieve ships of local taxation, and the materials for ships from all taxation—you must recognize labor as the only such material, and free it from taxation as far as possible to do so, and at least as far as other maritime nations do.

But under our present import duties American labor is the heaviest taxed asset in America, and the assurance of calling such taxation "protection to American labor" is but an imitation of the butcher who decks out with ribbons the prize ox which he is about to slaughter. By the last report of the Secretary of the Treasury it appears that the whole import duties collected amounted to forty-three (43) per cent. on the whole value of the imports, which therefore enhanced the cost of those commodities, whether imported or produced here, by that amount. But those articles number some 2,000, and include almost everything that is necessary or useful to life, and therefore the expenses of life are augmented by that amount. But if you compel the laborer to expend forty-three per cent. more than the foreign laborer in order to get the same comforts of life, he must have forty-three per cent. higher wages, and even then is no better off, but only on a par with the foreign laborer. Nevertheless this advance in the expense of labor, while it has not benefited the laborer a penny, has rendered it impossible either to build or operate American ships, because on the free and boundless highways of the world they must compete with the ships of other nations who allow their laborers freedom to buy the comforts of life wherever they can find them best and cheapest.

Hence it is not bounties, nor subsidies, nor special exceptions, nor any finespun legislative contrivances that our people need to help them in foreign competition. Neither is it brains, nor courage, nor vigor, nor capital, for none of these has been found lacking in America when a fair chance could be had. It is liberty that is wanting—liberty to the laborer, however humble, to trade in the place that is best, or that he

thinks best, without the meddling of the Legislature or of the interested capitalists who strive to influence it; liberty to buy where and what he wants, and to sell where and when he pleases. Give back to the builder and navigator of ships this liberty, which was taken from him in 1862; restore to him the use on equal terms of the mighty natural resources of our country, and he will soon replace it in the position it had actually attained when the legislative power undertook to direct its commercial traffic—viz., first on the list of nations in maritime adventure and in commercial tonnage.

I. J. WISTAR.

PHILADELPHIA, December 10, 1881.

Notes.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & Co., as the American publishers of the "English and Foreign Philosophical Library" (Trübner), have just brought out Barth's 'Religions of India' and Jacob's 'Hindu Pantheism,' which were briefly characterized in No. 857 of the *Nation*. The same house send us 'Seven Voices of Sympathy,' edited from the writings of Longfellow by Miss Charlotte Fiske Bates. The idea, suggested by the late James T. Fields, has been well carried out, and the volume is sure to make its way to those who need to be comforted and inspired. The arrangement is, first, prose extracts, and second, poetical; the translations from European poets coming last in each division.——A. D. F. Randolph & Co. offer a remarkably attractive edition of Bunyan's 'Pilgrim's Progress,' called the "Elstow edition," inasmuch as the cover contains a piece of oak from the discarded timbers of Elstow Church, in which Bunyan was some time a bell-ringer. But this is not all, though the wood is centuries old. Upon it is set a photograph from a pencil drawing made from life in 1679, which is regarded as the best likeness of Bunyan extant. Moreover, there is a careful and well-written sketch of the author's life, a brief bibliography of the 'Pilgrim's Progress,' a text critically selected, an index, and numerous engravings and fac-similes, historical and imaginative. In conception and execution, the edition seems completely successful.——Another English edition of the same work is published here by Scribner & Welford. It is a larger book, with larger type, but without critical apparatus of any kind. Its *raison d'être* is Stothard's vignette illustrations, reproduced in permanent photography by the same unpleasantly shiny process used for the Stothard designs in a companion edition of 'Robinson Crusoe.'——Ginn, Heath & Co. send us Shakspere's 'Coriolanus' and 'Cymbeline' in Mr. Hudson's expurgated edition ("Annotated English Classics"), and also the concluding volumes, xix. and xx., of the same editor's Harvard edition, of which the text is intact. Externally, the latter is in form and simple elegance a model of good taste. Mr. Hudson's part has been performed with equal judgment; his introductions to the several plays are remarkably direct and lucid summaries of the state of our knowledge concerning them, and his notes are restrained and yet sufficient. The series closes with an index to the words, phrases, and allusions explained in the foot-notes, which greatly facilitates the study of Elizabethan English. Altogether this edition will take a high rank among those intended for familiar reading.——N. W. Ayer & Sons' 'American Newspaper Annual' for 1881 is a very orderly and conscientious list of the American press in various groupings and subdivisions, and with such information concerning the area, soil, products, manufactures, and political complexion of localities as to leave nothing to be desired on the advertiser's part. It is, in fact, in its way a gazetteer. The foreign press is again catalogued by itself, and one can but be struck with the solid array of German periodicals, as well as with the growing French list, in which we should judge the titles proportionally, as well as actually, more numerous than in the Scandinavian.——There has been a marked improvement of late years in our school atlases in a very natural direction. Not only are the maps engraved and colored with greater care and effectiveness, but the atlas is adapted to all parts of the Union by providing special editions containing an enlarged map of any given State. Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co., Cincinnati, who have an excellent "Eclectic" series of this description, have had the good thought to combine all the maps, large and small, of the United States in one volume, called the "Eclectic Atlas." The geographical, statistical, and historical descriptions accompanying each State are very thorough, having been prepared by a local specialist, and the result is a work which is not only of great usefulness for the schoolroom, but meets a desideratum in every intelligent household. This atlas still lacks large-scale maps of Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Vermont, and some other States, but the publisher's intention is to add these in a subsequent edition or editions.——We have received from G. W. & C. B. Colton & Co. their new pocket map of Texas, which is on a scale of one inch to twenty-four miles, and when unfolded measures about a yard in each dimension. It strikingly exhibits the growth in settlement of this gigantic State, and—by means of a side map—shows how the Texas railroad system connects with that of Mexico. There can be no doubt that after an interval of nearly forty years this section of the country is once more about to attract the general attention, this time by reason of its resources and unlimited capacity for development.——One of the most effective expositions and defences of the civil-service reform movement yet made has been prepared as a pamphlet by Mr. W. E. Foster, the well-known librarian of the Providence Public Library, and published under the auspices of the Boston Association. It is in six chapters, which deny respectively that the reform is undemocratic, unconstitutional, impracticable, unbusinesslike, indefinite, unnecessary, destructive, or opposed to public sentiment, and it is fortified with a wealth of references to the literature of the subject. An appendix contains the Pendleton Bill, and there is an index.——The *American Architect* for November 26 contains a heliotype view of the interesting Fairbanks house in Dedham, Mass., built in 1636, and still occupied by the builder's descendants in the seventh generation. Needless to say that it is a wooden structure. The previous number, by the way, is largely given up to facts and scientific opinion on the wind-pressure of cyclones.——The fifth (and last but one) instalment of Stacke's 'Deutsche Geschichte' (New York: L. W. Schmidt) brings the thirty years' war to a close, and takes up the rise of the Brandenburg-Prussian power, carrying the chapter through the career of Frederic the Great. It is rich in old views of German cities, often a background to siege operations; in portraits of kings, generals, and statesmen, like Gustavus Adolphus, Tilly, Octavius Piccolomini, Wallenstein, Eugene of Savoy, Marlboro, Frederic William I. and his great son, etc.; in battle scenes, political caricatures, pictures of eighteenth-century manners and customs, after Chodowiecki's delightful vignettes, etc. Perhaps the most remarkable plate is the fac-simile of the first "Pilsener Schluss," with the signatures of Wallenstein's adherents.

—A natural and familiar group among the holiday books on our table consists of single well-known poems illustrated with woodcuts. The number, in all these years that we have been watching them, must now be considerable; but however much the engraving may improve, the designs still seldom rise above mediocrity. The poorest on our list is 'The Cotter's Saturday Night' (Porter & Coates), in the making of which neither ideas nor taste are visible. The same firm's 'The Bells' is more ambitious, and is not quite void of imagination, but on the other hand more preposterous ideas of bell-hanging were never met with outside of Bedlam. Mrs. Browning's 'He Giveth His Beloved Sleep' finds an interpreter in Miss L. B. Humphrey, who is perhaps the most assiduous cultivator of this sort of decoration. The "tired child" of the present volume represents her high-water mark, as we remember, but she continues to show her lack of training in drawing the human figure, and in other respects her talent is far from robust. A partnership in which the landscape is left to Mr. J. F. Murphy, and the figures to Miss C. A. Northam, is exhibited in Jean Ingelow's 'Songs of Seven' (Roberts Bros.); but it is a very unequal alliance, for Mr. Murphy's work is much the better of its kind, is marked here by one or two quite successful vignettes, and in its largest scope, also, shows a genuine sympathy with nature. It were hard to say what artistic greatness would be needed to make up for the poetic flatness of Ellen M. H. Gates's 'Your Mission' (Putnam's), but we are bold to affirm that the actual designs inspired by her half-dozen stanzas do not redeem these or justify making a book of them. Mr. Buchanan Read's 'Brushwood' (Lippincott) offers a certain scope to an artist familiar with Italy, but there is nothing in Mr. Frederick Dielman's illustrations to warrant the conclusion that he was ever "on a weary slope of Apennine," or indeed in any part of the classic peninsula; or that he has derived his personal and landscape "properties" from any other source than pictures. Nor are they in any way remarkable for draughtmanship, fancy, or pathos. In Thackeray's 'Chronicle of the Drum' (Scribner), a far more serious, elegant, and elaborate performance than any of the foregoing, it is observable that while the chronicle proper is full of illustrations, the moral or epilogue has but one; and yet the real drum-beat of the ballad is to be found in the poet's moralizing over slaughter and "glory." Nobody's pulses can be greatly stirred by his rather lumbering summary of French military history, in which even the versification goes hard from inability to deal throughout with female rhymes; but when "old Pierre" is got rid of, and the metre changes, we feel that Thackeray himself at last holds the sticks, the verse becomes nervous, and the reader's flagging interest is roused and held to the end. What thrills him has, as it happens, no inspiration for the artist, and the honor of so much careful drawing and costly engraving is thus really bestowed upon the inferior part of the poem. The point is at least a curious one; but whether it is more than that we will not stop to inquire now. The number of artists engaged in this enterprise has not prevented a tolerable homogeneousness in their work. Mr. Pyle perhaps deserves the highest praise for the "restorations" to which he is so much and so successfully addicted, and in a melodramatic fashion his night view of the guillotine is the most effective of all the symbolic attempts. The head and tail pieces, mostly trophies, are prettily conceived, and the book is tastefully made up throughout.

—Owen Meredith's 'Lucile' is always a favorite with many readers—those who like plenty of lords and ladies, and of high life at for-

eign watering-places, and who also like to have this gay society attuned to high sentiments, leading at last to the triumph of the truly virtuous. There is not much more than this in 'Lucile,' but this is something, and it is certainly a poem which lends itself readily to illustration. In some respects this new edition (Osgood & Co.) has very rare merits in its artistic execution, but the illustrations pass too readily from the sublime to the ridiculous. The two young men who appear singly, in the engravings, as persons of fashion and elegance, are represented together (on page 196) in the guise of two drunken footmen, returning home from a carouse; while the heroine herself is now a robust young damsel at the piano, and then a pallid nun among the rocks. Would it not be safer, in preparing an illustrated book, to entrust each personage to one artist, on pain of death in case of any varying representation? However, we gladly recognize 'Lucile,' with whatever faults, as the most creditable illustrated book that has lately met our eyes. We ought also to speak here of a sort of pale parody on Owen Meredith's book, under the name of 'Geraldine: a Souvenir of the St. Lawrence' (Osgood)—a parody all the more interesting because the resemblance is alleged in the preface to have been unconscious. The hero is an American lecturer, trying as hard as *Bunthorne* in the play to extricate himself from his female adorers, and a good deal of it reads like the less offensive parts of the Beecher trial; the lovers and ladies and rivals having endless metaphysical discourse, sometimes in very lonely places and at very late hours, with a great deal of Platonic embracing, but without guile.

—To pass to other illustrated books, Bayard Taylor's 'Home Ballads' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) contains a series of poems written by that too imitative poet, and irresistibly recalling the better and stronger work of Tennyson. The figure-pieces among the illustrations are a little tame and homely, as befits the themes; but some of the landscapes are full of grace and feeling, while retaining perfectly the local characteristics of the Pennsylvania farm regions. The local coloring is also strong in 'The Hudson,' by Wallace Bruce, with illustrations by Alfred Fredericks (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The poetry is here mediocre, but the engravings are all taken from original pen-and-ink sketches by a single artist, and have therefore more of unity and of expression than is usual in such books. 'Hannah Jane,' by David Ross Locke (Lee & Shepard), is a poem not unlike Bayard Taylor's in character, and one that has perhaps taken a stronger hold on the popular heart; here also the landscape illustrations are the best. In 'Grandma's Attic Treasures: a Story of Old-Time Memories,' by Mary D. Brine (E. P. Dutton & Co.), the verse is of a prolonged and rather rugged description, but many of the landscapes and some of the figure-pieces are very pleasing, while the artist fairly revels in old arm-chairs and spinning-wheels. It is plain that the romance of domestic antiquity is to reign for some years yet in architecture, art, and literature.

—The illustrations are of the least possible consequence in the 'Poems by William Wordsworth,' published by W. J. Johnston, and edited with an introduction by Mr. Richard H. Stoddard. They have various qualities, among which we do not find newness, and the best are those which are from the pencil or in the manner of Birket Foster. The large type shows at a glance that we are dealing only with selections from the great body of Wordsworth's verse. One need not look here, for example, for "The Leech-gatherer," nor the elegiac stanzas on a picture of Peele Castle, nor for any but the least portion (numerically speaking) of the sonnets. Mr. Stoddard's theme is the blank in nature-poetry from the time of Milton to that of Wordsworth. Mr. Stoddard is also the author of two articles in the attractive volume just published by D. Appleton & Co., 'The Homes and Haunts of Our Elder Poets.' Here he treats of Longfellow and Whittier, as Mr. H. N. Powers treats of Bryant, and Mr. F. B. Sanborn of Emerson, Holmes, and Lowell, with this difference, that while his aim and method are almost exclusively critical, his colleagues are more concerned with personal details. This gives variety to the book, and as Mr. Stoddard's judgments are in general sound, and Mr. Sanborn in particular has nothing to communicate that is not interesting, and much that is intimate and (as in Lowell's case) novel, the result is a work which any one may take pleasure in reading and in owning. We cannot say of our own knowledge what proportion of the six papers now appears for the first time; but the readers of *Scribner's Magazine* will at least recognize the major part of the illustrations. The portraits, unhappily, are least successful. Lowell's is inadequate and hardly passable, while Mr. Wyatt Eaton's hazy series of heads fall a good deal short of what the same pains and ability on the engraver's part would have made from first-rate photographs. The typography and presswork are excellent. Mr. George Barnett Smith's two volumes of 'Illustrated British Ballads' (Cassell) have been derived partly from classic collections like Percy's 'Reliques' and Scott's 'Border Minstrelsy,' but are also indebted in a very considerable degree to the poets of the last hundred years, and particularly of the present century. Thus, among the living may be named Tennyson, Browning, Matthew Arnold, Aubrey de Vere, Swinburne, Morris, D. G. Rossetti, Robert Buchanan, Charles Mackay, Jean Ingelow, etc.; following Coleridge, Southey, Wordsworth, William Blake, Keats, Campbell, Byron, Moore, Hood, Hemans, Scott, James and Horace Smith, Praed, Motherwell, Thackeray, Sidney Dobell, and a long line of elders backward from Cowper and Goldsmith to Drayton. The bare enumeration is a guarantee of the worth of Mr. Smith's collection, which is arranged in a *quasi*-alphabetical order (by titles), and has an index of first lines, but not of authors. Each ballad is introduced by a brief account of its origin or composer. The running illustrations are fairly good examples of the British school of design and wood-cutting; for frontispieces two etchings are given.

—The Paris Union Centrale des Beaux-Arts gave last year a technological exhibition, made up of loans from private collections, with reference to the artistic employment of metals alone, in all ages. One contributor sent as many as 500 objects, and the total number was something near 10,000. Next year the line will be ivory, wood, etc., and in 1884 stone, glass, porcelain, etc. Along with finished masterpieces are shown the tools and the methods of working, and the result is at once a glimpse of the world's progress or movement in the arts, and a lesson in the processes by which the various branches are maintained at the present day. This exhibition of 1880 has been used as the basis of a work originally more ambitious than it proved in the sequel, 'Les Arts du Métal' (Paris: Quantin; New York: J. W. Bouton). This folio—or portfolio, as it might be called, for the sheets are not bound in with the covers—consists of a preface containing a rapid summary of the growth of the arts presently to be illustrated, with allusions to striking examples in the late exhibition of the Union Centrale, and with a few drawings or engravings of these in the text. Then follow the plates in heliotype, if that is the name of the process, each with its sheet of descriptive letter-press. This part is unqualifiedly beautiful and instructive, beginning with antique bronzes—statuary, vases, and the like—and carried on through enamels, the very curious and grotesque yellow copper vessels (called *dinanderie*) used for holding hot liquids, knockers of noble design, plaques, some fine specimens of clocks, charming iron-work in keys and locks and cutlery, articles of furniture in metal, a remarkable Japanese bronze piece with tripod, doves, and peacocks, etc. The department of moneys and medals, in which the exhibition was conspicuously rich, is here unrepresented, but the specimens just enumerated will repay long and loving study, and convey an idea of the enormous value of the store from which they were mediately and immediately borrowed. Of one of the tributary collections it is said that it could furnish forth a municipal museum.

—Although the season for out-of-door sports is past, the fact that lawn tennis is being vigorously played day and night at various armories in this and other cities proves the remarkable popularity of the game, and makes a reference to it not altogether untimely. Messrs. Strahan & Co., of London, have recently published a little book entitled 'Lawn Tennis: Its Players, and How to Play,' by Lieut.-Col. Osborn, which the many votaries of the game in this country may study with profit. The writer shows how lawn tennis descended, from the sky or elsewhere, upon a generation that had grown tired of skating-rinks and croquet and was thus peculiarly prepared for a new game; how the first experts in it won their laurels by "cutting," and the present champion of England, Mr. W. Renshaw, by "volleying"; and how his play in other respects differs from that of several other celebrated English players. The story is well told, and will interest not only the expert tennis-player, but the veriest beginner, in whose mind the idea of a "bisque" is not yet dissociated from clams. The game has so many attractions for both sexes and for almost all ages and sizes that it is tolerably safe to predict that its popularity will be permanent. It provides any required amount of exercise in a comparatively short space of time and at a moderate cost, and it is as yet free from the incubus of "leagues" and professional players.

—The value to be attached to "Professor" Vennor's much-vaunted key to the weather, and to all his utterances based upon it, may be judged by collating these two contradictory predictions concerning the present month. From the Almanac for 1881:

"The characteristics of December probably will be those of the preceding two months. This, I believe, will be one of those Decembers that will cause inquiry of the oldest inhabitant as to whether there ever had been such a December before. In Canada *flowers* may be discovered *in bloom in the open garden*, and ploughing will be continued almost up to Christmas."

In his new Almanac for 1882, published three months ago, he goes to the opposite extreme:

"DECEMBER, 1881.—I hardly like the look of this month, viewed from the present standpoint (Sept. 18). It looks ugly, and smacks of cold—*bitter, biting cold*, north and south, east and west. The month bids fair to be cold and dry rather than otherwise, and this cold may be somewhat proportionate to the heat of the past summer, and extend to extreme southern and western points. The entry of the month is likely to bring in winter abruptly in most sections where winter is usually expected and experienced. The first week of the month will probably give the first good snow-falls of the season in New York."

One or other of these forecasts must prove to be partially correct; and the Canadian will point with pride to that one and say nothing of the other, "as December is an important one of the

winter months, and one about which I am particularly careful." It may not be amiss to remark here that the winter change (*alias* "November wave") occurred this year early in October, instead of at its usual date, approximately November 1.

—In a recent number of *Unsere Zeit*, Gerhard Rohlfs, who holds a similar position as an authority in relation to North Africa to that which Vámbéry does to Central Asia, strongly advocates the annexation of Tunis by the French, as absolutely essential to the peace, if not the existence, of the colony of Algeria. He maintains that Tunis is in reality a part of Algeria, whether considered in its geographical, geological, or ethnographical relations, and recalls the fact that up to the conquest of the latter country in 1830, Tunis was for centuries tributary to it. The boundaries of the colony, both on the east and the west, are purely artificial, in each case dividing great tribes, so that some families are subjects of France and others are subjects of the Bey of Tunis, or of the Sultan of Morocco. Naturally this political division is little regarded by the Arabs, and to this day the official prayers on Friday in the mosques throughout Algeria are offered, not for the President of the French republic, but for the Sultans of Morocco and Turkey, and this in spite of every effort on the part of the French to prevent it. He advocates a strong repressive policy against the insurgents, and heartily commends the destruction of the sacred tomb of the Sheikh Sidi, and the occupation of Kairouan, both measures which have provoked much hostile criticism in France and England. The French have erred heretofore, in his judgment, on the side of leniency, and have pardoned and decorated the leaders of revolts whom they should have sternly punished. He not indirectly hints that the annexation of Morocco is the next step which the French will be obliged to take, holding that peace under Christian rule in Algeria is impossible so long as the countries on its borders are governed by Mohammedans. Here we may recall the fact that Captain Colville, in the account of his travels through Morocco published last year, drew attention to the measures which the French were taking with a view to the future occupancy of the country. Another German writer of some note, who has also made a study of North African politics on the spot, Carl Vogt, vigorously supports these views in an article in the October number of *Unsere Zeit*, though he sees greater difficulties for the French in carrying out their present policy than the distinguished traveller seems to anticipate. With the latter he condemns the policy, pursued under the Empire and to a great degree under the Republic, of sustaining the chiefs in their power, especially by large concessions of land. That this has greatly interfered with the prosperity of the colony he shows from a semi-official paper by Dr. Liotaud, the president of the Algerian Agricultural Society, which closes with an earnest appeal to the Government to give the absolute ownership of the land to the peasant who will cultivate it, as his only possible escape from the grinding tyranny to which he is subjected by his chiefs.

—We called attention not long since to a movement on the part of the German librarians to establish a national library at Berlin, at the expense of authors and publishers, by means of the copyright law. Publishers have complained bitterly of the injustice of the deposit of five copies of each new book, in as many libraries, required in England; but this does not prevent similar schemes from being proposed in other countries. Even before the German movement a more thoroughgoing idea had been mooted in France. The *Moniteur* has proposed, in the coolest way, as the National Library has not funds enough to bind the works which the French publishers deposit merely sewed in paper covers, as French books usually are on their first appearance, that publishers should be obliged to present their books bound. It would be an additional charge, the *Moniteur* acknowledged, but it would not be more than ought to be demanded, considering, first, that all authors draw more or less upon the common stock of literature, and ought to allow others hereafter to draw from them, *lampada tradere*, and, second, that they ought to be very glad that there is one place where their titles to literary fame will be carefully preserved, and so, in the interest of their own glory, would do well to present the documents in a form suitable for preservation. As to the details of the operation, it is proposed, in order to secure uniformity, that publishers be obliged to bind the presentation copies at binderies designated by the library, in such style as the library shall indicate, the binding being assigned once a year to the lowest bidder.

—The first or prose volume of Prof. Aristide Baragiola's 'Italian Chrestomathy' (Strassburg) is divided into three departments—viz., 1, Ancient and Modern Language; 2, Polite Tuscan Language; 3, Dialects. First in order come brief paragraphs by famous authors—dialogues, fables, and letters on various subjects, which render the book useful as a manual of instruction and "First Reader." Next, in the literary department, which is progressively arranged with unusual system and scholarly taste, articles on all sorts of topics from the best ancient and modern authors are contrasted, to teach the foreigner differences in linguistic and literary style, and are made doubly valuable to the *litterateur* by notes full of historical information. The classical, modern, and romantic schools are illustrated in selections made with a view to exhibit not only the Italian language in its variety, but its growth and peculiarities arising from the customs of the people in the different parts of Italy. Thus, in the case of Manzoni, who belongs to the Romantic school, a curious change in language is shown in the early and the late corrected edition of 'I Promessi Sposi.' Teachers will find this Chrestomathy of a higher order and more interesting to beginners than the average. Accents are fully given, and the different dialects are compared to modern Tuscan, so that they may be easily learned by analogy. The book in every respect is original, clear, and comprehensive, desirable for general reading, and worthy of the first rank among works on literature and education.

—Schubert's B minor entr'acte from "Rosamunde" served as a good introduction to the second concert of the Philharmonic Society on Saturday night. When this music was for the first time played in Vienna (1823) in connection with the "romantic play" for which it was written, a wise critic observed that "at present Herr Schubert is too much applauded; hereafter may he never complain of being too little recognized." Had Herr Schubert been present at Saturday's concert, he would hardly have felt inclined to complain that his beautiful melodies and fine orchestral combinations were insufficiently appreciated, or that Mr. Thomas's orchestra failed to give prominence to all the interesting details. He would have admitted, too, that America was making rapid progress in music had he seen two of the first violins of this orchestra (Messrs. Brandt and Arnold) rise at the end of his piece and play a D minor concerto for two violins by Bach, with a thorough comprehension of the author's intention and a perfection of technique that many a travelling virtuoso might have envied. Bach has shown in many of his compositions, as, *e. g.*, the last chorus of his Passion music, that he can stir the soul as deeply as any master. Works like this concerto, however, appeal less to the emotions than to the intellect, which delights in tracing the outlines of the beautiful pattern by pursuing the thread of melody as it appears curiously interwoven among the various parts. Intellectual works of this sort have one advantage over the emotional in that they do not pall on the hearer, and can be appreciated in almost every mood after a hundred or more repetitions. Attention may also be called here to the simple and noble endings which Bach's compositions have in common with those of the modern German school, and which distinguish them favorably from the artificial and stereotyped cadences of the Mozart-Beethoven period. A first performance of Rubinstein's Fifth Symphony, in G minor, op. 107, followed the concerto. For a symphonic work it is so uncommonly simple in structure that a musician of ordinary intelligence can "take it all in" at the first hearing, although it is too good a work not to gain by repetition. It owes its simplicity to some old Slav melodies which form some of its themes, and to which its name of "Russian Symphony" is due. Its faults are a lack of sufficient contrast in the rhythmic movements and a certain monotony of coloring. We would hardly go so far as Dr. Hanslick, who once spoke of Rubinstein's orchestral colors as "dirty"; but the great pianist's prejudice against certain tendencies in modern music seems not only to have diminished the success of his operas, but to have prevented him from utilizing some of the more recent discoveries in orchestration. He usually employs his brass instruments in the primitive and imperfect manner of Schumann, and fails to make proper use of the rich undercurrent that can be given to piano passages by their subdued and sustained harmonies. There is consequently too great a predominance of the strings, which is not often enough relieved by such charming passages as the introduction to the Andante. Barring these imperfections, the symphony is a delightful work, full of little surprises and interesting episodes, and we hope to meet with it frequently on the programmes of these concerts. Previous to a capital performance of Beethoven's popular Leonore overture No. 3, which closed the concert, Signor Galassi sang a selection from Wagner's "Flying Dutchman" in his usual broad and noble style. That Mr. Thomas thanked him by shaking hands with him at the end, both at the rehearsal and the concert, must have been as highly prized by him as the applause of the audience. The passage chosen is so essentially dramatic in its nature that something would have been gained if the situation had been explained in a few words on the programme. It is sad enough that New Yorkers are obliged to hear such things on the concert stage if they wish to hear them at all; but in the present state of affairs a few hints given on the programme will enable any person with a trace of imagination to construct a more realistic and satisfactory picture of the scene than he would be likely to witness at the Academy of Music, were the attempt made to produce this opera there.

OLIVER CROMWELL.

Life of Oliver Cromwell. By F. W. Cornish, M. A., Assistant Master at Eton College. With maps and plans. London: Rivingtons.

CROMWELL'S career bears a strange character of paradox. The most fervently religious ruler who has ever governed England, he yet excited, both in his lifetime as after his death, suspicions of profound hypocrisy; the most successful leader of men who has ever risen from private life to supreme power (for his whole course from the beginning of the civil wars down

to the day of his death is not marked by a single failure), he has yet left it open for doubt and discussion whether he can make good his claim to a place among statesmen of the first rank.

Carlyle has dispelled forever the stupid delusion, generated by party spirit and kept alive by popular ignorance, that the man who held the foremost place in England at the greatest crisis of her destiny was no better than a Puritan *Tartuffe*. But any one who reads attentively Mr. Cornish's admirable little 'Life of Oliver Cromwell' will learn even more easily than from the pages of Carlyle's elaborate work that, if Cromwell's faults no less than his merits are to be really understood, one must admit not only that he was no hypocrite, but also that he was more truly under the influence of religious sentiment and religious ideas than any other person who could be named in the long line of English monarchs or English ministers. Luther, Knox, Bunyan, Baxter, and Wesley were not more truly men of religion (which is a different thing from saying they were not better men) than the Lord Protector. On this matter his public addresses may be set aside by any one who thinks that their pious phraseology was, though not hypocritical, yet conventional, and intended to meet the taste of an audience of Puritans. Oliver's private writings, and the recorded expressions of his every-day life, are quite sufficient to establish the reality of his religious convictions. That, after a possibly somewhat wild youth or boyhood, he during early manhood went through what he always believed to be a process of conversion, is certain. "Oh, I lived in and loved darkness and hated light. I was a chief, the chief, of sinners. That is true. I hated godliness, yet God had mercy on me." Can any human being doubt that these words expressed Cromwell's real feeling?

It may, indeed, be fancied that early fervor passed away with advance of years and increased experience of the world. Whoever entertains this thought should read Cromwell's letter to his brother-in-law on the death of that gentleman's son:

"God hath taken away your eldest son by a cannon-shot. . . . Sir, you know my own trials this way; but the Lord supported me with this, that the Lord took him into the happiness we all pant for and live for. There is your precious child, full of glory, never to know sin or sorrow any more. . . . Truly he was exceedingly beloved in the army of all that knew him; he is a glorious saint in heaven, wherein you ought exceedingly to rejoice. Let this drink up your sorrow, seeing these are not feigned words to comfort you."

This was his language in the very midst of the civil war. These words, written by a father who had himself lost his own son, to a near relative mourning over the death of a child, are assuredly the expression of the truest feeling. A year or two later he shows himself filled with anxiety (which was not misplaced) as to the character of his son Richard. "I would have him mind and understand business, read a little history, study the mathematics and cosmography; these are good, with subordination to the things of God; better than idleness or mere outward worldly contents. *These fit for public services, for which a man is born.*" To his daughter-in-law he writes on the same day: "I desire you both to make it above all things your business to seek the Lord, to be frequently calling upon Him, . . . and be listening what returns He makes to you; for He will be speaking in your ear and in your heart if you attend thereunto. I desire you to provoke your husband likewise thereunto. As for the pleasures of this life and outward business, let that be upon the bye." Expressions like these, used in a letter never intended to meet the public eye, tell their own tale. The writer may be a self-deceiver, his conduct may fall far short of his own moral standard, his views of duty may themselves be tinged with fanaticism or unscrupulousness; but to suppose that he is not really concerned for the state of his own soul and for the spiritual welfare of those he loves, is utterly to misread human nature. Nor did Cromwell's death-bed in any way belie his life. Theological speculations, religious thoughts, religious anxieties, and religious consolations filled his mind as completely when he lay a-dying as at those seasons, not unfrequent with him, of spiritual exaltation, when he saw in his own triumphs the signs of God's approval and support:

"He spoke of the two Covenants of Grace and of Works. 'They were two,' he was heard ejaculating; 'Two, but put into One before the Foundation of the World!' And again, 'It is holy and true, it is holy and true, it is holy and true! Who made it holy and true? The Mediator of the Covenant!' . . . When his wife and children stood weeping round him, he said: 'Love not this world. . . . Children, live like Christians; I leave you the Covenant to feed upon.' And again: 'Lord, Thou knowest if I do desire to live it is to show forth Thy praise and declare Thy works.' Once he was heard saying, 'It is a fearful thing to fall into the hands of the Living God!' This was spoken three times, says Harvey. . . . Thrice over he said this, looking into the Eternal Kingdoms: 'A fearful thing to fall into the hands of the Living God!' . . . But again: ' . . . The Lord hath filled me with as much assurance of His pardon and His love as my soul can hold. . . .'"

On his death-bed, as during his life, Cromwell used language which in any other man we should take as the unmistakable sign of fervent and sincere religious feeling, and is there the least reason to suppose that the demeanor of an enthusiast was the mask of a hypocrite? Critics will to the end of time differ in their estimate of Cromwell's moral worth; but there are, we suspect, few persons, of whatever school, who, knowing his acts and words, can now doubt the sincerity of his religious fervor. But to grant that Cromwell's words were the sincere expression of genuine feeling, and even of genuine conviction, increases rather than diminishes the difficulty of fully understanding his character. He excited by turns the distrust of almost every eminent man in the state. Royalists, Presbyterians, Republicans, Fifth-Monarchy men, each and all, with reason or without reason, accused him of treachery. The difficulties of his position had indeed a good deal to do with this. He possessed, it may be urged with some truth, wider views and wider sympathies than most of his associates. Still, to suppose that a whole generation of very able men were all mistaken in their judgment of the leading man of his country, involves something very like an absurdity. We may be sure that if Cromwell was distrusted by men like Fairfax, Lambert, and Harrison, who had stood by him at the most desperate crises of his career, there was something in him which inspired distrust. Nor, if you look the matter fairly in the face, is it hard to discover what this "something" was.

Cromwell's intellect was subtle, and his whole manner of dealing with men indirect. At every stage of his career may be seen traces of that sort of artfulness which admirers may term policy, but which foes call craft. He had, as Mr. Cornish has well brought out, extraordinary skill in managing others. "No man ever used men more for his own ends. We believe that his ends were in the main wise and good, and that he sought them sincerely, but he used men as he found them, and turned the folly of fools and the knavery of knaves to his own ends without scruple; and this he held to be lawful." Combine this power of management, or, in other words, taste for intrigue, with the kind of subtlety often accompanying intense religious enthusiasm, and you have just the man who legitimately enough excites suspicion among his fellows. Any one who also remembers that Cromwell avowedly looked upon outward success as the sign of heaven's favor, and almost certainly believed that, to use Mr. Cornish's language, "he had been raised up from among the people to accomplish a work for God who had prospered it in his hands and borne witness to it, and that to God and not to men he was responsible for his ends which he knew were great, and his means which were not those of common men," will partly at least understand how it happened that the Protector, who extorted admiration from his foes, and who was the one man upon whom his adherents could rely for the support of the good cause, was never able to convince either enemies or supporters of his perfect sincerity.

Cromwell aptly compared himself to a chief constable. His function was to give rest to the country, torn by factions and exhausted by civil war. The aim of his policy was, from his own point of view, to effect a permanent settlement, which should unite England, Scotland, and Ireland in one state, should create a strong executive and a well chosen Parliament, and should above all things permanently secure to all Protestants freedom of conscience. That this was in the main Cromwell's view of the end to be attained is clearly seen from the "instrument of government," or constitution of 1653, which more truly than any other of the arrangements which he attempted to effect expresses Cromwell's own ideal, before he was corrupted by despotic power, of the kind of government required by England. His conception of the object to be aimed at was a noble one, and marked by sound judgment and wisdom. That he utterly failed in attaining this object is a fact patent on the very surface of history. Of the work of the Long Parliament a good deal more than is generally supposed survived the Restoration, but Cromwell's own work crumbled to pieces at his death. In every single transaction of his life he was successful; but all his attempts to secure to England the objects for which the civil war had been waged ended in absolute failure.

Want of success is not of itself conclusive evidence of a ruler's want of statesmanship. The fair criterion by which to test the political capacity of a Cromwell is, to examine whether the expedients by which he met critical difficulties were or were not consistent with the attainment of the main aims of his policy. Tried by such a standard, Cromwell can hardly claim a very high rank among the great statesmen of the world; for it is all but certain that at least on three occasions he adopted measures which made the permanent establishment of such a system of government as he desired to found in England impossible. The execution of Charles I. was Oliver's first and his greatest error. Of the justice or injustice of the act we say nothing. What is as certain as anything of the kind can be is that the death of the King was a deadly blow to the Commonwealth. It made it impossible for the most influential part of the English nation to rally round the new government; it infinitely increased the chances of a restoration. The nation would probably enough have been prepared in 1660 to recall even Charles I., but the army, the Independents, the Presbyterians, whether in England or Scotland, could not have brought back into power the very despot whom they had dethroned. It was possible for good men and sensible men to be deceived by the professions and the lies of Charles II. No sane man who had fought for the Parliament could have been deceived by the protestations of Charles I. The

King would have been far less dangerous as an exile than as a martyr. The question is one which can happily be decided by an appeal to something stronger than *à priori* argument. The fate of James II. proves that had Charles been banished, neither he nor any of his family would ever have returned to England.

Cromwell's second mistake was his fatal breach with the whole Republican party represented by men like Vane and Ludlow. The execution of the King made it hopeless for the moment to reconcile the mass of the people to the rule of the Puritans. The only other chance of securing English freedom, and still more of securing liberty of conscience, lay in the union of the whole Puritan party. The Republicans, it may be admitted, were in many respects impracticable, but they were after all many of them men of high patriotism and of considerable capacity. They were Cromwell's natural friends and allies; he turned them into his most deadly foes.

A third error, very characteristic of Oliver's merits no less than of his weakness, is his singularly inconsistent mode of dealing with the Parliaments which he himself convened. He had no mind to be a tyrant. He deemed, like other Englishmen, that a Parliament was an essential part of the proper government of the country. Again and again he convened assemblies which he hoped might act with him and take away from his rule the stigma of arbitrary power. But he was utterly unable to respect his own Parliaments. He may have found it absolutely impossible to act with the men elected under the instrument of government; but there is not the least sign that he made any vigorous effort to avert the break-down of the Constitution. He ought to have known that this break-down almost of necessity involved the final failure of his whole policy. That he did not perceive that in destroying the Constitution of 1653 he was in fact sacrificing his last chance of escaping the doom of sinking into a tyrant, is likely enough. But that he should not have seen this, is fatal to any claim on his behalf to the possession of statesmanlike foresight.

Cromwell's errors, moreover, are not isolated mistakes, inconsistent with the general tenor of his life. They are all of them the errors of a man made rather to be a ruler or a general than a politician or a statesman. At every crisis of his fortunes Cromwell displayed great insight into individual character, extraordinary decision in taking bold resolutions, and unrivalled vigor in carrying them into effect. But he was, as has been said about an eminent man of a very different type, clear-sighted rather than far-sighted. He liked and excelled in bold strokes, but he does not seem to have calculated what might be the ultimate evil results of acts which at the moment were crowned by success. Hence, oftener than most men of anything like his powers, he came into conflict with the nature of things. His death, indeed, was unexpected, and it is of course possible, though far from likely, that had he lived for ten or fifteen years longer, he might have placed his power and the system of government connected with it on a permanent basis. The fact, however, remains that in spite of the apparent stability of the Protectorate, each year increased the number of the Protector's enemies. With the Cavaliers reconciliation was impossible; the Presbyterians were hopelessly estranged; the Republicans were Oliver's deadly enemies; of his tried associates, of the men who had stood side by side with him in the civil war, hardly one remained his friend. The major-generals were picked men from among his most zealous supporters; yet, with a strange inconsistency which looks too like one of the caprices of despotism, Cromwell contrived to insult even the major-generals. Cromwell stood alone, the sole, and during his lifetime, the sufficient defender of the Protectorate. His death left his whole scheme of government unguarded by anything but the fame of his own great name. Such a result sets in full relief the immense force of his own personal character, but it none the less betrays the inherent weakness of his statesmanship.

RECENT POETRY.

POPE's aspiring young poet in his lofty garret, who must needs print his verses,

> "Oblig'd by hunger and request of friends,"

would have viewed with surprise a dozen or more thin volumes that stand before us. The beauty of their outward aspect shows that they must have been printed quite regardless of hunger, and to satisfy the urgency of friends alone. The public at large will never hear of them; they are not in any true sense published, for it would be impossible to publish them. It is impossible to find in them a page that holds anything but the most commonplace thoughts expressed in lines of prescribed length. They have, to be sure, all the negative merit attributed to the idyllic poet's verse in the burlesque opera of "Patience"; there is not in them a line which could bring a blush to the cheek of innocence; and this, during a year which reprints Walt Whitman, is perhaps to be counted for righteousness to these humbler bards. But beyond this there is nothing to be said of them; it is needless even to name their names.

Other volumes of a similar general grade have certain salient qualities, as in 'The Rivulet and Clover Blooms' (American News Company), a dingy little book, whose earnestness and simplicity appeal all the more to the sympathies from the poverty of type and paper; or 'Over the Hill to the White House' (Denison), a rhymed memoir of Mrs. Garfield the elder. There is power in 'Three Vows,' by William Batchelder Greene (G. P. Putnam's Sons), yet certainly not in an agreeable form; it would be difficult to write anything much grimmer than the Norse poem, "Satan of the Sea," included in this volume. There is a pleasant effect of cultivation and travel about 'Persephone, and Other Poems,' by Mrs. Charles Willing (Lippincott). 'St. Olaf's Kirk,' by George Houghton (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), and 'Giorgio, and Other Poems,' by Stuart Sterne (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), give renewed proof of the attractiveness of a long poem to its composer, and of the difficulty of making it equally attractive to the general reader. Wherever a title-page announces "and other poems," every one turns instinctively to those. In the case of Stuart Sterne (understood to be the *nom de plume* of Miss Bloede) there is a good deal that arrests attention in the shorter contributions, and the mere title of the poem "To a Figure-Head" has certainly a charm for the imagination, so that one wonders why so good a theme has never before been treated:

> "Oh! solitary woman, all alone
> In thy strange empire 'twixt the sea and sky,
> 'Neath the fierce darts the sun sends from his throne,
> Or the cold smile of midnight stars on high."

We have read anew, from a sense of duty, the original and unexpurgated 'Leaves of Grass,' by Walt Whitman, as now reprinted, with some milder additions (Osgood). It cannot be said of them, as Sir Charles Pomander, in 'Christie Johnstone,' says of his broken statues, that "time has impaired their indelicacy." This somewhat nauseating quality remains in full force, and we see no good in their publication except to abate the outcries of the Liberal League against Mr. Anthony Comstock and his laws respecting obscene publications. So long as 'Leaves of Grass' may be sent through the mails, the country is safe from over-prudery, at least. Mr. Whitman is often ranked with the "fleshly school," and his circle of English admirers is almost identical with the coterie whose apostles are Swinburne and Wilde. But the erotic poems of these authors are to those of Whitman as rose-water to vitriol. The English poets have at their worst some thin veneering of personal emotion; with Whitman there seems no gleam of anything personal, much less of that simple, generous impulse which makes almost every young man throw some halo of ideal charm about the object of his adoration. Whitman's love, if such it can be called, is the sheer animal longing of sex for sex—the impulse of the savage, who knocks down the first woman he sees, and drags her to his cave. On the whole, the condition of the savage seems the more wholesome, for he simply gratifies his brute lust and writes no resounding lines about it.

Leaving this disagreeable aspect of the matter, we are impressed anew, on reading these poems, by a certain quality of hollowness, which is nowhere more felt than in the strains called "Drum-Taps." It would be scarcely worth while to bring these strains to any personal test, perhaps, did not Mr. Whitman's admirers so constantly intrude his personality upon us; but we cannot quite forget what Emerson says, that "it makes a great difference to a sentence whether there be a man behind it or no." When Mr. Whitman speaks with utter contempt of the "civilian" (p. 252), and claps the soldier on the back as "camerado" (p. 251), we cannot help thinking of Thackeray's burly and peaceful Jos. Sedley at Brussels, just before the battle of Waterloo, striding and swaggering between two military officers, and looking far more warlike than either. One can be aroused to some enthusiasm over the pallid shop-boy or the bookish undergraduate who knew no better than to shoulder his musket and march to the front in the war for the Union; but it is difficult to awaken any such emotion for a stalwart poet, who—with the finest physique in America, as his friends asserted, and claiming an unbounded influence over the "roughs" of New York—preferred to pass by the recruiting-office and take service in the hospital with the non-combatants.

When we come to purely intellectual traits, it is a curious fact that Mr. Whitman, by the production of one fine poem, has overthrown his whole poetic theory. Dozens of pages of his rhythmic prose are not worth "My Captain," which among all his compositions comes the nearest to accepting the restraints of ordinary rhyme. His success in this shows that he too may yet be compelled to recognize form as an element in poetic power. The discovery may have come too late, but unless he can regard its lessons he is likely to leave scarcely a complete work that will be remembered; only here and there a phrase, an epithet, a fine note—as when the midnight tolling for General Garfield is called "The sobbing of the bells." These are the passages which his especial admirers style "Homeric," but which we should rather call Ossianic. The shadowy Gaelic bard rejected the restraints of verse, like Whitman, and reiterated his peculiar images with wearisome diffuseness and minuteness. To be sure, he was not an egotist, and he kept within the limits of decency; but he gave fine glimpses and pictures, while there was always a certain large, free atmosphere about all his works. They were translated into all languages; he was ranked with Homer and Virgil; Goethe and Napoleon Bonaparte were his warm admirers—and the collections of English poetry do not now include a line of his composing. If Whitman, after the

same length of time, proves more fortunate, it will be because he wrote "My Captain."

Extremes meet, and many of Mr. Whitman's admirers are also enamored of the peculiarly hot-house atmosphere of Mr. Rossetti. We may be mistaken, but we see in his new volume a healthier strain than before, both in the sonnets added and in the subtraction of others. In his 'Ballads and Sonnets' (Roberts Bros.) he includes the greater part of the "House of Life," with additions that are almost wholly improvements; no new note of morbidness is struck, and some of the most objectionable things disappear from the pages. The ardor, the passion, the only too searching analysis remain; and the power of expression was never greater. As the German language became French in the hands of Heine, so the English tongue becomes Italian in those of Rossetti; yet there is in his sonnets no sense of deliberate imitation, no foreignness, no mediæval whim. The emotion is in many respects modern, but the utterance brings back Petrarch and Dante and Michael Angelo. In the narrative poems, which fill the greater part of the book, the sense of artistic perfection is less, and there is something in them of the prolixity of Morris, though joined with far more of dramatic and passionate power. The new volume of poems by Christina Rossetti, 'A Pageant, and Other Poems' (Roberts), sustains her reputation, but will scarcely enhance it, unless through the fine and subtle interest of the series of sonnets called "Monna innominata."

Mrs. Augusta Webster, author of 'A Book of Rhyme' (Macmillan), has had many friends and readers in America, and has been an industrious worker in literature. Her translations from the Greek have had high merit, while her 'Dramatic Studies' and 'The Auspicious Day' have shown faithful and thoughtful work. The London *Leader* went so far as to say: "Since Mrs. Barrett Browning no woman has written half so good poetry as Mrs. Webster." To our thinking, she has been far surpassed by Jean Ingelow and Menilla Smedley in England, and by Helen Jackson (H. H.) in this country; and even this full and graceful 'Book of Rhyme' leaves the question still open whether she is really to be pronounced a poet or only a poetical mind.

The poetical mind, at least, is in 'Songs and Lyrics,' by Ellen Mackay Hutchinson (J. R. Osgood & Co.), and the daintiness and originality of style in mechanical execution in the little volume do much to enhance the grace of the really thoughtful and original verses within. They are almost all on the same minor key; their feeling for nature is exquisite, and they have a golden brevity, like seventeenth-century poems. How fine is the touch, for instance, in these brief lines, with which the book opens:

"MOTH SONG.

"What dost thou here,
Thou dusky courtier,
Within the pinky palace of the rose?
Here is no bed for thee,
No honeyed spicery—
But for the golden bee
And the gay wind and me
Its sweetness grows.
Rover, thou dost forget:—
Seek thou the passion-flower,
Bloom of one twilight hour.
Haste, thou art late!
Its hidden savors wait.
For thee is spread
Its soft and purple coverlet;
Moth, art thou sped?
—Dim as a ghost he flies
Through the night-mysteries."

In 'A Home Idyl, and Other Poems,' by John Townsend Trowbridge (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), we pass, it must be owned, into the domain of the commonplace. No fine mystic fancies, no twilight moths, no haunting cadences for him; but good wholesome "chores" on a New England farm, hardly ever exhibiting such touches of pathos and power as are found in his 'Tragedy Queen.' Mr. Trowbridge's vein is a good deal like Dr. Holland's, and there seems no reason why it should not conduct him to an equal popularity. Mr. Gallagher is another author who should have more fame of this kind than he has won; it is forty years since he was first recognized among "the poets of the West"—Ohio then being called the West—and the poem which gives its title to the volume, 'Miami Woods' (Robert Clarke & Co.), was written in successive parts at intervals of twenty years. These verses are not great or inspired, but they are honest and conscientious, and will one day have an historic interest, as illustrating the first new flavors caught by English literature from the onward march of American civilization.

It might seem a long step from Miami Woods to Ireland, though the corresponding step in this direction has been taken by so many thousands; but we must not fail to call attention to the merit and even charm of the new compilation of 'Poets and Poetry of Ireland,' by Alfred M. Williams (Osgood & Co.). There have before been similar works, edited by Crofton Croker and others, but none so full or satisfactory, with such ample explanation and elucidation, and such especial attention to the earlier poets. There is such grace and power, such wild fancy and passionate ardor in the translations by Sir Samuel Ferguson and others from the Irish bards and hedge-poets, that it really seems doubtful if the early strains of any nation can surpass them. The Scotch love-poetry seems cold, the Scotch war-poetry tame, compared with these more Southern and tropical strains. The modern Irish literature curiously retains something of these same qualities, and seems peculiarly fertile in the various combinations of ballad measure. Macaulay himself has not handled the long-metred narrative strain with a sweep so fine as that of the almost unknown poets who wrote "Fontenoy" and "The Sack of Baltimore," or that of Sir Samuel Ferguson in his "Forging of the Anchor." Nor is this the only style accessible to the modern Irish muse; for it would be hard to condense a nation's grief into more terse and concentrated words than those of Lady Wilde in her stern, sad verses on the Irish exodus:

"'A million a decade!' Calmly and cold
The units are read by our statesmen sage;
Little they think of a nation old,
Fading away from history's page—
Outcast weeds by a desolate sea—
Fallen leaves of humanity.

. . . . . .

"'A million a decade!' What does it mean?
A nation dying of inner decay;
A churchyard silence where life has been—
The base of the pyramid crumbling away;
A drift of men gone over the sea,
A drift of the dead where men should be."

Yet, even in this fine poem, there is something of that incompleteness, that mixture of grand and commonplace, that blending of incongruous images, which seems to grow out of the loose fertility, the unmastered impulsiveness of the Irish nature. Every Celt has a poetic mind; his difficulty is in controlling himself sufficiently to be a poet.

Scotland also furnishes a flavor of its own to our recent American poetry in the volume which includes the works of the late William Wilson (Poughkeepsie: Archibald Wilson), a Poughkeepsie bookseller of Scotch origin. The memoir furnished by Mr. B. J. Lossing is more interesting as a typical picture of a manly life than as a record of genius; and the poems, but for the pleasant associations of the Scotch dialect, would hardly arrest attention. We prefer their homely simplicity, however, to the exotic flavor of 'Orion, and Other Poems,' by Charles G. D. Roberts (Lippincott), where we have echoes of Keats and Swinburne and Horne to an extent not perhaps incompatible with original genius, but at any rate so disguising that gift as to render its presence very questionable.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—IV.

A HAUFF revival is by no means a bad feature of the juvenile publications of the current season. There is, to begin with, a new issue of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s edition of the 'Märchenalmanach,' which they appropriately entitle 'The Arabian Days' Entertainments'; then comes the fresh translation, by Edward L. Stowell, styled 'Tales of the Caravan, Inn, and Palace' (Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.); and finally, six of the series (less than half), without their setting, are presented in Pinkerton's 'Little Mook, and Other Fairy Tales' (Putnams). All these versions are illustrated, and the last two have partly borrowed from the same source. Mr. Stowell's is to be praised for its fidelity and completeness, and for its good English; Mr. Pinkerton's is rather to be called a paraphrase. On the other hand, the New York edition is somewhat more open and tasteful in its typography. These are the main considerations for purchasers, who will in any well-stocked bookstore find all three volumes side by side for comparison. Nor will it come amiss to examine, if accessible, the 'Selections from Hauff's Stories,' published two years ago by the Rivingtons (London). Designed by its teacher-editors as a first German reading-book for schools, it contains "The Caliph Stork," "The Phantom Crew," "The Amputated Hand," "The Rescue of Fatima," "Little Mudj," and "The False Prince" in the original text, with an exhaustive vocabulary, while the fifth and sixth stories are closely translated in an appendix. There are many families in which such a book will serve a double purpose.

On the whole, we must welcome Fernan Caballero's 'Spanish Fairy Tales' as rendered by Mr. J. H. Ingram (Lippincott). There is a great choice among these stories, which have been eked out with two of De Trueba's. Some are mere fables. Obviously, not all are peculiar to the peninsula: "The Foolish Wolf and the Shrewd Fox" reminds us of 'Uncle Remus' (Brer Rabbit smearing Brer Possum's chops with butter); "Benibaire" recalls a Japanese tale in Prof. Griffis's collection; "The Three Wishes" and several others have their counterparts in Grimm. But much that was old and even rubbishy could be forgiven for the pretty morality of "Fair-Flower." Mr. Ingram's translation is intelligent and cultivated, only occasionally lapsing into colloquialisms, such as "he would like to *see over* the palace." The extraordinary thing about this book is the illustrations, which are fearfully and wonderfully made.

Mr. Frank Stockton easily surpasses in humor all American writers for children. His drollery is as spontaneous and unexpected and original as that in 'Alice's Adventures.' Nothing can be more absurdly clever than the three leading stories in 'The Floating Prince, and Other Fairy Tales.' We must ask pardon of the readers of *St. Nicholas* for assuming that everybody does not know that the Floating Prince is a young gentleman of good family who starts on his travels in search of all the other requisites of a kingdom besides a ruler, and picks up his army and navy and chancellor of the exchequer and aristocracy and common people as he goes along. The school-boy aristocrats desert, and their adventures form a story by itself hardly less laughable than that to which it serves as a sequel. Here the central conceit is of a city which runs down and has to be wound up. "The Reformed Pirate" is another masterpiece.

The rest are of less consequence, but are still comical enough.

Mr. Edward Everett Hale's 'Stories of Adventure, told by Adventurers' (Roberts Bros.) is a continuation of his 'Stories of War' and 'Stories of the Sea,' whose general aim is to show children how to use books in a public library. This attempt is naturally sought to be reconciled (though it is disavowed in the preface) with the production of a book which will interest and edify those who, not being of an inquiring mind, go no further. We regard it as only measurably successful. Say what you please, it is the very exceptional boy or girl who would not be more alarmed than delighted if Marco Polo, or Humboldt, or Lewis and Clarke were plumped down before them by the library attendant; and if one considers the lack of motive for reading, say, Cook's 'Voyages' entire, the inability to understand much of it and of kindred works, the small occasion for "looking up a point" in it, and finally the scanty leisure of a young scholar, it is hard to believe that the learned circle which "Uncle Fritz" directs has been appreciably enlarged among the hundreds or thousands of purchasers of Mr. Hale's series. It is fair to inquire whether the Boston Public Library has any evidence to the contrary. The make-up of this volume, like that of its predecessors, is, from a printer's point of view, slovenly. The extracts and the dialogue should be indicated by different sizes of type, and the origin of the former should be constantly and plainly announced.

The good points of Mr. Butterworth's 'Young Folks' History of Boston' (Estes & Lauriat) are its being brought down to the present time; its abundance of anecdote; its quotations from Boston poets; and, in the main, its illustrations. Its defects are a want of unity and proportion, as well as of accuracy; it is, in the best sense, neither literary nor scholarly. Take as an instance of carelessness and superficiality, to say the least, the following sentence concerning the Rev. Henry Ware, jr. (p. 398): "At this time, in the last years of his life, the great news of the East Indian emancipation came ringing over the sea. England had emancipated 800,000 slaves. The abolitionists held a meeting for congratulation and rejoicing at Faneuil Hall. Ware was the poet of the enthusiastic occasion. . . . It was the last poem of his life." Now, the great news that came "ringing over the sea" was the enactment of *West India* emancipation, in 1833, which did not take effect till August 1, 1834. In neither year did the abolitionists celebrate the event in Faneuil Hall, nor unitedly and with *éclat* anywhere. Mr. Ware died in 1843.

Mr. George Cupples's 'Deserted Ship' (A. Williams & Co.) is the work of an author already distinguished for his contributions to nautical literature. The hero of his present story is a boy, the last survivor of a ship abandoned in the Arctic sea. Beset in the ice, he, alone and unaided, finally extricates a full-rigged bark from the icy dangers with which she is beset. Although this is an absolutely impossible feat, the story is told with such skill as to make one entirely lose sight of its inconsistency.

Mrs. George Cupples, in 'Driven to Sea' (A. Williams & Co.), displays as a writer a power by no means inferior to that of her husband. She tells of a high-spirited lad who, to avoid betraying a comrade, runs away and ships before the mast. There is nothing in her story beyond the range of probability. The sea-terms she has occasion to use are simple, and by no means outside the compass of a woman's experience.

Mr. W. H. G. Kingston's 'Peter Trawl' (A. C. Armstrong & Son) bears a strong family likeness to the tales already told by the same author. We have the same "properties"—wrecks, typhoons, deserted islands, open boats at sea, pirates, the pious young hero who in moments of danger, trouble, or perplexity always turns to prayer, and induces dissolute mates and hardened sailors to do the same. Everything is a subject for prayer, from a badly-set topsail to a shortage in provisions, with the usual perverse series of disasters, all of which might have been avoided by a little prudence and care. We observe that Mr. Kingston introduces the new "property" common to all the nautical stories of this year—a drag formed of three oars to hold a small boat head to the sea in a gale.

Mr. Henry Castlemon's 'George at the Wheel' (Porter & Coates) is by no means a nautical story. It treats of guerillas, etc., and is evidently written to accelerate the demand for revolvers and burglar-proof safes.

The notable success of one or two tales of travel for children has stimulated production in this line, and brought to our table four conspicuous examples. Philadelphia's contribution is 'Our Young Folks Abroad,' by James D. McCabe (Lippincott), which has at least one title to distinction, that the voyagers patriotically choose an American steamer for making the Atlantic trip. The course is via England, France, Belgium, the Rhine, Switzerland, Italy, the Mediterranean ports, and Greece, to Constantinople. We cannot perceive the least aptitude in Mr. McCabe for his task. There is no verisimilitude in his fiction, and his facts, however derived, are in presentation unqualifiedly guide-bookish. The pictures are, though rather antiquated and oddly distributed, mostly good. The author of 'Rip Van Winkle's Travels in Foreign Lands' (New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co.) gets rid of a troublesome charge by leaving his *compagnons de voyage* at home. He is a schoolmaster, and sends back letters to his pupils. As his wanderings cover the whole of Europe, from Moscow to Lisbon, the guide-book quality necessarily predominates in the book, but is overlaid with some skill. Certain judgments of art and of historical characters do not inspire one with a very high opinion of "Rupert Van Wert's" training. Mr. Butterworth's 'Zigzag Journeys in the Orient' (from the Adriatic to the Baltic) is, like all this writer's works, formless and helter-skelter. Think of the nursery tale of "The Three Wishes" being inserted apropos of Kharkov! Mr. T. W. Knox still holds his place at the head of the column in the third and last of his series called 'The Boy Travellers in the Far East (Ceylon and India),' which the Harpers have brought out in a style corresponding with its predecessors. His two young gentlemen and their care-taker have some reality about them, thanks to his possessing a sense of humor noticeably wanting in the authors of the three books just mentioned. What he has seen, too, enables him to appropriate and assimilate thoroughly what he frankly acknowledges having borrowed from other authorities. His illustrations have mostly done duty before, and occasionally in other relations than those indicated by their present labels, but no one can find fault with them for their fewness or for their lack of interest.

The advantage in putting Shakspere into doggerel is not clear, and Mrs. Valentine's 'Shakspearian Tales in Verse' (A. C. Armstrong & Son) is just that, plus a number of crudely colored plates and some decorative illustrations in brown ink. "The Tempest," "The Taming of the Shrew," "The Merchant of Venice," and "The Winter's Tale" are the plays selected. There are obvious reasons why the second and third should not be set before children; there is perhaps no reason why the beautiful and effective climax of "The Winter's Tale" should be left out as it is here. Prof. Robert R. Raymond's 'Shakespeare for the Young Folk' was prompted by a desire to "do the skipping" for them in reading the plays, and also to make the plot and the language more intelligible by interjected comment and narrative. How far this course, which subordinates the dramatist to his editor, and results in a sort of patchwork, will secure the coveted attention of the young, we confess ourselves unable to judge in advance of experiment. The alternation from prose to verse interrupts the continuity, not of the story, but of the impression made by it; and whether it is sufficient compensation for this to leave out obscure and uninteresting and unclean passages, who can say? However, we can testify to the refinement and conscientiousness of the editor's method, and to the pleasing taste with which the book is got up in every respect. No parent need fear to make a trial of it. The three plays undertaken by Mr. Raymond, by the way, are the "Midsummer Night's Dream," "As You Like It," and "Julius Cæsar."

But it is time to come to the end of our list. We spare a word for 'Good Times' (New York: White & Stokes), devised as a "prize painting book," Miss Dora Wheeler furnishing examples which confirm her reputation as a colorist while revealing the defects of her draughtsmanship. The compositions are generally artistic, and the children represented are American and not foreign. The rhymes, by an anonymous hand, do not add much to the pictures. Mr. Howard Pyle's 'Yankee Doodle' (Dodd & Mead) should also not be overlooked. It is the nearest approach to Caldecott yet made on this side the water. Here one feels that the designer's strength lies more in his drawing than in his color, which nevertheless harmonizes well enough with the absurd images evoked by the song. Mr. Pyle's feeling for perspective is excellent, and it is manifest in his outlines, but his coloring lacks atmospheric gradation. His landscape, though interesting and dexterously employed, does not show the mastery of his English predecessor. There remain two handsome books, of universal interest, 'Cassell's Book of Indoor Amusements, Card Games, and Fireside Fun,' and 'Cassell's Book of Sports and Pastimes.' Together they cover the entire field of juvenile recreation, and both have a great abundance of lucid illustrations.

The Honey Ants of the Garden of the Gods, and the Occident Ants of the American Plains. By Henry C. McCook, D.D. Illustrated. 8vo, pp. 188. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1882.

If capitalists, overcoming the difficulty in "disgorging," were to furnish subsistence to any needy one who might apply, they would serve a purpose somewhat similar to that of certain individuals in a community of "honey ants." The honey-bearer, however, carries the supplies within its body. From being a well-proportioned ant, by filling itself, or being filled by others, or both, it becomes an ill-shaped creature with an abdomen like a large currant. Active enough before this, afterward it is simply an animated bottle of honey, and hangs by its feet from the ceiling of one of the underground chambers, surrounded by others, resembling one of a bunch of small Delaware grapes. When called for, a drop of the nectar is squeezed from the mouth to be lapped up by the worker for his own needs or to feed the young or the queen. The food is stored in the crop, an enlargement of the œsophagus, and kept from entering the stomach by a "gizzard." The only source of supply of which mention is made is found in the galls on a species of oak, from which it is gathered in the night. The honey is said to be good; it is eaten or made into drinks by the Indians and Mexicans. An average community contains nearly 600 bottles, about

half a pound. The small yield and the difficulty in farming preclude any hope of a commercial value. The dwellings resemble those of the harvesting and other subterranean ants. They are found from Colorado to Mexico, and from Texas to California. All that is known of these insects is contained in the first half of the book before us. The second half is devoted to the Occident harvester, which is closely allied to that of Texas.

The present work is intended to be a companion volume to 'The Agricultural Ants of Texas,' noticed recently in these columns. It contains the results of researches in a field so little explored that most of the facts enumerated are new to science. As a scientist the author occupies the soundest position possible. He does not cripple himself at the outset by the adoption of theories; he has none to support, none to refute. His independence in these respects is much in his favor. Looking for his personal equation, one is gratified to find so little bias. There are traces of the clergyman here and there, but not enough to impair the work. As might have been expected, considerable fondness is shown for the study of mentalism, etc., and for comparisons between the ants and men. Several pages are devoted to "Acts of Beneficence." "I am much inclined to the view that anything like individual benevolence, as distinguished from tribal or communal benevolence, does not exist. The apparent special cases of beneficence, outside the instinctive actions which lie within the line of formicary routine, are so rare and so doubtful as to their cause that, however loth, I must decide against anything like a personal benevolent character on the part of my honey-ants" (p. 45). To many the data cited in support would not seem to warrant a nearer approach to a definite conclusion than that of the plantation philosopher, "some people are not all alike." The discussion is cautiously closed with: "However, the question can by no means be regarded as settled." On page 133 the strength of ants is compared with that of men, to the disadvantage of the latter. "If we estimate the average man at five and a half feet in length and 150 pounds in weight, our baggage porter would needs carry a half-ton weight up one-third of a mile of stairway to meet on equal footing the emmet athletes of the Occident ant-hills!" A closer approximation to an exact comparison might have been made if the problem had been stated thus: If an ant, length so much, weight so much, with six legs, can carry so much such a distance, what would be the proportionate load and distance for a man, length so much, weight so much, with only two legs? Such comparisons may be entertaining, but it is doubtful whether they add anything to science.

The author is the happy possessor of a clear, forcible, and attractive style. Whether treating of excavations, mound building, gathering food, gate closing, toilet work, warfare, care of young and queen, parasites, or even the details of anatomy, the interest never flags. By the side of Mr. McCook's contributions, what was previously known of these species amounts to almost nothing. The earlier literature on the subject is carefully handled, and various mistakes are corrected. A number of previous misapprehensions are disposed of by the discoveries relating to crop and gizzard. What appears to be an organ of stridulation is described on page 66. The monographs are completed by bibliography, synonymy, and good descriptions and figures of the species. Those who deprecate the coinage of childish and silly vernaculars will note with pleasure that the author uses the specific as the "common" name. "Occident Ant" is a most appropriate name for the species occidentalis. Our own observations of this ant have led us to believe the pebbles for the mounds were gathered from all directions as well as from within. When a mound was scattered the pebbles were brought back. In cases where there had been no disturbance workers were occasionally seen bringing materials for the mound from considerable distances. The author says, page 132: "These pebbles are, of course, excavations from the underground rooms and galleries." On page 136 he says, among other duties, that "some go down to the clearing and bring up pebbles to repair a break in the cone." In his earlier work ('Agricultural Ants of Texas,' p. 162) we note the following: "An ant was seen carrying a large piece of quartz gravel, which must have weighed three or four grains, up the steep slope of a ditch or cutting in Austin to its gravel-covered mound at the top. I could not divine the object of the carrier in this unusual and apparently senseless act." Taken sixty feet away, this pebble was again seized by another worker and carried homeward. The depressions on the clearing around the mound would seem, in part at least, to be due to the action of the winds.

Everything considered, the value of the book is such that its failings appear to sink into insignificance. Scientifically of the highest character, at the same time it is very attractive to the general reader. It is an excellent history of model scientific investigations, in the production of which all who have been in any way concerned may justly take pride.

History of Sculpture, Painting, and Architecture. Topical Lessons, with Specific References to Valuable Books. By Charles S. Farrar, A. M., President of Milwaukee College. [Second edition.] Chicago: Townsend MacCoun. 1881. 8vo, pp. 142.

To draw up topical reference-lists is a common ambition among students, but one whose successful accomplishment involves so much skill and patience that very few have the temerity to publish their results. In the work before us, however, President Farrar attempts a complete conspectus of the history of three great arts, with a view to facilitating elementary study. In each division of the work, the references are grouped under generic and specific captions arranged in chronological order; as, for example, section vii. of part ii., headed "Leonardo da Vinci," and comprising "(1) outlines of his life; his genius and gifts and their comparative unfruitfulness; (2) life and works at Milan; history and analysis of his 'Last Supper'; (3) a full and critical history of the treatment of the subject of the Last Supper in painting, especially by Giotto, Angelico, Signorelli, Ghirlandajo, Raphael, Andrea del Sarto, and Titian," etc., with numerous references to book, volume, and page under each topic. The author's idea of obliging his students to draw their own conclusions from a comparison of authorities is excellent, and within the limits set and for the purpose in view the execution of the plan is in many points commendable. The selection and combination of subjects are often quite apt, showing the author to be more than a mere theoretic systemizer; and the verbal expression is generally skilful and neat, though occasionally tending to too abbreviated and dogmatic characterization of individuals and epochs. But every reader will quarrel with the narrow range of authorities and with the unpardonable blunders (particularly in a second and revised edition) in minor details. The author confines himself entirely to works in English, and is thus constrained to use much second-rate material. His list of authorities contains most of the standard English works, but with some surprising exceptions; yet many excellent and easy foreign works might most advantageously have been added. Besides, there are no references to reviews and magazines, none to biographical dictionaries, none to travellers' guide-books, which often afford interesting side-lights upon works of art, and but few to the larger illustrated books—Lepsius's 'Denkmäler,' Penrose's 'Principles of Athenian Architecture,' for instance, in the architectural division—which are to be found in city libraries. Considering the aim of the work, we miss also such treatises as Burckhardt's 'Cicerone for Italy,' Crowe and Cavalcaselle's 'Painting in Italy,' Stirling's 'Annals' and 'Velasquez,' Calvert's 'Rubens,' Viollet-le-Duc's 'Discourses,' and many others. The author's main stay appears to be Lübke.

The typography of the book is clear, but full of annoying mistakes; some of the latter pages showing that the printer was much "out of sorts" on numerals and capitals. Among misspellings or blunders we note *Nicola* Pisano, *zographic*, *Sanzio*, *von* Ostade, *Durer*, *Il* Spagnoletto, *Esteben*, *Erectheus*, *Micchele*, and a long list of errors in dates, the worst of which are, under Lo Spagnoletto's name, 1585-1609 for 1588-1656 (p. 86), and, under Canova, 1601-1667 for 1757-1822 (p. 31). We have not tested the accuracy of the paginal references; we trust, for the reader's sake, that the high percentage of errors observable in the dates does not obtain there also. The architectural division, which is a new feature in this edition, is not so well done as the other two, principally, perhaps, because elementary text-books on the history of architecture are still a desideratum in English. Indeed, the treatment of some topics perhaps warrants the unpleasant suspicion that the author not only does not refer his pupils to foreign authorities, but is unfamiliar with them himself.

Country By-ways. By Sarah Orne Jewett. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

To have known these sketches already in the pages of the *Atlantic* seems to make them only the more welcome for their delicate discrimination, their gentle appreciation of the old New England character. Miss Jewett not only makes us intimate with the roads and lanes, the wide woods and the old farms beyond the Piscataqua, but the sketches read like a loving memorial of a generation that is just passing out of our sight. Such a memorial is needed, for it is so easy to outline in the rough the stern and homely traits of New England life that too many will never know its tenderness and its beauty. That reflex wave from beyond the Hudson River whence comes, as Miss Jewett shows, the typical "American," will soon sweep away the old traditions and the old characteristics. The style of the book befits the subject. Perfectly plain and without pretension, it still never falls from *simplicité* into *simplesse*. If we are sometimes conscious, as in 'River Driftwood,' that the description is something long, for all that we are won to read on with the same restful feeling with which one listens to a strain of sweet music repeating itself again and again.

Pictures and Legends from Normandy and Brittany. By Katherine and Thomas Macquoid. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THE Macquoids could not but make an interesting book from their gleanings in lands so rich in associations as Normandy and Brittany. It is a motley group that is gathered in their pages. The Korrigan and the Fourolle, the fairy and the witch of the village legends, seem to join hands with the Lady of La Garaye and Mad. de Sévigné, "Notre Dame des Rochers"; while Saint Christopher, Duke Richard the Fearless, and the Conqueror stand shoulder to shoulder with the village curé and the burly

peasant. The authors have told the stories as they were told them, but it is to be regretted that so many of them are of the dark and tragic sort. There is a tricksy, frolicsome side to fairy lore that is more winning. The best in the book (and it need not be said that the Macquoids are good story-tellers) is "The Pilgrimage to the Mount," a story of the loving, breaking heart of a mother who gives up her son to be a priest. Perhaps it could not be helped that the picture to illustrate it, "La Merveille," the great abbey on the top of Mont St. Michel, should be so inadequate. It will repay the trouble to look up a not uncommon book, Nesfield's 'Specimens of Mediæval Architecture.' The drawings of Mont St. Michel, one of them of this very same view, have a grandeur of effect which even photographs fail to give.

The Sinai and Comparative New Testament. The Authorized English Version; with introduction, and various readings from the three most celebrated manuscripts of the original Greek text, by Constantine Tischendorf; with the various readings so inserted in the text that the whole Scripture, according to either the Sinai, Vatican, Alexandrian, or the received Greek, can be read by itself, while the variations are all compared with facility. By Edwin Leigh. New York: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co. 1881.

THE peculiar feature of Mr. Leigh's excellent little book consists in its presenting four texts without requiring that more than one be read in order to see all the four. This feat is performed by the simple device of using different types for the several manuscripts when they differ, and employing ordinary type when they all agree, together with a lucid employment of brackets. *E.g.*, words occurring in the Sinaitic MS. (the oldest) but not in the "received text" are printed in full-face type; words occurring in the Vatican (the second oldest) or Alexandrian MSS., but not in the Sinaitic or "received" texts, are printed in German text; words occurring in the "received" text but not in the Sinaitic are in Italics. The author's manipulation of this intricate matter is absolutely without inaccuracy, barring his neglect to announce by the appropriate brackets at the beginning of Matthew that the Alexandrian Codex fails to contain the first twenty-four chapters of this Gospel. This omission is only mentioned in the introduction, and consequently a person unacquainted with this fact about the Codex in question, and endeavoring to decipher its text from Mr. Leigh's book, would become hopelessly confused from the lack of brackets. But, with this exception, the work does perfectly what it undertakes—viz., to furnish the easiest and most compact means by which an Englishman ignorant of Greek may either compare or read singly the three most valuable manuscripts of the Greek New Testament.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adeler, Max. The Fortunate Island, and Other Stories. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Alden, W. L. Christopher Columbus. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1 25.
Anecdota Oxoniensia: Texts, Documents, and Extracts from the Bodleian and other Oxford Libraries. Aryan Series, Vol. 1., Part 1. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Arthur, Chester. Illustrated by Sowerby. London: Marcus Ward & Co.
Austin, A. Savonarola: a Tragedy. London: Macmillan & Co. $2 25.
Balch, W. S. A Peculiar People. Chicago: Henry A. Sumner & Co. $1 25.
Barth, A. The Religions of India. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Bates, Charlotte F. Seven Voices of Sympathy from the Writings of H. W. Longfellow. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 25.
Beauties of Sacred Song. Boston: Oliver Ditson & Co. $2.
Bennock, F. Poems, Lyrics, Songs, and Sonnets. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Bent, J. T. The Life of Giuseppe Garibaldi. New York: Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Berean Question-Book for 1882. New York: Phillips & Hunt. 15 cents.
Berean Beginner's Book for 1882. New York: Phillips & Hunt. 15 cents.
Björnson, B. A Happy Boy. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin, & Co. $1.
Bowles, J. R. The Edelweiss: a Poem. New London: Charles Allyn. $1.
Botta, Anna C. L. Poems. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 50.
Brigham, Mrs. S. J. Baby Verses. New York: Phillips & Hunt. 40 cents.
Butler, S. Hudibras. Part 1. New York: Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Butterworth, H. Zigzag Journeys in the Orient. The Adriatic to the Baltic. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1 75.
Calkins, N. A. Manual of Object Teaching. New York: Harper & Bros.
Collections of the Maine Historical Society. Vol. viii. Portland: Hoyt, Fogg & Dunham.
Cook, J. Brief Summer Rambles near Philadelphia. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 22, 1881.

The Week.

MR. BLAINE'S instructions to Mr. Lowell on the subject of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty contain plenty of internal evidences that the whole subject of our policy on the isthmus has received a new consideration at the hands of the President. Mr. Blaine's first despatch on the subject, in which he spoke of the scheme of a sole protectorate as being part of the traditional policy of the United States, has been followed by exactly the consequences which we predicted in these columns some weeks ago. We then pointed out that it was impossible to discuss the canal question at all without first recognizing the obstacle presented to the sole-protectorate policy by the Clayton-Bulwer treaty; and that all England would have to do by way of reply to the despatch would be to ask what we had to say about that agreement. This is exactly what has happened. Lord Granville has replied by this very inquiry, and it seems that his despatch has probably crossed that of Mr. Blaine's, published on Friday. Mr. Blaine's despatch is therefore very important, for it is the first authoritative statement of the position of the new Administration with regard to the canal. The voice, however, is still the voice of Mr. Blaine, though the hand is that of a man who, we hope, appreciates much better than Mr. Blaine seems to do the delicacy of the questions involved. The chief changes proposed in the Clayton-Bulwer treaty are as follows: That every part of the treaty which forbids the United States fortifying the canal and holding political control of it, in conjunction with the country through which it runs, be cancelled; that every part of it which prohibits Great Britain or the United States from making acquisiton of territory in Central America, shall remain in full force; that the clause looking to the establishment of a free port at each end of the canal be retained if England wishes it to be retained; that the clause providing for a joint protectorate of whatever railway or canal may be constructed at Tehuantepec or Panama shall be considered obsolete "by the non-action and common consent of the two Governments."

The object contemplated is from the American point of view certainly a correct one. No great power situated like the United States would permit the control of so important a channel of communication between different parts of its territory, as the Isthmus Canal will necessarily be, to fall into any hands but its own. While it is true that we have an open land communication between the Atlantic and the Pacific coast, it is also true that it would be of the greatest importance to the United States in case of war to have the shortest way by sea at its disposal for the concentration and use of its naval force on either side of the continent. It is also unquestionable that the United States are the great pacific and neutral power of the future, and far less liable to get into warlike complications than any other, and that therefore this republic will be the fittest protector of the neutrality of the interoceanic canal as a highway of commerce to be open to all the world for peaceful purposes. It was therefore to be expected that a revision of those features of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty which give Great Britain an equal if not a superior share of power over the Isthmus Canal would at some time be asked for by the United States, and it was to be hoped that it would be done under auspicious circumstances, and in a manner facilitating a friendly discussion and an amicable settlement of the question. It is for these reasons all the more to be regretted that Mr. Blaine should have presented the American side of the case in a despatch which, in point of tone, is more like a stump-speech than a diplomatic document, and is calculated to produce upon every sober-minded reader the impression that it is intended more for home consumption than to propitiate the British Government in favor of conceding an important modification of a treaty with this republic. That Mr. Blaine himself was aware of this, appears from his remark at the close of his despatch, in which he instructs Mr. Lowell to be careful about showing it to Lord Granville, for the reason that his, Mr. Blaine's, course of reasoning, "while legitimate and pertinent in an instruction to our own Minister," might seem "discourteous if addressed directly to the British Government." While writing this sentence Mr. Blaine must have been very well aware that his despatch would be published, as it doubtless was intended to be, and that it then would be looked upon as "directly addressed to the British Government." Mr. Blaine ought to have felt, if he did not, that he was thus at the start gravely embarrassing a negctiation which is, in its very nature, unusually delicate and should be managed with the greatest tact. He has succeeded in making the country see good reason for congratulating itself that the work his ambitious brilliancy has accumulated for his successor will be disposed of by men of less dash and more good sense.

The comments of the English press on the last Blaine despatch to Mr. Lowell about the canal show plainly enough that it has had the unfortunate effect of causing irritation at the very opening of a discussion which is intended and expected on our side to result in an amicable arrangement. But when the London *Observer* denies the justice of Mr. Blaine's Suez Canal illustration it falls into confusion which is widely diffused on this side of the water too. The fortification of the canal is constantly spoken of here as if it secured its use as a highway to the party fortifying and holding it. This enables the *Observer* to deny that England exerts any such control over the Suez Canal as the United States claim over the Panama Canal. But the fact is that the fortication of a canal only enables the holder to prevent any one else's using it. It does not necessarily secure its use to him, because it is only useful as a passage from one sea to another. This sort of control of it can be exerted just as effectively by having a powerful fleet at both ends as by holding the territory along the banks. England does the former as regards the Suez Canal; the United States wish to do the latter as regards the Panama Canal. To control a canal completely, and make it serve all purposes, a fleet at both ends, combined with the possession of the banks, would be necessary.

The financial debate of the present session of Congress was opened on Friday by Senator Voorhees, who said, among other things, that the panic of 1873 was largely due to the demonetization of silver; that a return of prosperity was secured by the restoration of the cheap paternal coin; that Secretary Folger, in proposing the retirement of the silver certificates, committed "a wanton and criminal assault upon the financial stability" of the country; that the "tenderest mercies" of the national banks are "legalized cruelty and multiplied usuries"; that "the average national bankers" are painfully destitute of "knowledge, unselfishness, and breadth of views"; that the "moneyed corporations" stubbornly refuse to "learn wisdom and forbear their greedy and repulsive demands"; that "the downfall of the United States Bank a half century ago" ought to be a warning to them; and that "the greenback cause" has "achieved a great and important victory." This lively introduction prepares us for an interesting discussion when our new-school economists and statesmen fairly warm to their work.

Mr. Manning's bill to reorganize the Supreme Court provides for its division into three branches, which are respectively to have charge of (1) equity suits, (2) common-law causes, and (3) admiralty and revenue cases and cases in which the United States is a party. Whenever a case comes up involving a construction of the Constitution or a treaty, or is brought on a writ of error from the court of last resort in any State, it is to be considered by the full bench. Each division will consist of three judges; and if two judges in any division concur in a judgment, the decision is final unless some member of the court desires it to be reviewed by the full bench. This right would, of course, be rarely exercised; now and then a dissenting judge in one of the divisions would demand it, but only in case there was a grave difference of view between himself and his associates —that is, in just the cases where a review would be desirable. The great merits of the scheme are that it does not call for any increase of the number of judges or any new courts, and that it does not raise the pecuniary limit of appeals.

Most of the plans for the relief of the Supreme Court at Washington involve the creation of an intermediate Court of Appeal, and

the increase of the pecuniary limit which entitles litigants to carry their cases to the court of last resort. The scheme for an increase of the number of judges and the division of the court according to the class of cases which come before it has some advantages over these, as it does not tend in any way to make the court a tribunal for rich suitors, which is a very serious objection to the other plans. According to this plan the judgment of each division would be the judgment of the whole court, but internal-revenue cases, for instance, would be decided by the revenue division, bankruptcy cases by the bankruptcy division, patent cases by the patent division, and so on. The difficulty would be to prevent any conflict as to principles of law between the different divisions. Whatever scheme is adopted, nothing ought to be done to increase the pecuniary limit.

Mr. Sherman's Funding Bill will, if passed, settle the long-pending controversy over the question whether the United States can borrow money at three per cent. on a short bond. The prevailing opinion in financial circles has hitherto been that it could only do so on a long bond. The Secretary of the Treasury in his last report expressed the opinion, "founded on information received from men engaged in financial operations," that it would be essential to the success of a bond bearing less than three and one-half per cent. interest that it should be irredeemable for a long term—none said less than ten years, but most said twenty. The new three and a half per cents with which Secretary Windom refunded the sixes and fives are, however, redeemable at the pleasure of the Government, which Mr. Folger considers a valuable privilege, not to be lightly surrendered by a Government which has and is likely to have a heavy surplus every year. Mr. Sherman proposes to surrender it to a limited extent; that is, he proposes to take up the $200,000,000 three and a half per cents, redeemable at pleasure, with a three per cent. bond redeemable in five years, or after the 1st of January, 1887. There is no doubt that the alacrity with which the holders of the fives and sixes consented to exchange them for the three-and-a-halfs, although they knew the Treasury was not in a position to compel them to do so, furnishes strong reason, which did not exist when this subject was under discussion last year, for believing that even a three per cent. bond for a moderate amount would be floated with almost as much ease, even though nothing but five years' certainty of non-redemption were offered.

There seems in the present state of the money market hardly anything which a Government which keeps faith with its creditors and has a surplus cannot do. In other words, the money market has not been at any time since steam came into use in commerce so unfavorable to persons in search of safe investments as at this moment. In England, investors had hardly recovered from the enormous losses caused by the lavish loans made to semi-barbarous foreign States, and to American bankrupt railroads, when the land which has for two centuries been to the cautious English investor the sole rival of consols, ceased to be safe, owing to the immense fall both in rents and in the value of the fee, caused by bad harvests and American competition. Whether it will in our time ever recover its old position as a security is more than doubtful. It will certainly not do so for many years, even if American competition should become less serious, because it is quite plain that legislation of a somewhat revolutionary character touching land tenures is now one of the strong probabilities of English politics in the near future. On the Continent, there is nothing very attractive in the shape of Government securities except the French rentes, which can only be got out of French hands at prices which yield little if anything more than consols in the way of income, so that there is really nothing for this class of English investors to turn to but United States bonds. These, too, are beginning to attract the attention of English banks as a good receptacle for their surplus funds, because they would not be affected in the same degree as consols by a disturbance in the London money market at the very moment when they would need to be converted into cash. But the most serious difficulty of all for the investor is the fact that facility of communication enables lenders to go over the whole earth in search of "good things." Local investors have no longer the snug little nooks, safe from observation and competition, which they used to enjoy in old times. It is only the hard-pressed farmer who is any longer dependent on the local money-lender. Borrowing states and corporations, and even individuals with good security to offer, find funds pressed on their acceptance from every corner of the globe in which there is accumulated capital. All this is much the same as saying that the money-lender never had to pay so dearly for a quiet mind.

The United States Treasury early in the week succeeded in obtaining for prepayment $5,489,500 of the 3½ per cent. bonds originally called for redemption January 29. The money for these bonds came out of the Treasury during the first half of the week, but not in time to make much show in the statement of the average condition of the banks for the six days ending Saturday. It sufficed, however, to relieve the loan market, and during the week borrowers had little difficulty in supplying their wants at or under 6 per cent. The Stock Exchange demand for money was reduced by a general liquidation of speculative accounts, and an attendant decline of 1@8 per cent. in the market prices of stocks. Foreign exchange was firm, but at rates which admit neither of the export nor the import of gold. A good many railroad stocks have been returned from Europe during the week, which has strengthened foreign exchange rates, as has also the fact that our merchandise exports continue to diminish. In the fifty weeks of the expired part of the calendar year the merchandise exports from New York were $33,900,328 less than during the preceding year. Since last August the gold imports have amounted to $25,382,861; in the corresponding period of 1880 they amounted to $64,035,741. The general trade of the country continues good, and it is doubtful if the profits of general business have ever been as large as during the year so near its close.

The selection of Judge Gray for the Supreme Court bench is an event of considerable importance. It is unnecessary to say anything about his conspicuous fitness for the position; but the most gratifying thing about the appointment is that it seems to show that the President has determined to make fitness the sole test in appointments of this description. Judge Gray has no political backing, there have been no "workers" urging his claims and sounding his praises, and his selection can be attributed only to the desire of the President to find the best lawyer in the country who was willing to take the office. The Massachusetts bar has produced many excellent judges, the fixity of tenure guaranteed by the laws of the State making a strictly judicial career possible there as it is hardly anywhere else in the country. From the day of his appointment to the Massachusetts bench Judge Gray has refused to have any connection with political movements or with politicians of any kind, consistently acting on a view of the judicial office which has been supposed to be a dangerous view for an ambitious man to adopt, because of its unpopularity. The rapid promotion of Judge Gray amounts to a very satisfactory proof that this impression is not altogether sound.

The appointment of Mr. Benjamin H. Brewster as Attorney-General was not unexpected, and now, having been made, it meets with general commendation. Mr. Brewster is a lawyer of high standing, and, although not an active politician in the ordinary sense, has always taken a deep interest in public affairs. He was employed by Mr. MacVeagh as Government counsel in the Star-route cases, and it is to be expected that he will prosecute them with vigor. Some of our contemporaries comment upon the fact that thus far all the new members of the Cabinet have been taken from the Stalwart wing of the Republican party, and that the gentlemen spoken of in connection with the places still to be filled belong to the same class. This is true, and it is also probable that too demonstrative an identification with that Republican faction which was not in accord with the lamented predecessor's "noble aspirations," so prominently mentioned in President Arthur's inaugural address, may in the course of time involve the President in unpleasant embarrassments and dissensions. It must be said, however, that as yet his Cabinet appointments have been individually very respectable. The gentlemen selected have been something more than mere Stalwart politicians.

Mr. T. O. Howe's nomination for the Postmaster-Generalship has a sorry look when one remembers that he succeeds Mr. James, and that the condition of the department, as the Star-route exposures have shown, is such as to call for great business experience, great perspicacity, and great vigor and courage in its chief. It is neither unfair nor unkind to Mr. Howe to say that in all these things he is wanting, and seri-

ously wanting. He is no longer young; in fact, at sixty-five he may be fairly called old. He has never held any administrative office. His temper is so mild, tolerant, and unsuspicious that, though personally a pure and upright man, he has seen so little that is objectionable in the "Grant crowd" that he has, ever since it came into existence, been one of its members. In fact, he was a "third-termer" as long as there was any chance of a third term; and whatever excellences a third-termer may have, a disposition to pursue fraud vigorously, and keep a vigilant watch for its prevention, is not one of the things for which the American public, as at present advised, looks to him. Mr. Howe was so enthusiastic a third-termer that he wrote an article in the *North American Review* on the third term, in which he cited the Second Person of the Trinity in support of it, and declared that "the world would make a mistake if it should turn from Jesus of Nazareth to follow Mr. Springer of Illinois." The only parallel in literature for this is the late Bishop Haven's comparison of the Grant Administration to the Transfiguration on the Mount. Mr. Howe's career as a legislator—he sat eighteen years in the Senate—has been entirely respectable, and he did good service in his own State during the past winter in helping to defeat Boss Keyes's attempt to get the Senatorship. He has the peculiar power, which it would be difficult if not impossible to define or account for, which Mr. George S. Boutwell also possesses, of impressing himself on every Administration as a person who must be "provided for," which to a politician of moderate ability is more precious than rubies or fine gold.

The appointment of Mr. Bancroft Davis as First Assistant Secretary of State is undoubtedly the best that could have been made. There is probably no man in this country more conversant with the business machinery of our diplomatic and consular service in all its branches, as well as with the history and traditions of our foreign intercourse. He possesses at the same time great working capacity, and knows how to give his work a useful direction. In all these respects he is just the kind of man a Secretary of State should have at his elbow to furnish him with information, and to guard him from those mistakes which inexperienced zeal is apt to fall into. The only complaint that ever was made of Mr. Davis when he held the same place under Mr. Fish was, that he lacked that smooth pleasantness and unruffled affability which will make a man in such a position a favorite with the diplomatic corps as well as with his subordinates. But his other qualities are so valuable that they far outweigh this little defect of temper or manner, if defect it be.

Mr. Scoville, Guiteau's counsel, has been delivering a lecture on the case in Washington, for the purpose, it is said, of providing himself with a little money. He excused himself for discussing the proceedings in court on the ground that the press and the pulpit had been doing the same thing, and, somewhat inconsistently, he chastised them both therefor. It is very unusual to find fault with a person for setting you a bad example, which you are following for a pecuniary consideration. He then read a very fine prayer for Guiteau composed by a person named Ringland, of Illinois; discoursed on the law of insanity; overruled Judge Davis of New York on this subject, and indicated the view which Judge Cox ought to take of it; predicted his client's assassination; gave some account of the Guiteau family tree, and produced some medical testimony as to Guiteau's lunacy. We do not know what the price of admission was, but an entertainment so varied would be cheap at five dollars. Of the scandalous and ridiculous impropriety of it we do not need to speak; but of its inconvenience as a precedent something must be said. It is obvious that if it is right for Mr. Scoville, who is an officer of the court, to make money in this way, it is right for the District Attorney and all the prosecuting counsel and for Judge Cox himself. Judge Cox, we believe, is not a rich man, and he is even more respected than Mr. Scoville, and as a lecturer would draw better. If, in fact, those who take part in the conduct of the case are entitled to make all they can out of it during its progress, the position of the jurors, in being kept in close custody, is a very hard one. There is no juror of the twelve who could not fill a good-sized room, at a dollar a head, by lecturing on the other eleven.

A Paris correspondent of the *Evening Post* gives an interesting account of the attempt of the French Republicans in the Lower Chamber to fuse the various "groups" of the majority into a homogeneous whole by means of the American caucus—that is, extra-parliamentary meetings of members of the same party. But he is mistaken in supposing that these are, like the nominating caucuses, a novelty in European politics. Meetings of the members of Parliament of the same party out of doors to discuss lines of action and hear statements from the party leader have been customary in England for two centuries. In fact, they are an almost necessary adjunct of party government. No body of men can be kept together without more or less deliberation in common, and this deliberation cannot take place in the presence of their enemies in the legislature itself. But these parliamentary caucuses are much less necessary in England than in this country. In England members are almost always elected to support a particular man, on whom and on the colleagues chosen by him falls the responsibility either of carrying on the Government or criticising the ministry; and private members of his own party are expected to follow his lead, and, if they belong to the party in power, are always exposed to the heavy penalty of dissolution in case of revolt. Here there is no legislative leader, recognized as such, and no one, therefore, who can impose a line of action on his party with acknowledged authority.

Probably nothing will hamper Gambetta, or any other French Premier, more in keeping together a well-disciplined majority than his inability to dissolve the Chamber at pleasure. Under the French Constitution the President must have the consent of the Senate to do this, so that unless the Minister holds both houses he cannot inflict on deserters or mutineers that final punishment which has so powerful an influence in maintaining ministerial majorities in England. If Gladstone could not dissolve without the consent of the House of Lords, he would be somewhat in the position toward his followers in which Gambetta finds himself today. As matters stand, if Gladstone feels sure that his hold on the constituencies is not weakened, he can at any time, by a fresh appeal to the country, put the recalcitrant members of his own party to the great expense and great risk of seeking a reëlection. But after all, nothing either in France or any other country takes the place of political habits, as an aid to party government. No machinery that can be devised will enable a party to dispense with readiness on the part of individual members to sink minor differences, and shut their eyes to the minor defects of their own leaders, in order to strengthen the organization as a whole. These political habits have grown up in England and America through the experience of many generations of the force which lies in union. This experience Continental politicians still have to acquire. In other words, they have to learn to be happy with half what they ask for and would like to get. That the lesson has not yet been learned in France is shown by the news that sixty-eight members of the Left refuse to go into the caucus, and have formed a group of their own, which will probably constantly threaten the Ministry, and seek to make bargains with it.

It was well for the Ferry Ministry that they had gone out of office before the trial of the Roustan suit against Rochefort. The Reds have always maintained that the Tunisian war was a stockjobbing enterprise, got up by Roustan, the Consul-General at Tunis, in connection with members of the Ministry at home. There were various circumstances connected with it which gave color to the charge that the ostensible cause of the expedition was not the true one. This cause was the turbulence and aggressiveness of the Kroumirs on the Algerian frontier; but when the troops marched against them they could nowhere be found, and then Tunis itself suddenly became the objective point. The Bey was deprived of his power, and most of it lodged in the hands of M. Roustan, who had been bullying him for a good while, had quarrelled with nearly all his diplomatic colleagues, and made no secret of the fact that France needed more commercial elbow-room in that part of the world. Unfortunately, too, about this time M. Léon Say went out to look after what we call here "valuable interests" in Tunis, and M. de Billing, the Assistant Foreign Secretary, went out too; and though M. Say solemnly denied that he had any public mission whatever, or any business created by the war, the Opposition doubted, and when M. de Billing said that he had no private business the Opposition doubted again. Roustan, as it now appears, foolishly sued Rochefort for libel, and has been beaten by the breakdown of M. de Billing, whose chief, M. Barthélemy-St.-Hilaire, repudiated him in the court-room, and Rochefort has got off.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

In reply to a resolution of the Senate, Mr. Blaine submitted on Thursday last his letter of instructions to Minister Lowell in regard to the modification of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. The letter is dated November 19, and its substance is as follows: The treaty was made thirty years ago under exceptional and extraordinary conditions, which have ceased to exist. Since then, owing to the development of the Pacific Coast, the interests of the United States in the matter of a canal across the Isthmus of Panama have increased incommensurably as compared with those of Great Britain, and considerable modifications in the above-mentioned treaty are therefore demanded. Mr. Blaine is willing to allow the clause restraining the United States and Great Britain from making acquisitions of territory in Central America, and also that providing for free ports at the mouths of the canal, to remain in all their original force; but he insists that the joint-protectorate provision be regarded as obsolete, and the United States left free to make its own arrangements with any country across which the canal may be cut. In closing, Mr. Blaine states that it is the fixed purpose to treat the canal solely as an American question, to be dealt with and decided by the United States Government.

On Sunday a correspondence which passed between Mr. Blaine and Mr. Hurlbut, Minister to Peru, was furnished for publication, with the approval of the President. The correspondence is relative to certain claims now in the hands of an organization known as the "Peruvian Company," against the Peruvian Government. These claims, known respectively as the Cochet and the Landreau claims, aggregate $1,025,000,000. Cochet and Landreau were two men, alleged to have been American citizens, who did certain work under contract for the Peruvian Government in connection with the guano beds. In the first despatch of the above-mentioned correspondence Mr. Blaine virtually recognizes the validity of the Landreau claim, but repudiates the other. In reply Mr. Hurlbut states that "in the Landreau case the proofs are sufficient, and the condition in which the Peruvian Government left the complainant forms a just ground for a decided appeal to their sense of justice." In regard to the Cochet claim, which is for $900,000,000, Mr. Hurlbut very truly says that if the United States assume charge of it, "we should own Peru by a mortgage which can never be paid." In a later despatch, dated November, however, Mr. Blaine denies all "right and standing" in the United States to the "Peruvian Company," which, as we have said, is the organization that has charge of both claims. It will be seen that there is an apparent contradiction between the August and November despatches. In the one the soundness of the Landreau claim is acknowledged, while in the other the company which has charge of, and is pushing it, is disavowed. This correspondence is worthy of note for the reason that it has been asserted in various quarters that Mr. Hurlbut's extraordinary diplomatic course while in Peru was due in some way to these claims.

On Thursday the President sent in the nomination of Mr. J. C. Bancroft Davis to be Assistant Secretary of State.

On Friday the nomination of Mr. Benjamin Harris Brewster, of Pennsylvania, to be Attorney-General, was sent to the Senate. The nomination was referred to the Judiciary Committee and confirmed. It is not expected that the nominations to the War, Navy, and Interior Departments will be sent in until after the holiday recess.

On Monday the President sent several important nominations to the Senate. Chief-Justice Horace Gray, of the Massachusetts Supreme Court, was nominated for Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States vice Justice Clifford. William Henry Trescott, of South Carolina, was nominated as Special Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to Chili, Peru, and Bolivia, and Thomas C. Acton to be Assistant Treasurer in New York city. The nominations were referred to the appropriate committees and confirmed. That of Judge Gray has been received with almost unanimous approval throughout the country.

On Tuesday the President nominated ex-Senator Howe, of Wisconsin, for Postmaster-General. The nomination was sent to the Senate late in the afternoon and was confirmed before it adjourned.

More bills have been introduced into the Senate during the week. On Wednesday there was a debate on a resolution for the appointment of a select committee to consider all matters relating to woman suffrage. This was followed by a speech by Senator Beck upon his bill concerning Presidential inability. The debate on this bill was continued on Thursday. The Finance Committee reported favorably on Mr. Sherman's bill providing for the issue of 3 per cent. bonds. The committee made certain amendments to the original bill, however, which provide that 3½ per cent. bonds as well as lawful money may be received in exchange for the new bonds; reduce the amount of the bonds from three to two millions, and omit the provision exempting the bonds from State taxation. Secretary Folger appeared before the Committee on Thursday, but did not support the bill. He is said to prefer that the situation should not be changed. It is stated that Mr. Sherman will ask the Senate to consider his bill immediately after the holiday recess. No business of importance has been transacted in the House of Representatives. The deluge of bills continues.

The report of Mr. A. M. Gibson, Assistant Attorney for the United States, concerning the Star-service frauds, has been formally transmitted by Acting Attorney-General Phillips to the Postmaster-General, and will be published with the latter's annual report. It will be remembered that some weeks ago Mr. Phillips objected to receiving Mr. Gibson's report on the ground that there was nothing on the files of the Department of Justice to show that Mr. Gibson had been appointed Assistant Attorney. The report is said to be an exhaustive exhibition of the abuses which have prevailed in the Star service, and is published in accordance with the recommendations of the counsel employed by the Government in the Star-route cases.

Postmaster-General James has called the attention of the Government counsel in the Star-route cases to a law passed in 1872 which directs that the Postmaster-General shall cause suit to be brought to recover any money fraudulently obtained from the Post-office Department. In accordance with this statute, it has been decided to bring civil suits in behalf of the Government against the Star-route contractors.

The charters of 396 National Banks expire on or before February 25, 1883. The Controller of the Currency having called attention to this fact in his annual report, Senator Morrill of Vermont has introduced a bill the first section of which provides that any National Banking Association may at any time within two years previous to the date of the expiration of its corporate existence, with the approval of the Controller of the Currency, extend its period of succession for a term of not more than twenty years from the expiration of the period named in the original articles of association.

The Congressional Board of Visitors to the West Point Military Academy has made its annual report. The leading question discussed is the mode of selecting a Superintendent for the Academy. It is the opinion of the Board that no man properly qualified ought to be excluded from the position merely because he was not originally assigned to duty in a particular corps. The report recommends that any officer of the army not below the rank of Colonel be made eligible for the position of Superintendent of the Academy, and that he be paid a higher salary than at present; also that ex-officio rank, superior to that held by professors or other officers of the Academy, be conferred upon him. The report expresses disapproval of the practice now in vogue of allotting the five most distinguished graduates annually to a single branch of the service, and recommends that they be allowed to choose for themselves. Among the other recommendations is one that the course of instruction be increased by one year.

It is stated that the American Bar Association will shortly recommend the creation of an intermediary Court of Appeals which will have jurisdiction over certain classes of cases that now go to the Supreme Court of the United States.

The joint committee appointed by the Senate and House to arrange for memorial ceremonies in honor of President Garfield, have decided to invite Mr. Blaine to deliver a eulogy before both branches of Congress in the hall of the House of Representatives, on some day yet to be determined. Mr. Blaine has accepted the invitation.

The session of the court in the Guiteau case was cut short on Wednesday by the indisposition of one of the jurors. Three witnesses, however, were examined, all of whom testified that they had never doubted Guiteau's sanity. Another incident of Guiteau's career as a lawyer was brought out on this day. Guiteau was employed by a firm to collect a claim, half of which he collected and kept, insisting that he was entitled to one-half as his fee, and that the firm could take the second half whenever it came in. On Thursday more witnesses were examined, who testified to the prisoner's sanity. Among them was Dr. Young, the physician of the jail where Guiteau has been confined, who said that the prisoner was "bright, quick, and intelligent," and that he had "never seen anything about him that savored of insanity." The most important witness of the day, however, was General Joseph S. Reynolds. He had had a series of interviews with Guiteau on July 14, 15, 18, and 19, of which he had taken notes. The substance of these interviews, in so far as they brought out any matters of importance, was that Guiteau had made no reference to the inspiration theory, but had defined the assassination as a patriotic act, of his own conception, suggested from reading the newspapers; also that he seemed really to have believed that the "Stalwarts" would protect him, and was astonished when he found that they abhorred his act as much as any one. The theory of the prosecution that the idea of divine inspiration did not occur to Guiteau until after he found that he could look for no assistance from the "Stalwarts," was materially strengthened by General Reynolds's testimony. On Friday considerable commotion was occasioned in the court-room by the appearance of Mrs. Dunmire, Guiteau's former wife, on the witness stand. She testified positively that she had never seen in Guiteau any evidence of an unsound mind. In the afternoon Dr. Allen McLane Hamilton gave some testimony which was very prejudicial to the defence. He said that he had examined the prisoner, and had found none of the usual signs of imbecility or insanity in the contour of the head, lines of the face, teeth, roof of the mouth, nails, or tongue. He flatly contradicted Dr. Spitzka on a number of points. He said that he thought the prisoner looked "like a man playing a part." The wife of one of the jurors died on Monday. The trial was therefore adjourned until Wednesday.

Mr. Scoville delivered his lecture on the Guiteau trial on Wednesday evening, the 14th instant. A large number of tickets are said to have been sold, though the audience assembled

was rather small. The lecturer complained of the course of the press and the pulpit, and eulogized Judge Cox, than whom, he said, "no more candid, careful, conscientious, and judicious man could be found in the country." At the conclusion of the lecture a resolution was offered by one of the audience expressing sympathy with the prisoner's family, and complimenting Mr. Scoville on his management of the case.

Mr. Riddleberger, the Readjuster, was elected to the United States Senate by the Virginia Legislature on Tuesday. Considerable interest has been manifested as to which party he will support in the Senate. It is stated that he will "take his seat in that body untrammelled, so far as party pledges made by his friends are concerned."

Director-General Kimball has announced that, notwithstanding the many requests he has received to the contrary, the Atlanta Exposition will have to be closed on the last day of December.

Great excitement was caused in the city of Caldwell, Kansas, on Sunday by a raid made on the town by a party of cowboys, who did much indiscriminate shooting, which resulted in the death of Michael Meagher, formerly Mayor of Caldwell. The citizens drove the cowboys out of the town and pursued them for some distance. Several of the gang have been arrested, and it is very suggestively stated that it is "uncertain how they will be disposed of," as the citizens are very much excited.

An English gentleman, Sir Edward J. Reed, representing a number of European capitalists, has bought of Mr. Hamilton Disston, of Philadelphia, two million acres of lands in Florida. It is stated that Mr. Reed will organize a land company which is to have its headquarters in England, and will be conducted in connection with railroad companies in which Mr. Reed and his friends are interested. It is expected that the land will be settled rapidly by English and Dutch emigrants.

The stockholders of the well-known "Keely Motor" Company held a meeting in Philadelphia on the 14th inst. Resolutions expressing confidence in Mr. Keely were passed, but complaint was made that the inventor was "unreasonably secretive" as to the principles and methods of working his apparatus, and it was recommended that some person should be taken into his confidence.

Dr. I. I. Hayes, the well-known Arctic explorer, died in New York, on Saturday. He was born in Chester County, Pennsylvania, in 1832. He joined Dr. Kane's Arctic expedition in 1853, at the age of twenty-one. In July, 1860, he was placed in command of an Arctic expedition which met with great hardships. He served as surgeon in the Union army during the war, after the close of which he devoted himself to writing and lecturing. He received two gold medals, one from the Royal Geographical Society of London, and the other from the Geographical Society of Paris. On Sunday, George Edmund Street, perhaps the foremost living English architect, died. Other deaths of the week are those of Lewis H. Morgan, the eminent American ethnologist, and Siro Delmonico, of the firm of New York caterers.

FOREIGN.

The suit brought by M. Roustan, French Minister to Tunis, against M. Rochefort, the editor of the *Intransigeant* newspaper, was terminated on Wednesday, the 14th instant. The principal point brought forward by the defence was that M. Roustan had engaged in financial transactions of a doubtful character. The accusation that M. Roustan had been the cause of the war in Tunis was contradicted by a number of prominent members of the Ferry government, including M. Barthélemy-St.-Hilaire, late Minister of Foreign Affairs. During the trial M. St.-Hilaire and M. de Billing engaged in a violent altercation, each accusing the other of lying. The verdict of not guilty, which was rendered in spite of all the evidence that was brought forward to prove the falsity of M. Rochefort's charges, has produced a sensation in Paris. The political bearings of the case are said to have had an effect on public opinion which unquestionably influenced the jury. This verdict, by implication, strongly censures M. St.-Hilaire and M. Waddington.

Gabes has been selected as the chief military station of the French in the south. There is much dissatisfaction at this decision on account of the unhealthiness of the place. It is stated that certain powerful tribes south of Gabes have profited by the retirement of General Logerot's column to form a defensive alliance, and that their attitude is threatening.

The Tunisian authorities have forcibly expelled the employees of a certain Mr. Levy from the Enfida estate, and put the French claimants to the estate in possession. Mr. Levy has protested against this action, and has deposited with the British Consul in Tunis a procès-verbal detailing this last episode in the case.

It is stated that the Italian Government has approved the conduct of the Italian Consul in protesting against the French occupation of Tunis, and has refused to withdraw its protest. The Italian authorities continue to ignore the French protectorate, and have sent a man-of-war to Susa.

The insurgent Arab troops, of which a French column was in pursuit, have escaped into Tripoli.

Dams near Algiers, on the Oran railway, burst recently, flooding the railway, and, it is stated, causing the loss of over fifty lives.

Advices from Morocco state that 45,000 Arab families have entered the country and asked permission to settle permanently there. The Moorish Government has not yet given them any reply.

There was a stormy debate in the German Reichstag on Thursday on the subject of official influence in the recent elections. The debate lasted until past midnight, and ended in a resolution to refer the matter to the Election Committee. The Bundesrath has decided that the cost of incorporating the lower Elbe in the Zollverein shall be borne by all the States within the Union.

A despatch from Berlin says that the recent newspaper controversy between Prince Bismarck and Herr Windthorst, the leader of the Centre party, has put an end to all hopes for the present of a Parliamentary coalition of the Conservatives and Clericals.

On Friday the Reichstag, in spite of the earnest appeals of Count von Moltke and General von Kameke, Minister of War, refused to vote money for the establishment of a training institute for non-commissioned officers in Alsace. The Conservatives alone voted for the grant. This vote is considered significant as to the present state of parties.

The Reichstag has approved the bill for the erection of a new Parliament house in Berlin.

A correct list of the victims of the Ring Theatre fire in Vienna has been issued by the police. It gives the total number of victims as 794, the bodies of 144 of whom have been legally identified.

One of the results of the Vienna fire has been that very strict investigations have been made in most of the European cities in regard to the condition of the theatres. The authorities have ordered alterations in the Théâtre Français which will necessitate the closing of the theatre for a month.

It is stated in the *St. Petersburg Gazette* that there have been 1,500 arrests in Russia for political offences in the course of the present year. Many of these arrests were due to false accusations.

The Governor-General of Eastern Siberia arrived in St. Petersburg on Tuesday with the news that a steamer of the North American Polar Expedition had been discovered, and assistance rendered to the crew. This steamer was thought to be the *Jeannette*, and later despatches have confirmed this impression. The *Jeannette* was crushed in the ice on June 23, 150 miles northeast of the new Siberia Islands. The crew embarked in three boats, two of which have been heard from. Vigorous efforts are being made to discover the third boat. Captain De Long is among those saved. The survivors have suffered frightfully from exposure.

The organization against the payment of rent in Ireland seems to be becoming still more powerful. It is said that it is now regarded to be as much a crime to go into the Land Court as to pay rent. Outrages are as prevalent as ever. The Lord Lieutenant has issued a circular to the Irish police, informing them that the proclamation declaring the Land League a criminal association, included females, and directing them to take measures against any woman participating in any illegal proceedings. On Sunday a quantity of arms and ammunition were discovered in a house in Dublin and four persons were arrested. It is said that there is no doubt that the material is associated with the Fenians. As an instance of the state of things in certain counties, armed bands are going about nightly throughout Clare, Kerry, and Tipperary, firing into houses and so intimidating the occupants that they are afraid to report the facts to the police. There are a few hopeful signs, however. Several convictions for agrarian offences have been obtained at the current assizes, and Mr. Herbert Gladstone, speaking at Manchester on Friday evening, said that during his recent tour in Ireland, he found that the condition of things had been very much exaggerated in England, and that the alarmists took their standard from the worst counties. The Marquis of Hartington also, in a recent speech, said that the power of the Land League was now broken, and that it was impossible for the present guerrilla warfare to succeed.

The English press very generally disapprove of Mr. Blaine's letter of instructions to Mr. Lowell in regard to the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. The principal point remarked upon is Mr. Blaine's assumption that the moment a war should break out Great Britain would disregard her treaty obligations with regard to the neutrality of the canal. It is asked why, in view of this distrust, Great Britain should be expected to repose implicit confidence in America's pledge not to impose discriminating duties on goods in transit.

An explosion occurred in a coal pit at Bolton, England, on Monday, in which thirty-four persons were killed and thirty-six injured. The pit was considered one of the safest in England, as neither gunpowder for blasting nor furnaces for ventilation were used, the whole system of working the mine being purely mechanical. It is believed that the explosion was caused by the falling of a portion of the roof, which liberated some gas.

The English Government has granted permission to the German Union Telegraph Company to use Valentia as a connecting point for a cable to be laid from Emden, uniting Germany directly with the Anglo-American system of telegraph cables.

There was a considerable decline in American securities in London on Monday, for which no good reason can be assigned. The feeling of the market is reported to have closely approached the character of a panic.

It is stated that the question of the advisability of the Pope's departure from Rome is being seriously discussed.

A despatch from Lima, dated December 14, confirms the rumor that ex-Dictator Pierola has resigned. Montero, Vice-President under Pierola, is now recognized by the whole of Peru. The interior of the country, however, is broken up into numerous factions.

Mr. Hamlin, the new United States Minister to Spain, presented his credentials to King Alfonso on the 20th inst.

TUESDAY, December 20, 1881.

WINDING UP PERU.

THE unwillingness of Chili to settle with Peru on any terms short of a cession of territory is explained by the fact that Peru is an insolvent concern, and its promises to pay money are practically worthless. It has a known debt of some $200,000,000, represented mainly by bonds held in Europe, and its revenue is insufficient to pay the interest on this. This is nothing, however, to the liability set up by the "Peruvian Company," which, according to a memorandum addressed to the State Department by the Chilian Minister, foots up $1,025,000,000. This is based on the old claims of Cochet and Landreau as alleged discoverers of the commercial value of the guano deposits in 1833—a discovery generally believed to be involved in an obscurity something like that which still hangs round the original inventor of gunpowder. At any rate, the Peruvian Company has acquired the Cochet claim, and proposes to acquire the other in case it is worth acquiring, and is "stocked" at $250,000,000. It now proposes, as they say in England, to "take over" Peru and wind up the concern and settle with the other creditors, Chili included. For this purpose it has got a charter from the Legislature of Georgia, and, according to an interview with the president of the company, Mr. J. R. Shipherd, of this city, published on Saturday, has served notice of its demand upon Chili, Peru, and the United States; its claim against Chili being based on the fact that that Government is now collecting a royalty on the guano exports.

The despatches published on Monday with regard to the claims put Mr. Hurlbut in a better light than heretofore, and show at the same time that the State Department has been managing the matter calmly and with evident desire to avoid any imbroglio. With regard to the Cochet claim (say $900,000,000), which is the main basis of the Peruvian Company, Mr. Blaine in August last directed Mr. Hurlbut to investigate it for the purpose of ascertaining whether there were any persons connected with it whose nationality as American citizens entitled them to demand any representations from our Government. As to the Landreau claim (say $125,000,000), Landreau, the original owner, having been an American citizen, Mr. Blaine directs Mr. Hurlbut to call Peru's attention to the denial of justice in the case, and insist upon some adequate means being provided by which a judicial decision can be obtained as to the merits of the claim. He further suggests that if Peru is compelled to cede to Chili territory including the guano deposits on which the Landreau claim is based, "it should be understood that this claim of an American citizen, if fairly adjudicated in his favor, shall be treated as a prior lien on the property to which it attaches, and that Chili accepts the cession with that condition annexed."

Fortunately, in this instance, Mr. Hurlbut seems to have understood his instructions; partly, perhaps, because Mr. Shipherd, the president of the Peruvian Company, who is "running" the claims, has himself a mind somewhat of the Hurlbut class—only much "more so." In fact, to judge from his publications with regard to these claims, he could give Mr. Hurlbut "points" in rhetoric and the rapid development of convenient principles of international law. His communications seem to have sobered Mr. Hurlbut, who refers, in a way very different from that which he adopts in talking to Don Patricio Lynch, to two "very extraordinary" letters written by that capitalist and "some printed matter," which we risk nothing in saying was very extraordinary too, and declares that as to the Cochet claim the legation is in possession of "nothing but vague and sweeping statements, better adapted to creating a commercial enterprise than to any judicial or quasi-judicial action." In closing the letter he returns to Shipherd, who evidently is a fascinating study to him, and declares that "if half his statement is true (as to the Cochet claim) and the United States assume charge of the claim, we should own Peru by a mortgage which can never be paid." He encloses in this despatch extracts from a letter in which Shipherd represents himself as asking Mr. Blaine for a "preliminary injunction" against anything being done with the nitrate and guano deposits until the property right of the claimants is settled; a request to which Mr. Blaine was quoted as replying in the following memorable words: "That you will get, and I will make it my first business." About a month since Mr. Blaine sent a despatch in reply to Mr. Hurlbut's, formally repudiating the Cochet claim, and directing that the Landreau claim should not be pressed on Peru so as to embarrass her in her present condition. Mr. Blaine, too, thinks Shipherd "very extraordinary," first, because he had told him expressly that his (Shipherd's) instructions to United States ministers abroad could not be regarded as of any weight; and, second, that the language attributed by him (Shipherd) to him (Blaine) about the preliminary injunction was "grotesquely absurd." He winds up his letter with the golden maxim that "legations of the United States in foreign countries must not be converted into agencies for the prosecution of private claims." This was followed by further instructions warning Mr. Hurlbut, first, against using his position in any way to aid speculative enterprises of any kind; second, specifically not to aid the "Crédit Industriel of France," nor again the Peruvian Company, which he does not seem to regard as controlling the Landreau claim.

Now, this is all very wise and sensible, and the course pursued by the State Department has evidently kept the country out of some disagreeable complications The caution displayed by Mr. Hurlbut, and his unwillingness to act on his own responsibility in matters involving pecuniary liabilities and demands, contrasts very satisfactorily with his wild political pronunciamientos. The apparition of Shipherd seems to have acted upon him in these matters somewhat after the manner of the temperance lecturer's "horrid example." The Peruvian Company will now in all probability be investigated at Washington, and this source of diplomatic danger may be regarded as out of the way.

The suggestion that the Landreau claim be pressed upon Chili if Chili takes Peruvian territory, calls for very little comment. If the claim is a good one, Chili is bound to assume its payment, as successor to the rights and liabilities of Peru; but it is hardly necessary to say that this has no bearing on the question discussed with so much fierceness by Mr. Hurlbut as to the right of Chili to take territory as an indemnity. The United States has no means of clapping an attachment on the property, and working out the supposed lien of Landreau in a court of law. To interfere in such a way with Chili would mean war, and the State Department evidently has never meant to go to war with Chili. It is obvious that there is not enough Peru to "go round" among the claimants upon the assets, and as winding up foreign insolvent concerns of this kind is no part of the business of the United States, and as the Administration has expressly recognized the rights of Chili as a primary lien, it is not likely that the Peruvian Company will get much of the assets. The difficulties presented by the situation have struck Pierola so forcibly that he has run away and taken ship to Europe.

THE REGENERATION OF THE PRIMARY.

THE special committee of the Young Men's Democratic Club have made a report, on primary elections in this city, which contains some important suggestions in the direction of those which we have recently been producing in these columns. It acknowledges that no full attendance at primaries can be obtained as long as they are held simply for the purpose of electing delegates to a nominating convention, because the firm conviction of the mass of the voters is, that the result of such elections is always arranged beforehand, or, as the report says, "is fixed up by some job or ring influence." It acknowledges, too, that "the better element" of the party in this city will not go to primary meetings in the evening under any circumstances, and will not go at any hour "at the risk of encountering a crowd, or being hustled or jostled by intoxicated men." It therefore proposes that every primary meeting should vote directly for the party nominees, and not for delegates to a nominating convention; that the polls should be kept open all day, so that business men could consult their own convenience as to the hour of going to them; that the sanction of law should be given to primary meetings; that there should be legal penalties for frauds committed at them and for violent disturbances of them, and that there should be an enrolment of the party voters partly on personal application and partly on house-to-house visitation.

The committee cite in support of their recommendation of the direct vote the trial of the plan during the last ten years in Richmond, Va. There the primary votes directly for the candidate, and the polls are open all day. The result has been the extirpation of municipal bosses, and an extraordinarily full vote. In 1876, when all the municipal offices were to be filled, 6,200 Democrats out of 7,500 registered voted on the nominations at the polls of the primaries. If we could obtain anything approaching to the same proportion of the party vote

on nominations of both sides in this city, what a gain it would be! Moreover, the power of every boss is built up and maintained by his skill in "controlling" or "fixing" primaries. His whole system of management rests on this. A primary can, of course, be most easily "fixed" when it is small, and when its action is so indirect that an outsider cannot tell what its effect will be. Consequently every boss likes to have it attended by as few persons—provided they are of the right kind—as possible, and (for this purpose) likes to have it held at inconvenient hours and under conditions likely to alarm or disgust what Democrats call "the better element," or in other words all that portion of voters who are busy and do not make a profession of politics. In this way he has only his own adherents to deal with, and by confining the work to the election of delegates to another convention he introduces a fresh element of uncertainty into the transaction which increases his power of making "deals."

There is no question that the withdrawal of the nominating power from the little nocturnal gatherings which now exercise it, and giving it to the main body of the voters voting in daylight, under the same guarantees as to order and honesty which now surround the elections, would, in the great cities at least, be an enormous gain, both for politics and morals. Public morality even more than good government calls for the destruction of the bosses. The effect on the young men of the spectacle of their methods and their success is, and cannot but be, in the highest degree corrupting. All publicly recognized success which is won by trickery and occult instrumentality gives a lesson to the young against which schools and pulpits contend in vain.

The bosses will never be put down by mere denunciation or exhortation. It is not want of dislike of their practices on the part of the public which makes them flourish. It is the fact that they have behind them a nominating system, not exactly of their own contrivance, but which they have learned to turn to use for their own advantage. Moreover, it is a system which produces bosses in endless succession, no matter how many individual bosses may be overthrown by popular risings. As long as the Machine remains, persons competent to handle it will constantly reappear. The radical cure, therefore, is to be found in the destruction of the Machine. The actual assemblage of the party voters for the purpose of nominating candidates may be desirable in country towns, where everybody knows everybody, where the demands of business and society upon the time of individuals are small, and where there is no adequte discussion of local affairs through the press. But in large cities, meetings for purposes of deliberation or comparison of views are never held, and if held would be a mockery. Meetings never take place in cities, except to listen to selected speakers, supporting a cut-and-dried platform, or, as in the case of primaries, to confirm by vote a prepared programme. The discussion and deliberation of large and dense communities are now done and have to be done by the press, and are done by the press far more effectively than they could possibly be by any real debate. No voter who goes to the polls in a great city could possibly learn from attending a nocturnal primary anything about the considerations which should affect his vote, while he would lose a good deal of valuable time.

It is to be remembered, too, that if it be, as is generally conceded, of great importance that "the better element" in both parties should take part in politics, the tastes, habits, and requirements of the "element" will have to be considered. "The better element," like the bad element, is human, and cannot be got to do what it does not like to do, except by the infliction of legal penalties. Unless it is proposed to make it take part in nominations by the aid of the police, the work must be adapted to its idiosyncrasies, and one of the strongest and best ascertained of these is dislike to leaving home after dark, to engage in wordy or other warfare in crowded rooms with persons in liquor. If this were a condition of voting at elections, they would soon cease to vote. But voting at elections being safe, orderly, and convenient, they vote. Where would be the harm of making party nominations safe, orderly, and convenient?

CLASSICAL AND NON-CLASSICAL TRAINING FOR THE HIGHER EDUCATION.

A SIGNIFICANT and somewhat remarkable paper on the place of classical and non-classical studies in a liberal education has recently been placed before the public in Germany. Before the year 1870 those German students who had received their preparatory training in a real-school instead of a gymnasium, were obliged either to forego a university education or to seek it in one of the non-Prussian universities. The result was, that an increasing number of Prussian students were annually finding their way to Göttingen, Leipsic, Heidelberg, and the other university cities lying beyond the Prussian borders. Accordingly, in the year 1869, the Minister of Public Instruction, Herr von Müller, addressed a note to each of the universities of Prussia, asking their several faculties to consider carefully and report "whether and to what extent the holders of diplomas from the real-schools should be admitted to the pursuit of liberal studies in the universities." In response to this invitation each of the faculties gave to the question such careful consideration as the importance of the subject and the significance of the inquiry seemed to demand. Though the answers, taken as a whole, were decidedly adverse to the admission of students from the real-schools, yet the Government determined not to act upon the views presented in the reports, but to open the doors of the universities to non-classical as well as to classical pupils. By the decree of Dec. 7, 1870, it was determined that Prussian students desirous of studying mathematics, natural history, and modern languages might be admitted to the privileges of the universities on the presentation of a diploma from any one of the real-schools of the first rank. Thus, by fiat of the Government, an entirely new element was introduced into the universities.

After ten years of experience under the new régime, the Philosophical Faculty of the University of Berlin now put upon record their impressions as to the influence of the change. The motion which called out the expression thus published was introduced into the Faculty by Prof. Droysen, the well-known historian. Its first form was that of a memorial asking the Ministry of Education to consider whether the interests of higher learning did not demand a discontinuance of the privileges extended to scholars from the real-schools. This memorial occupied the attention of the Philosophical Faculty during several sessions. As its first form did not secure the unanimous assent of the members, the paper was changed from a memorial to a memorandum; and, in the phraseology in which it was finally adopted, this paper received the signatures of all the scientific as well as of all the classical members of the Faculty. As now for the first time published, it occupies ten octavo pages; and, in view of the unanimity with which it was adopted, it will hardly fail to be regarded as the most powerful plea ever made in behalf of classical studies.

First of all, the memorandum calls attention to the fact that the proportion of non-classical to classical students has been steadily increasing, at such a rate as to threaten an entire change in what may be called the dominant characteristics of the University. The aggregate number of students from the gymnasia has not, indeed, diminished, but the number from the real-schools has so increased as to be about three times as great as it was five years ago. Of all the students admitted to the Philosophical Department of the University of Berlin during the winter semester for 1879-80, thirty-seven per cent. were from real-schools. At the present rate of increase, in five more years this class of students will constitute a majority, and by that very fact will quite revolutionize the prevailing tone of university life. Such an impending change justifies a careful inquiry into the scholarship of the students from the real-schools; and ten years of experience enable those members of the Faculty into whose classes students from the real-schools have been admitted, to speak with considerable confidence. It is in the testimony given by the professors of mathematics, of the natural sciences, and of the modern languages that the real importance of the memorandum is to be found.

Those professors of mathematics who teach the mere elementary branches, and whose lecture-rooms are therefore generally sought by students during the first year of residence at the University, testify that they have discovered no important difference between the two classes of students. But, on the other hand, both of the professors who give instruction in the mathematics of more advanced grade certify that the students who have received their preliminary training in the classical schools, although less advanced at the beginning, show a clearer insight into the subtleties of the more abstruse mathematical relations, and, before they have gone very far, leave the non-classical students quite in the rear. The testimony of the professor of astronomy is of the same import. Both in the Observatory and in the Bureau of Weights and Measures he has noted a marked distinction between the two classes of students. His words are: "The students prepared at the real-schools show at first more knowledge and more skill than those prepared at the gymnasia, but their further development is slower, more superficial, and less independent, while they show still greater inferiority in point of ability to carry on the more difficult processes of independent research."

The professors of chemistry say that students from the real-schools cannot, in their branch of study, be placed upon the same plane as the students from the gymnasia. Professor Hofmann observes that the matriculants from the non-classical schools often show, at the beginning of their chemical studies in the University, a more rapid progress in acquiring a knowledge of the elementary principles of the science, as well as a greater dexterity in the early processes of chemical manipulation; but that, before their

studies have advanced very far, these relations are reversed, and the non-classical students are left behind. He adds that his experience is by no means new; that the same fact had often been observed by Liebig. Professor Rammelsberg gives similar testimony in regard to students in the School of Technology. He says that of those who take his lectures on chemistry during the first semester, the students trained in the gymnasia, though without any previous knowledge of the subject, take a far greater interest in the instruction than that shown by the students from the non-classical schools. He remarks that almost invariably there is with the students from the real-schools a certain indifference (*Blasirtheit*), begotten of an early familiarity with the subject, that is fatal to the most rapid and successful progress. At the final examinations the work of the non-classical students is generally inferior to what in advance would be expected, while the work of the classical students is almost invariably better.

From the other branches of scientific study the testimony is somewhat less emphatic, though it is invariably of the same general import. In the teaching of modern philology the experience of the several professors is not essentially different from that of the instructors of chemistry. Professor Tobler testifies that in his seminary for the more thorough study of the French language and literature he has not been able to detect any very considerable difference between the two classes of students. The professor of English, on the other hand, says that the attainment of the non-classical students is greatly inferior; and, what is of still greater importance, they almost invariably show a want of keenness of apprehension and independence of judgment that prevents them from taking any other than a prescribed method. The same professor (Zupitza) testifies that, as a member of the Examining Commission of the Government, he has noticed that, although the students prepared in the real-schools begin their studies of English before they go to the University, their knowledge of the language at the completion of their University course is generally much inferior to the knowledge shown by the classical students. Herr Müllenhoff, one of the professors of the German language and literature, uses these expressive words: "According to my experience, it is hopelessly impossible for a student prepared in a real-school to acquire what may be called a thoroughly satisfactory development. No one ever acquires it through the study of the modern languages—no one without the solid foundation of a training in a gymnasium." Scherer, the other professor of the same subject, complains of the constant embarrassment to which he is subjected by his inability to introduce to his hearers comparisons between the German linguistic forms and the corresponding forms in the ancient languages.

It is in view of such representations as these that the Faculty finds itself unanimous in its belief that the admission of students from the real-schools has been injurious to the interests of higher learning. The professors in all those departments to which non-classical students are admitted are constantly embarrassed by a certain want of homogeneity in their classes. They must either address themselves to the weaker portion of the class, with a consciousness that they are wearying the better scholars by their excessive simplicity, or, if they resort to the other view, they are obliged to carry forward their work with a depressing consciousness that they are not understood by a considerable portion of their hearers. Unless the prevailing tendency is arrested, the inevitable result, in the opinion of the Faculty, will be that the supreme excellence of scholarship which for half a century has made the German universities famous all over the world, will be a thing of the past.

THE GEWANDHAUS CENTENNIAL.

LEIPZIG, November 27, 1881.

THE seventh Gewandhaus concert for this season was given on Friday, November 25 (this day being the one hundredth anniversary of the inauguration of the Gewandhaus Concert Hall in Leipzig), and was in every way worthy of the event it commemorated.

The concert was opened by an overture by Capellmeister Reinecke, with the motto, well known to all frequenters of the Gewandhaus, "Res severa est verum gaudium." A soft and dreamy introduction, followed by the actual overture in stricter style, awakened a responsive chord in the breasts of the audience, as the hearty and long-continued applause testified. Following the overture, a prologue, written by Rudolph von Gottschall, was spoken by Frau Hildebrand von der Osten. The poem told of the artistic triumphs and well-deserved success of the institution, and of the great names which had appeared on its programmes, and closed with a prayer for the well-being of the present and future directors and members. The remainder of the programme was arranged in chronological order, as follows:

G-major symphony (No. 13 of the Breitkopf and Härtel edition), .	*Haydn.*
Concerto for violin and viola, .	*Mozart.*
Overture to Coriolanus, . .	*Beethoven.*
D-minor symphony (No. 4), .	*Schumann.*

The orchestra was at its best, every member undoubtedly feeling that remissness at such a celebration would be little short of criminal. We were forcibly reminded of a remark made some years ago by a member of the orchestra, that he always assisted at a Gewandhaus concert with a feeling akin to awe. This feeling pervaded all present, audience and performers alike, and lent an air of imposing solemnity to the proceedings. The finale of the symphony by Haydn was enthusiastically encored; the Mozart concerto was played by Joachim, who fairly surpassed himself in its execution.

Together with the programme for the present concert, each hearer was presented with a small, yellow bit of paper of modest appearance—the facsimile of the programme of the first concert held by the old "Concertgesellschaft" in the then new Gewandhaus Hall, on the 25th of November, 1781. What wonderful visions of the past it awakened! Many in the present assemblage had seen the Gewandhaus orchestra rise, at the time of Schumann and Mendelssohn, to that foremost place which it still holds among European orchestras. In 1781 its position was relatively higher still, we may even say unique, in its independence as a *city orchestra*, others being then dependent on the various courts or on rich private individuals, and liable at any moment to suffer a change for the worse. The smaller orchestras, too, were apt to give preference to the works of one composer, to the almost total exclusion of others. The Gewandhaus has, on the contrary, presented the greatest variety of works and authors; of these last no less than 870, among them 42 whose names have attained enduring fame. Of Bach's works, 65 of greater or lesser note have been performed; Beethoven is represented by 103; Mendelssohn by 108; Schumann by 114; Reinecke by 62, etc., etc. The compositions given in the first concert are practically unknown, and even the names of the composers are now scarcely mentioned. Haydn is the first great name met with on the old programmes, a symphony by him having been performed December 6, 1781, in the third Gewandhaus concert. Mozart appears for the first time in January, 1782, as author of a "Sinfonie, vom jüngern Mozart" ("Mozart the younger," to distinguish him from his father, Leopold Mozart, who had made a decided sensation through his "Musical Sleigh-ride," with kettledrums, trumpets, oboes; five sets of sleigh-bells, and four persons with couriers' whips; particularly in the Andante, "as the heated horses shake themselves," and the Adagio, which "presents a lady trembling with the cold"); and for the second time in 1786, after which date he rose gradually but surely to his later commanding position. To Madame Schicht, whose husband afterward became Cantor of the Thomasschule, belongs the honor of having been the first to introduce Beethoven to the Gewandhaus audience, in the aria "Ah, perfido," on Michaelmas Day, 1799. Bach appears in 1805, as the composer of a "Messe in zwei Choeren," which produced, according to the reviewers of the period, a great effect, although the work has been since pronounced spurious. At the head of the programme for the 1st of February, 1827, we read the following: "Symphony by Felix Mendelssohn-Bartholdy, in Berlin (for the first time, MS.)." This was probably the Symphony, op. 11, which was published shortly thereafter, and which since that evening has never again been given in the Gewandhaus. The attention of those interested in Gewandhaus statistics may be directed to a new work by Alfred Dörffel, "Festschrift zur 100-jährigen Jubelfeier der Einweihung des Gewandhaus (Concert) Saales," published under the auspices of the directors. It can be had of Fr. Kistner or of any dealer in music in Leipzig. With Schumann the Gewandhaus concerts may be said to have reached, at least for the present, the termination of the cultivation of the modern school of music. The existence of Wagner, Liszt, Rubinstein, Berlioz, and others, is, to be sure, not quite ignored; but these masters, whose influence on the present and future development of musical culture is simply incalculable, can scarcely feel flattered by the amount of attention bestowed upon them. This fact is often made the ground for complaint against and censure of the directors. On the other hand, every true lover of music must rejoice that, in the midst of much change and of real and imaginary progress on all sides, at least one institution devotes itself to the performance of those works which, in the course of the last half-century, have come to be regarded as classical, and an acquaintance with which, in their purity, is indispensable to every educated musician. To-day, as one hundred years ago, the Gewandhaus stands alone; now, however, no longer as an experiment, but as a tried and trusted supporter of the best in art.

At the inauguration of the hall a reviewer wrote:

"I was much rejoiced to hear that the new concert hall, the building of which has cost several thousand thalers, was to be inaugurated. Perhaps no other city in all Germany can show such a hall. More than 500 persons were present, and there was nevertheless room for many more. The frescoes on the ceiling are by Oeser, and, according to connoisseurs, are masterpieces. The music makes a wonderful effect in this high and tasteful hall. Herr Berger played a violin concerto with great applause, and one could hear the softest and faintest tones in the most distant corners. . . . Over the orchestra, in the midst of which stands an organ for use in sacred concerts, are two boxes, one for the drummer, the other for the trumpeter; by this arrangement some room is saved in the orchestra; but when the chorus is no fuller than to-day, the drums and trumpet are much too loud, and unpleasant to the ear."

Now, after the old hall has done duty for a century, it is, in its turn, to be supplanted by a new one. The site for the latter, on the left bank of the Pleisse, between Schimmelsteich

and the old Botanical Garden, is definitely fixed upon; the City Council lends funds to the extent of 400,000 marks, and the work will undoubtedly be begun in the spring of 1882. May the next hundred years be as productive of pleasure and benefit to all concerned as the century now so happily brought to a close! T. B.

RENAN'S MARCUS AURELIUS.

PARIS, November 25, 1881.

'MARCUS AURELIUS' forms the last volume of the series which M. Renan has written on the 'Origin of Christianity.' He will not rest, however, but informs us that, having resolved in early life to write on the "Development of the Christian Religion," he threw himself at once *in medias res*, and began with the life of Jesus, because Jesus was the central figure of his work. Now he thinks of tracing the origin of Christian ideas in the history of the Jews. Christianity, in his opinion, may be said to commence before Christ—even eight centuries before him—when the religion of Israel became a pure religion, different from the materialistic and coarse doctrines of the East. He will show us, in his history of the Jews, how a religion which at first did not differ much from that of Ammon or of Moab, became purified, and how the scene of the world became prepared for the apparition of Christ.

Let us return, however, to the end of this great work, and see how Christianity, two centuries after Christ, had a sort of rival in the philosophy of Marcus Aurelius. It is no exaggeration to say that Antoninus and his successor, Marcus Aurelius, represented on the imperial throne the maximum of virtue of which humanity is capable when it follows the dictates of reason and of conscience. The principle of adoption produced this admirable succession of sovereigns, and it is not to be wondered at if Renan places this principle above the principle of heredity, which afterward founded all the monarchies of the middle ages. The throne ceased to become a property, a right; it became a duty—the Emperor accepted his weight of responsibility with a sort of resignation.

When Antoninus, on his deathbed, ordered that the statue of Fortune should be carried into the room of his successor, his successor had already measured, from the heights of his Stoic philosophy, the value of all human greatness. He had been brought up as a philosopher; his life was as regular as that of a monk. His moral nature had been purified; he was almost humble. He looked upon vice with pity, thinking that vice was chastised by itself. He meditated incessantly upon the duties of man to man. "He only lacked decision," says Renan, "on one point: he never dared to deny supernaturalism. To be sure, we share in his fear of atheism; we understand what he means when he speaks of his horror for a world without a God and a Providence, but what we do not understand so well is, that he should speak seriously of God's intervening in human affairs by 'special providences.' The weakness of his scientific education explains such an error."

As a sovereign, Marcus Aurelius was a Liberal, in the modern sense of the word; he respected men, he did not wish to impose even what he thought right by force. He was a republican at heart; he admitted the principle now developed by the socialistic school, as well as by the Chancellor of Germany, that the state, as such, has distinct and paternal duties toward all its members. He was not an economist, and understood that the struggle for life must make victims, and he was not willing to leave these victims uncared for on the battle-field. He did more for public assistance than any other Emperor—for the sick, for children, for slaves, for women. He was desirous of making an end of the hideous scenes of the Roman amphitheatre, but he could not do it. "You may," says La Bruyère, "alter all the laws of the state, and rob the citizens of all their rights and liberties; but do not attempt to change the signboards of the shops." The world was now governed by the philosophers, and Plato might have been satisfied. The Greeks had conquered Rome in their turn; their noble and generous ideas had entered into the blood of the cruel and materialistic Latins. Rusticus the philosopher was the friend and adviser of the Emperor. Ill-kempt, ill-shaved philosophers, in dirty and almost ragged tunics, coming from Greece, from Syria, from all parts of the world, were seen in the public places of Rome, full of the pride of cynicism and of philosophy. They were great place-hunters, and their ambition, ill concealed under high phrases, offended the old consular families.

Philosophy was assuming the character of a religion, or rather of a sect:

"It had its preachers, its missionaries, its directors of conscience, its casuists. The great personages kept in their society a familiar philosopher, who was their friend, their monitor, the guardian of their souls. The first condition of the new profession was a venerable demeanor, a fine beard, a certain way of wearing the toga. . . . Before dying, people talked with some wise man, as we now call in a priest to give to our last moments a moral and religious character. Julius Canus goes to his execution accompanied by his philosopher; Thrasea dies assisted by the Cynic Demetrius."

The philosophers were especially the mentors of the emperors. They took upon themselves the part which the Jesuits took in our time in Spain, in France, in Italy. The progress of the philosophical school marked, it must be acknowledged, the decadence of the Latin world. It ushered in the Byzantine and Greek Renaissance. It was, in many senses, fatal to Rome: it enervated it, weakened the old military spirit, effaced the Latin pride, made Rome less imperial. It did for Rome what the progress of humanitarianism and of liberalism may one day do for Great Britain. In this way philosophy may be said to have paved the way for the triumph of Christianity: Marcus Aurelius paved the way for Constantine.

Officially, Philosophy was hostile to Christianity. The Christians were looked upon as fanatics. Marcus Aurelius had little regard for them; he considered them as Jews, and the Romans were very anti-Semitic. He admired the courage of the martyrs, but he was shocked by their triumphal way of dying; the Stoics had taught him that man must bear pain and death, but not look and search for it. He did not change the laws with regard to the Christians, though he did his best to destroy their effect by great severity toward those who denounced the Christians falsely. Tertullian praises his goodness and generosity.

Rome, under Marcus Aurelius, was at the height of its material greatness. It was the capital of the Christian church. The reconciliation of Peter and of Paul had taken place; the church of Peter was admitted to be the cornerstone. Till the reign of Constantine, all dissensions within the Church were ended by the arbitration of Rome. The Greek word "Catholic" was probably first used in Rome in application to the Church. Other churches in the East, in Greece, worked more for the dogma; Rome did everything for the discipline—it made Catholicism. I will not attempt to give a history of the Church in this second century; you must read in Renan what concerns the theological development of the time. It is a dark and confused history, which, even under his magic pen, preserves much obscurity and a certain dulness. The most distinct trait, the final effect, is the triumph of the episcopal principle in the Christian Church. There are parts of this history which it is difficult to analyze—I mean the relations created between the two sexes by the new religion. Montanism created a certain sort of asceticism which was not without its dangers: "The Montanist," says Renan, "kept stirring the cinders under which always lie dormant fires. The precautions which they took prove a certain preoccupation which is in reality more lascivious than the liberty of the man of the world."

The early novels inspired by these Montanistic ideas are a curious mixture of chastity and of sensuality.

"Chastity," writes Renan, "is an indulgence, and shame is one of the forms of love. The men who fear women are generally those who love them best. How often can we not say to the ascetic: 'Fallit te incautum pietas tua.' In many parts of the Christian community the notion often reappeared that women ought never to be seen; that their life ought to be a life of seclusion, after the fashion which has prevailed in the Mussulman world. It is easy to see that, if such a thought had prevailed, the character of the Church would have been altered. What distinguishes, indeed, the Church from the mosque, and even from the synagogue, is the fact that woman enters the Church freely, as man does."

The Catholic Church did not make a separate place for women, and even gave them some functions in the Church. The pagans saw this confusion of the sexes with a low feeling of irony:

"The legend," says Renan, "shows the pagans jealous of the privilege which the priest enjoys of seeing a moment in her baptismal nudity those whom the holy immersion will make his spiritual sisters. What shall we say of the 'holy embrace' [Saint Paul], which was the ambrosia of this chaste generation, which was a sacrament of strength and of love, and the memory of which, mixed up with the grave impressions of the eucharistic act, filled the soul for many days with a sort of perfume? Why was the Church so beloved that, in order to reënter it after they had left it, men faced even death? Because she was a school of infinite joy. Jesus really was, among his disciples, even a hundred years after his death, still the master of exquisite delights, the initiator of transcendent secrets."

Let us return to Marcus Aurelius. He saw that the real danger of the Empire was not in the East, but across the Rhine and the Danube. He did not like war; nevertheless a great part of his life was spent in insipid campaigns against the Quadi and the Marcomanni. He delivered Pannonia, and drove back the barbarians to the left side of the Danube. After having spent the whole day with his army, he spent the evening alone in his tent and philosophized. He read the 'Conversations of Epictetus,' by Arrian; he wrote his 'Thoughts' on his tablets.

"Men look for solitary retreats, for rustic huts, sea-shores, mountains; like everybody, you too like to think of such things. What folly, since you can, at any instant, retire into your own soul. Nowhere has man a more tranquil retreat."

The 'Thoughts' of Marcus Aurelius are not lessons of philosophy—they have nothing dogmatic; they are merely the effusion of a delicate, generous, and noble soul, full of a truly Christian charity and love for all men. Marcus Aurelius has no definite ideas on any point.

"Our good Emperor," says Renan, "was in advance of many centuries. He never cared to be consistent with himself on such subjects as the soul or God. As if he had read the 'Critique of Pure Reason,' he saw well that as soon as we deal with the infinite there is no absolute formula, and that in such matters our only chance of having once perceived the truth is to have often been in contradiction with ourselves. He sepa-

rated moral beauty from any fixed theology; he did not link duty with any metaphysical opinion or primary cause. Never was the intimate union with the unknown Good carried to such extraordinary delicacies."

"Offer," says Marcus Aurelius, "to the God who is within thee a man, made serious by age; a friend of the public good; a Roman; an Emperor; a soldier at his post, waiting for the signal of the trumpet; a man ready to leave life without a regret." The 'Thoughts' are full of such sentences, stamped, like medals, with a certain Roman rigidity. Can we wonder if the early painters of the Renaissance always made a place in their compositions for some of these wise men of antiquity?

FRENCH AND ENGLISH TENDENCIES IN EGYPT.

ALEXANDRIA, November 23, 1881.

THE excitement about the press has somewhat subsided, at least for the time, though the peace brought about is rather of that kind which the Roman historians described as the result of desolating victories. The finale of M. Laffon, the editor of *L'Égypte*, was dramatic, and, owing to the destitution of public news, of which the suppression of that paper was at once the symbol and the climax, it was difficult for a time to disentangle the real facts. It seems, however, undeniable that either the objectionable passage in the paper, or—as is not improbable—the gross and ignorant translations of it into the Arab papers, led to the antipathy to the editor felt in religious circles in Cairo taking the form of an organized conspiracy. The result was that the French Government was appealed to by M. Laffon to intervene for his protection against personal outrage. The Egyptian Government, however, professed themselves unable to guarantee his security against secret violence, and he finally consented within two or three days of the suppression of the paper to leave by the Messageries' boat for Marseilles. He was conveyed, with an escort of soldiers, to the steamboat, and detained in his cabin till its departure. It is alleged that when the boat left, at two o'clock, a salute was fired from guns in different quarters to give notice that the enemy of the faith had quitted the country, and that the faithful might desist from further research. I give the facts as they were told me by a trustworthy person who heard the guns, and had informed himself satisfactorily as to their occasion.

The result of all this has been a miserable impoverishment of the daily press. Most of the papers are either in the pay of the Government or are hoping and trying to become so. The English organ, the *Egyptian Gazette*, takes the prudent course of transcribing *literatim* from the *Pall Mall* and the *Saturday Review* long articles on Egyptian subjects. The cholera at Mecca, which has been really a matter of serious concern to the consular authorities here, and has given rise to drawersful of correspondence between agents of all sorts with a view to restricting its spread without unduly interfering with commerce and locomotion, has supplied a tolerably innocent subject for occasional paragraphs.

Lord Granville's despatch of the 4th of November to Sir Edward Malet, the British Consul-General, is a document of considerable importance for those who are practised in reading between the broad lines and courteous generalizations of diplomatic compositions. The despatch was first known to the English public here through the translations in the French and Italian press, and it was only a day or two ago that it appeared in its original form in the English organ. It has been remarked that, lengthy and tolerably precise as it is, there is no allusion to the concert with France till the last two clauses are reached, when the subject appears to be dragged in just because it would be indecent to leave it out. On the other hand, one main argument used throughout by Lord Granville is that all further foreign intervention is to be avoided, and that the best means of obviating temptations to it, or the necessity for it, is to support the existing connection between Egypt and Turkey. Lord Granville further expresses himself as wholly opposed to the extension of the jurisdiction of the mixed tribunals to business in which only natives of the country are concerned. On the other hand, he urges the development of native tribunals and the reorganization of native procedure generally. All this is adverse to the direction in which French influence has been habitually exerted. The following passage of the despatch deserves to be quoted in full:

"The only circumstance which could force us to depart from the course of conduct which I have above indicated would be the occurrence in Egypt of a state of anarchy. We look to the Khedive and to Sherif Pasha and to the good sense of the Egyptian people to prevent such a catastrophe; and they, on their part, may rest assured that so long as Egypt continues in the path of tranquil and legitimate progress, it will be the earnest desire of Her Majesty's Government to contribute to so happy a result."

The organization of the native tribunals, so far as outward form goes, is proceeding rapidly, and the decree of the Khedive having reference to it was signed on the 17th of September. Any one who reads the official journal, the *Moniteur Égyptien*, will learn that the Egyptian Government has this at least in common with the suzerain authority, the Turkish Government, that it has considerable literary power at its disposal for the purpose of drawing up state documents and giving a plausible appearance of elaborateness and prevision, and indeed of reasonable equity—on paper. According to this decree, there are to be tribunals "of first instance" in Cairo, Alexandria, and the chief towns of all the provinces of the country, as well as in those of the Sudan. There are to be two Courts of Appeal, at Cairo and Alexandria respectively, as well as a "Court of Revision" at Cairo. The Courts of First Instance are to be presided over by five judges each, the Courts of Appeal by eight judges each, and the Court of Revision by ten judges. The policy of throwing the weight of British influence into the organization of these tribunals, and against the extension of the jurisdiction of the international tribunals, is much criticised here, and, I am myself disposed to think, rightly. Of course, to an English or an American eye, looking superficially, nothing seems more plausible or attractive than the process of calling into life local and indigenous institutions. But what if the seed of life is not there, or if the salt has lost its savor? Surely, to keep up, as the Turkish Empire has been doing, again and again, time out of mind, the appearance of a vitality which it has not, is a sort of second death, because it puts off, by concealing the real facts, the acquisition of a true life. I fear that the Egyptian Administration has been too long corrupted by Turkish dishonesty and by Mohammedan inertness to revive at the mere call of a Khedivial decree and the patronage of a British Minister. The best hope for the administration of justice throughout Egypt would be found in associating it at as many points as possible with the best procedure and the highest judicial morality to be found in England, America, and Europe. These are not unfairly, although as yet inadequately, represented together in the mixed international tribunals, and nowhere else in Egypt.

With respect to the prospects for the next few months in Egypt, it is thought things are likely for the present to remain as they are. Europeans in high office in Cairo and in Alexandria are making arrangements for their families to join them, and every ship brings fresh accessions of the best kind to Egyptian winter society. If the interview, reported at great length in the European press here, between the American Consul-General here and Ourabi Bey is a genuine record of the strange conversation it describes, it would seem that this notorious chief of the modern Prætorian Guard has retired into himself for a time, to meditate on the novel doctrines with which the Consul-General has imbued him, as to universal and compulsory education being the sole ground of hope for Egypt, as it was for America. A.

Correspondence.

REASONABLE DOUBT AS TO INSANITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the article upon "The Guiteau Case," in your last number, you say: "Supposing at the end of the trial the jury, as reasonable men, entertained a doubt whether at the time of the killing Guiteau was or was not sane, would he be entitled to an acquittal? As to this the law is decidedly in the prisoner's favor. A reasonable doubt as to insanity is a reasonable doubt as to guilt."

Such is not the law in England, or in the majority of our States. The prisoner is required to prove his insanity to the satisfaction of the jury, either "by a preponderance of the evidence" or "beyond a reasonable doubt."

In New Hampshire, Indiana, Illinois, and Alabama the law is as you have stated it, and Judge Blodgett, of the Illinois district, charged the jury to the same effect; but in general the Federal Courts have laid down the English rule. Judge Curtis, in the Massachusetts district, and Judge Clifford, in the Maine district, have ruled that the prisoner's insanity must be clearly proved to the satisfaction of the jury.

The current of authority, therefore, appears to be against the rule laid down in the *Nation*.

Yours respectfully, R. S. H.

PHILADELPHIA, Nov. 28, 1881.

[In saying that "the law" was in the prisoner's favor, we had in mind not so much the numerical weight of authority, which is often misleading, as the principles of criminal justice which underlie the cases. Our correspondent greatly understates the weight of authority in favor of the proposition which he quotes. The States in which the courts have held that a reasonable doubt as to the prisoner's sanity entitles him to an acquittal are New Hampshire, Nebraska, Tennessee, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, New York, and North Carolina (there seems to be some question as to Alabama). A full list is given in Grinnell's 'Points of Law for Lawyers and General Readers Suggested by Guiteau's Case.' Wherever the matter is *res nova*, the rule that the jury is bound to acquit if they have a doubt as to the sanity of the prisoner, is likely to commend itself to any court which has to pass upon the question. The prosecution must make out its case, and the burden of showing guilt is on the State throughout. The guilt depends upon the act and the intent; and if the evidence as

a whole leaves the jury in doubt as to a criminal intent, there is a failure of proof. The prisoner is undoubtedly entitled to a charge on the subject of "reasonable doubt" with regard to his guilt; but suppose he admits the killing, and alleges insanity, does he lose this right, and does the State suddenly get the benefit of it? This can hardly be. The principles which govern criminal trials seem to us decidedly in favor of the rule that a reasonable doubt as to insanity is a reasonable doubt as to guilt.—Ed. Nation.]

THE FEES OF DISTRICT ATTORNEYS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your reference to the annual report of the Attorney-General (*Nation*, No. 858, page 441), you justly criticise the abuse of their office often made by U. S. District Attorneys. Allow me to note another method of abuse which has come under my observation. At every term of a U. S. District Court there appears on the docket a large number of cases against persons charged with violations of the revenue laws. In nearly every case the defendant finds it cheaper to pay the penalty of the law than to contest the case, the offenders generally being of such a class as not to be morally affected by the stigma of a conviction. In such a case two courses are open to him: he may plead guilty or he may consent to a verdict. Thereupon it is customary for the District Attorney to recommend such penalty as he may adjudge best, and the Court enters judgment for that amount without further examination. The District Attorney's fees are regulated by the number of trials and convictions, and it is to his interest, therefore, to have the defendant consent to a verdict rather than plead guilty. He takes a peculiar mode to advance his interests. When a defendant pleads guilty, he recommends a fine of $100; but if he consents to a verdict, he recommends a fine of $10 and costs, the kind-hearted and "benevolent" District Attorney placing the fine very low because the defendant is penitent and sorry for the offence, and because his own fees are taxed with the costs. Here is an abuse which might be cured by paying district attorneys a salary, and which would lead them to recommend a just fine in all cases. W.

December 12, 1881.

OUR SURPLUS REVENUE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In many respects our national finances are now in a situation very similar to that of 1828–1832. Nearly two decades of high-tariff rates, during a portion of which a system of internal revenue was in operation, had brought the country to a time when the extinguishment of its war debt was a matter of the near future, while the revenues which had been mostly absorbed in its liquidation were constantly increasing. The same problem presented itself then as now: "What shall be done with the surplus revenue?" Two answers were given to it. One party said, "Reduce the revenue"; the other, "Apply the surplus to internal improvements." Those favoring the reduction of the revenue were divided into two factions: the first favored reducing the revenue by the common-sense method of diminishing the taxes; the second wished to reduce it by increasing the taxes—*i.e.*, by raising the tariff rates to such a height as to amount to virtual prohibition of importation, when of course all revenue would cease. The same tendencies are discernible at the present time. Several of the delegates to the recent Tariff Convention at Chicago insisted that an increase in the tariff rates would be necessary to prevent that bugbear of all good citizens, a plethoric treasury. The Burnside Bill before the last Congress provided for the distribution of the surplus revenue among the States for the purpose of promoting the cause of education. The revenue reformers favor a reduction of the revenue by abolishing our protective tariff in favor of a revenue tariff adjusted to provide the necessary income.

The present problem could not probably be solved, as the former one was, by a compromise tariff and a commercial crisis, even if it were desirable it should be so solved. No one who has taken any pains to acquaint himself with the real reasons which impel Western farmers to support a protective tariff, can hope that any change can be produced in their views within any very short period of time. Even the farm-hand of Illinois votes and talks for a protective tariff because a revenue tariff, by allowing great manufacturing interests to perish, would let loose a vast horde of Eastern factory operatives, who would then come pouring into the West, and by their competition lower the wages of farm laborers! With such a man, the argument that he has to pay more for clothes, etc., in order to keep the operative at work, has no effect, for he regards this extra amount as the price he has to pay to prevent a ruinous competition in his own calling. I think that free-traders underrate very greatly the public sentiment in favor of protection. The West is no longer the free-trade stronghold it once was, and we must take this fact into consideration in laying our plans for the future. It is still in favor of free trade, or rather of a revenue tariff, if the question could be presented to it free from complication with other questions; but the protectionists will take good care that this shall never be done. We conclude, then, that the tariff men have the inside track for the present, and if any reduction be made in taxation, it will probably be so made as not to interfere essentially with the "protective" character of the tariff. E. J. J.

Normal, Ill., Dec. 5, 1881.

FREE SHIPS AND FREE TRADE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir:—

"We contend not only that ships should be relieved of local taxation, but that foreign articles which enter into the construction of a ship should be free of duty."

This seems to be one of the few points wherein the *Nation* and my humble self agree with the tariff laws of the United States. Section 2513 of the Revised Statutes reads as follows:

"All lumber, timber, hemp, manila, and iron and steel rods, bars, spikes, nails, and bolts, and copper and composition metal which may be necessary for the construction and equipment of vessels built in the United States for the purpose of being employed in the foreign trade, including the trade between the Atlantic and Pacific ports of the United States, and finished after the 6th day of June, 1872, may be imported in bond, under such regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe; and upon proof that such materials have been used for such purpose, no duties shall be paid thereon. But vessels receiving the benefit of this section shall not be allowed to engage in the coastwise trade of the United States more than two months in any one year, except upon the payment to the United States of the duties on which a rebate is herein allowed."

Now, it is evident that there is something lacking in our ship-builders that they do not avail themselves more freely of the liberality expressed in the above act. They are certainly patriotic gentlemen, and are eager to give "remunerative employment to American labor." Is it because our merchants do not possess that eagerness to the same degree when a question of profit and loss is concerned? It seems they refuse to buy ships from our ship-builders while their shipping can be done by foreigners at much less cost to them than in bottoms waving the American flag. Unless we revert to the old system of government, raising taxes by roasting and tooth-pulling, I can see no means by which our shippers can be brought to engage in the carrying-trade of the world except by giving them all the elbow-room they need and which the foreigner has. Unless we can buy and sell wherever we please, and consular charges and other iniquities are abolished, I doubt whether even free ships will make the Stars and Stripes wave from many mastheads of the steam-ferries of the ocean.

Respectfully yours, J. Schoenhof.

New York, Dec. 16, 1881.

ENGLISH APPROPRIATION OF AN AMERICAN BOOK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Much has been said in time past by our cousins across the water about American literary theft, but it is doubtful if a more glaring disregard of the eighth commandment was ever exhibited by any cisatlantic writer than that shown in the wholesale appropriation by an English editor of Mr. John D. Champlin, jr.'s 'Young Folks' Cyclopædia of Common Things.' This little work, which was commended by the *Nation* on its publication in this country two years ago, has just appeared in London, under the imprint of Kegan Paul, Trench & Co., with the following title: 'The Little Cyclopædia of Common Things, edited by Rev. Sir George W. Cox, Bart., M.A.' There is not the remotest reference to the American author; and though it is stated in the preface that the substance may be found in an "American edition," care is taken to lead the reader to suppose that the changes have been so "considerable, and in some cases important," as to make almost a new work of it.

A thorough comparison of the two books shows that the *considerable* changes amount to the omission of a few titles essentially American, such as Bluefish, Cent, Scup, and Yellow Bird, and the addition of a few (essentially English?), almost to be counted on one's fingers. Among the latter are those very common "common things," Aryan Languages, Augurs (Roman soothsayers), and Auto da Fé. Among the changes probably considered *important* are the careful erasure of the name of Washington from the cut of the Washington printing-press; the ignoring of the name of Hoe in connection with the Web Perfecting Printing-Press (though, by some strange oversight of the editor, the words "R. Hoe & Co., New York," have not been scratched out of the electrotype); the suppression of the account of the American trotting-horse, though sufficient space has been found for that peculiar American implement, the terror of all British tourists, the bowie-knife; and the substitution of the Armstrong for the Rodman gun, though, by another serious editorial oversight, the title "Rodman Gun" is left as in the original, and made to do duty under the Armstrong picture. Indeed, with a few exceptions, of which the above are samples, the work is a reprint, almost word for word, of the American book. As an example of the Rev. Sir George's capacity for the instruction of youth, the following sentence is submitted, taken from his article on the common thing, Aryan Languages:

"They all belong to the inflexional stage of languages, which admit of phonetic corruption, both in the principal root and in the terminations; and they are therefore called organic or amalgamating languages, to distinguish them from the agglutinative languages of the Tura-

nian family of speech, which allow phonetic corruption only in the secondary elements—that is, in the suffixes and terminations—while the main root remains intact, as the needs of a nomadic population constantly changing their abode would require."

If this is a fair specimen of the educational food prepared at home for the average British youth of ten, one need not wonder that it should be found necessary to appropriate American books; but common courtesy would suggest at least an acknowledgment of the debt.

FAIR PLAY.

Notes.

MR. GEORGE WILLIS COOKE, whose work on Mr. Emerson we recently noticed, is engaged upon "a fuller historic account of the *Dial*, with biographic sketches of those of its contributors who are otherwise unknown to the public," as complete a list as possible of writers and their several contributions, and an index. Any person capable of furnishing assistance in any of these particulars may address Mr. Cooke, at West Dedham, Mass.——Charles Scribner's Sons will publish an 'Historical Outline of the English Constitution, for Beginners,' by David Watson Rannie.——E. & J. B. Young & Co. will shortly have ready the 'Letters, Literary and Theological, of the late Bishop Thirlwall,' in two vols., the second having been edited by the late Dean Stanley.——A. C. Armstrong & Son have put their imprint on the Rev. John Stoughton's 'Religion in England, from the Opening of the Long Parliament to the End of the Eighteenth Century,' an elaborate work in six volumes, devoted respectively to the Church of the Civil War, of the Commonwealth, of the Restoration (2 vols.), of the Revolution, and of the Georgian Era. Among the Nonconformists Dr. Stoughton represents perhaps the best type of orthodoxy, being learned, temperate, and cultivated as well as liberal, and greatly respected outside as well as inside his communion. His History, like his character, has received very striking testimonials of esteem from liberal Churchmen.——Harper & Bros. have begun the publication of a 'Harper's *Young People* Series,' consisting of stories and other serials that have already appeared in their juvenile weekly.——Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati, announce for January, 1882, the 'St. Clair Papers,' edited by Wm. Henry Smith, a work in two volumes, based on the papers formerly in possession of the descendants of Major-General Arthur St. Clair, and which were purchased by the State of Ohio. The correspondence of Washington and the chief military leaders of the Revolution embraced in them has never been published. The second volume is entirely devoted to the affairs of the Northwestern Territory, and covers the formation and adoption of the Ordinance of 1787. New light is shed even on such events as the campaign on the Delaware in 1776-77, and the evacuation of Ticonderoga in the latter year.——J. B. Lippincott & Co. have added to their invaluable 'Dictionary of Biography and Mythology' a necrological table of some 2,000 names of persons noticed who have died since the publication of the work. It would be well to offer this for sale separately, for the benefit of owners of earlier editions. The same firm have in press 'Memoirs of Old Friends,' being extracts from the journals and letters of Caroline Fox, of Penjerrick, Cornwall, 1835-71, edited by Horace N. Pym; and 'Studies in Mediæval History,' by Charles J. Stillé.——Something of the astronomer's joy "when a new planet swims into his ken" was that of Dr. Henry M. Dexter when, having come upon an incidental allusion to a lost tract by Roger Williams, he after many years found the tract in the British Museum overlooked and unrecorded in a bound volume with others. He copied it exactly, and now reprints it, with all but facsimile fidelity, as No. 14 of the Rhode Island Historical Tracts (Providence: S. S. Rider). This 'Christenings Make not Christians' is an argument against wholesale conversion of the heathen, originally published in 1645-6. Some inedited letters of Roger Williams's, cogently setting forth his uncomfortable relations with Wm. Harris, are added.——Mr. Edward A. Freeman's two lectures in Providence last week, on South-Eastern Europe, Past and Present, enabled the librarians of the Brown University, Public, and Athenæum libraries to follow the example of the Peabody Institute by getting out a list of supplementary reading, with references to works to be found in their respective collections. It is therefore reasonable to hope that this useful practice will take root among us, and perhaps end by furnishing the public a test of lectures worth listening to.——A modest pamphlet, quite in keeping with the character of its subject, has just been published in Charleston, S. C., by the family of the late Francis Kinloch Huger, giving an account (from the family tradition) of his famous attempt in connection with J. E. Bollman to rescue Lafayette from the prison of Olmütz. Readers of Dr. Kapp's Life of Bollman (reviewed in No. 779 of the *Nation*) will be interested in this brochure, which lacks, however, any publisher's imprint.——A few loiterers among the children's books may hastily be dismissed here. 'Sugar and Spice, and All that's Nice' (Strahan & Co.) is a pretty successful imitation of Kate Greenaway's style of illustration, and if the metre of the verses were equal to the conceits, the total result would be unimpeachable. 'At Home' (Marcus Ward & Co.) belongs in the same class, but is more formal. Mrs. Molesworth's 'Adventures of Herr Baby' (Macmillan) may safely be taken on trust. Walter Crane furnishes the pictures. 'Milly and Olly' (Macmillan), by Mrs. T. H. Ward, attracts by reason of Mrs. Alma-Tadema's name on the title-page as artist; but the young lady crossing the stepping-stones is the most striking of her designs. 'Peter Parley's Annual for 1882' (Cassell) is composed of stories by each of the personages in the counting-out formula—"Tinker, tailor, sailor, rich man, poor man, ploughboy, thief."——A correspondent, who does not think it a "striking fact" that the late Professor Benjamin Peirce had at least twenty-five ancestors, heads of families, known to have settled in New England before 1663 and mostly before 1640, sends us proof of a still more striking fact. He can boast thirty-eight ancestors, heads of families, who settled in New England before 1660, and were all immigrants, to say nothing of several who were natives.

— The Wisconsin Academy of Sciences, Arts, and Letters, has lately published a valuable article by W. F. Allen, Professor of History and Latin in the University of Wisconsin, on "The English Cottagers of the Middle Ages," showing that this class of tenants in the thirteenth century was really made up of various groups, some of free and some of servile origin. The former usually lived in villes, among customary and freehold tenants, while the servile cottagers lived on their lord's demesne land in little hamlets, like the negro quarters of a Southern plantation. The article is a continuation of Prof. Allen's earlier studies upon the origin of freeholders and customary tenants, in which he showed that the latter class were the true historical representatives of the primitive village community, and that freeholders were of feudal origin, thus controverting the views of Sir Henry Maine, who maintains in his work on 'Village Communities' (p. 137) that freeholders of tenemental lands correspond to the free heads of households in the ancient Teutonic village. Another paper by Professor Allen, published in the transactions of the American Philological Association, 1880, is a discussion of the military operations of the Romans in the battle of Mons Graupius, by which the conquest of northern Britain was completed by Agricola as described in his life by Tacitus (chapters 35-37.) The battle occurred not far from the Frith of Forth, and not on the Grampian Hills, which are fifty miles to the northward. It is curious that this latter region, where Norval's father fed his flocks, should have owed its name to a false reading of Tacitus, *ad montem Grampium*, for *Graupium*. The Grampian Hills were not so called before the fifteenth century, but ever since that unwarrantable baptism geographers have been looking in the above mountainous region in general for a particular "Mons Grampius," as though Agricola could have gained a victory in the Highlands, where he would certainly have found a Killiecrankie.

—The second volume of the 'Calendar of Virginia State Papers and other Manuscripts, preserved in the Capitol at Richmond,' has been recently published under the editorial supervision of Dr. William P. Palmer, aided by Sherwin McRae, the State Librarian. The present volume (729 small quarto pages) embraces the archives of Virginia from April 1, 1781, to December 31, 1781, which was practically the closing period of the American Revolution. This timely publication, accompanying the Yorktown centenary, is a worthy and enduring State monument. The work of arranging these archives was begun by Dr. Palmer, by authority of the General Assembly of Virginia, as far back as 1872, and the first volume of his collections, from 1652 to March 31, 1781, was published in 1875, with a scholarly introduction explaining the character of the published documents and their bearing upon the history of Virginia. Dr. Palmer's manuscript collections extend to May 31, 1791. His health has been the price of his assiduity. It is interesting to note the effect of example in the publication of original records. One State or municipality follows the lead of another. The Calendar of Virginia State Papers was suggested by the English Calendar of State Papers. Probably all similar undertakings in the United States were, directly or indirectly, the outgrowth of English precedent. The English Record Commission was quickened into activity by the example of the 'Monumenta Germaniæ Historica,' edited by G. H. Pertz and a society of German scholars. The origin of this truly monumental work, upon which historians are still building, and which, like the Cologne Cathedral, unites mediæval and modern Germany, is due to that old knight of the German empire, and liberator of Prussia, the Freiherr vom Stein, who in his retirement at Nassau undertook to give lectures on ancient German history to his daughter and a little class of girls. Experiencing the difficulty of furnishing adequate information to his bright young pupils, the venerable statesman began to realize modern Germany's need of a national collection of historical sources, such as Muratori had made for Italy and such as Mabillon and the Benedictines had made for France. With these concrete examples in mind, Vom Stein bestirred himself and put into execution a plan which had been proposed by Leibnitz long before his contemporary Muratori had begun his Italian collection. Leibnitz, although unable to carry out his scheme of national publication, actually edited (1707-1711) the 'Scriptores Rerum Brunsvicensium,' from which the 'Origines Guelficæ' afterward sprang—sources to which England and Germany now turn

as to a common fountain. But Leibnitz undoubtedly derived his larger plan from earlier compilations of a more or less national character, like André Duchesne's 'Historiæ Francorum Scriptores' (begun in 1636), and Mabillon's 'Acta Sanctorum Ordinis Sancti Benedicti' (even the saints were treated as national), the 'Magdeburg Centuries,' representing Protestant Germany, and Baronius's 'Annales Ecclesiastici,' representing Catholic Italy. The germs of all such collections, however, lay deeper yet, in the zeal of the Italian humanists, like Poggio and Pope Pius II., for collecting manuscripts, and in the fondness of schoolmen, like St. Thomas Aquinas, for gathering citations and amassing encyclopedic wisdom.

—The example of old England and of her Old Dominion has now made itself felt in the State of Maryland. Stimulated by the sight of the 'Calendar of Virginia State Papers,' and influenced by the words of Drs. Edward A. Freeman and James Bryce, representatives in historical literature the one of the 'Eastern Empire,' the other of the 'Holy Roman Empire,' the Maryland Historical Society has addressed a memorial to the General Assembly of the State, craving the transfer of the Colonial and Revolutionary archives from Annapolis to Baltimore, and an annual appropriation to the Society for the purpose of a systematic publication of State records. The memorial is supported by the leading men of Baltimore, and will probably receive favorable attention from the State of Maryland. Appended to this memorial are the written opinions of Messrs. Freeman and Bryce in regard to the historical importance of such a publication as is now proposed. Mr. Freeman, after emphasizing the special value of the Maryland records, some of which he appears to have seen, concludes as follows:

"During the short time that I have been in America, I have been more and more impressed by the deep interest of the early history of all these lands, first as provinces, then as independent States. Each State has in the most marked way its own character, and gives some special kind of instruction in comparative political history. The local annals of Maryland or of any other State are something more than mere local history, something more than part of the history of the United States or of the whole English-speaking people. They are really contributions to the general science of politics—no less than the lessons which we should have had if Aristotle's comments on the kindred commonwealths of old Greece had been spared to us."

—The last catalogue of Smith College, for young women (Official Circular No. 8, Northampton, Mass., October, 1881), shows a rapidity of development in this institution comparable only to the growth of a new city in the far West. The college, not founded in the interest of any religious denomination, and entirely undenominational in its management and instruction, was incorporated by the State with full power to grant such honors, degrees, and diplomas as are granted by any university or college in the United States. In appearance, the course of instruction does not suffer by comparison with that of any of the New England colleges; and, while it is necessary to specify the minimum of work which will be accepted as satisfactory, experience has taught the Faculty the greater necessity of specifying the maximum limit beyond which students will not be allowed to assume extra work—a condition of things which, in such institutions generally, does not unduly tax the interference-prerogatives of collegiate officers. Of a total of 265 students, there are resident graduates, 1; pupils in the school of music, 20; in the school of art, 7; and the rapid increase of the number of students in the college proper is evident from the class distribution of the remainder—seniors, 42; juniors, 53; second class, 60; first class, 82. The State representation shows a wide distribution throughout the Union, but almost exactly one-half are from Massachusetts. The college Faculty proper numbers 22 instructors.——The catalogue of Amherst College, recently issued, exhibits a number of changes in the Faculty and the courses of instruction. The Stone Professorship of Biology appears for the first time; the chair is, however, not yet filled, the work of that department being at present performed by Mr. Tyler, a son of the Senior Professor of Greek. Dr. Henshaw, formerly of Easthampton, appears as lecturer on Natural Philosophy. Mr. Elwell, late a pupil of Professor Whitney, will give a course in Sanskrit, elective during the two latter terms of the senior year. Mr. Garman assists the President in Mental and Moral Philosophy. Mr. Todd, formerly of the Nautical Almanac Office, Washington, has charge of the Observatory and the department of Astronomy. A new elective in Anglo-Saxon is available during two terms of the Sophomore year. Of the 343 students of this college, also, nearly one-half are from Massachusetts. The Class Gymnastic Prize, formerly given by Mr. Washburn, of New York, is now maintained by Mr. Gilbert, of Cincinnati, and new prizes in heavy gymnastics have been established by Mr. Ladd, of Oregon. The Triennial Catalogue of the graduates of the college is, following Harvard's example, to be replaced by a quinquennial edition—the first issue falling in the year 1883.

—In the *Medical News and Abstract* for November, Dr. Wm. Hunt, the Senior Surgeon to the Pennsylvania Hospital, carefully criticises President Garfield's case, in response to the direct request of medical friends. After making the point that during its progress the case was "most uncourteously, if not unprofessionally, appropriated, through the newspapers, by some surgeons as their own," and that it belonged to them only as to all other citizens not in possession of all the facts, but that since its termination and the official publication of the autopsy it is a fair subject for comment, he first quotes two paragraphs from Dr. Hamilton's 'Military Surgery,' published in 1865. These most clearly describe the nature and the consequence of just such an injury as the President's, including the distinct statement that "it is not probable that we shall be able to diagnosticate such a case clearly during the life of a patient, and if we were able to do so we do not see what benefit could be derived from any surgical operation." He then suggests that the deep significance of the nervous symptoms manifested immediately after the shooting was lost sight of too early in the case. These impressed him, as they probably did nine out of ten medical men, with the primary conviction that the spine was wounded. But when competent examiners having the case before them believed the liver penetrated, the absentees yielded to their judgment, and the consulting surgeons, in Dr. Hunt's opinion, did well in not reopening the wound. Had the liver been involved, nothing but evil could have ensued. To follow the course of the ball at the time Drs. Agnew and Hamilton first saw the case would have been practically impossible from the swelling of the tissues, and in the light of the autopsy it is explicable how the attending surgeons were primarily deceived. It requires familiarity with anatomy to understand the reasons in detail, but, as Dr. Hunt remarks, "the ball entered at a place which, if it had had consciousness and an intent to deceive, could not have been better selected in the whole body." The probe and finger doubtless did touch the liver or perhaps the kidney, and that without making a new track, but, owing to the anatomical peculiarity referred to, "the wound was one to deceive the very elect." The opening afterward made for the first abscess did drain the true as well as the mistaken sinus, and the spine was then examined, but its wound was "beyond the fingers, and a wise caution forbade the use of instruments." Dr. Hamilton's prophetic remarks are completely realized. The abscess found after death—that is, the one beyond the spine—was entirely shut off from the wound of entrance, and Dr. Hunt observes: "No method of diagnosis occurs to me by which its existence could have been determined during life," unless it grew large enough to bulge the superficial walls. In the light of the autopsy, physiology explains every symptom, but the theory during life explains nothing. But had the bullet been certainly made out, to have removed it would not have cured the damage. The bullet *per se* was comparatively harmless; it was its course through the body that wrought the mischief. Dr. Hunt adds: "It may be a mercy that an exact diagnosis was not made. The temptation to do something more than was done, if it had been made, would have been very great. Outside and inconsiderate pressure would have been clamorous. Whether it would have moved the steady heads in charge, I do not know; but if it had, I am confident the President would have been ready for his grave on the day of the operation." As to the essential character of the wound, "it is but a piece of special pleading to say it was not mortal." There are but two or three injuries that are directly fatal. In this case death followed the smallest serious injury, considering the extent of tissue involved. It was the aneurism of the splenic artery, but it was one that in its very nature could only go on to a fatal issue. Medical men may profitably study Dr. Hunt's complete paper, as well as another by him in the same issue on spinal shock, evidently inspired by the same catastrophe. Laymen may find in this epitome some of the bewildering fog lightened.

—Mr. Lewis H. Morgan, whose death at Rochester, N. Y., occurred on Saturday, after a brief illness following a long period of delicate health, was one of the most laborious, acute, and original of American scientists. With reference to our pre-Columbian antiquities he might for some time past have been called the Nestor of Indian ethnologists. A native of western New York, he early became interested in the neighboring remnant of the once mighty Six Nations, and gained a thorough insight into the political and military constitution of the confederacy, its manners and customs, and above all its curious system of tribal intermarriages. Together with some kindred inquiring spirits, he instituted, at the age of twenty-five, an Order or "New Confederacy" of the Iroquois—a sort of antiquarian society, having as a subsidiary aim the promotion of a kindlier feeling toward the red man; and before its "councils" in the years 1844, 5, and 6, he read a number of papers on the Iroquois, which, under the *nom de plume* of "Skenandoah," were published, as letters addressed to Albert Gallatin, in Cotton's *American Quarterly Review*, in 1847. From this source they were reprinted by Neville B. Craig, of Pittsburgh, in his monthly *Olden Time* (1848), and five years ago once more saw the light in Robert Clarke & Co.'s reprint of the latter periodical.

"These letters," wrote the author to a friend, in 1876, "contained in fact the first exposition of the social and governmental system of the Iroquois. Modesty, I suppose, kept me from signing my own name. In 1851 I published the 'League of the Iroquois,' which contains all the letters contain, uses a good deal of the same language and the same quotations: and I do not remember that I avowed these letters in the 'League,' as I ought to have done, to save myself from the charge of plagiarism."

This work at once put Mr. Morgan in the front rank of Indian authorities. A professional visit

to Lake Superior led him to observe an animal closely associated with the aborigines, and toward the close of 1867 he produced the 'American Beaver and his Works,' an exhaustive but highly readable monograph, in which, to use the words of the late Jeffries Wyman (*Nation*, February 27, 1868), Mr. Morgan, "with a zeal and patience worthy of Réaumur, the Hubers, or of Darwin, re-examined the whole subject and largely increased our knowledge," and which "justly entitled him to an honorable place in the higher ranks of original observers." The year following, in an article on the "Seven Cities of Cibola," in the *North American Review* (April, 1869), he struck a blow at the whole fabric of the theory of Indian civilization handed down by the Spaniards and embalmed by Prescott, and laid the foundations of the prevailing conception of the meaning of that communal architecture which was for centuries regarded as royal and palatial. It is proper to remark here that Mr. A. F. Bandelier, who, by the way, has lately been studying the same historical site of the Seven Cities, was a disciple of Mr. Morgan's, and has indeed done honor to his influence and warm friendship.

— In 1873 appeared among the Smithsonian Institution's Contributions to Science a quarto volume of some 700 pages, entitled 'Systems of Consanguinity and Affinity of the Human Family.' This was the first fruit of Mr. Morgan's discovery, while on his excursion to Lake Superior, that the system of marriage and relationship in the Six Nations was that of the American Indians generally, and his subsequent reflection that he had encountered a fundamental fact in the development of human society. Himself pursuing his investigations in person among the Western Indians, he sent out schedules of questions to missionaries and scholars in all parts of the globe, and constructed at last his masterly exhibition of unsuspected identity between the primitive institutions (of kinship) of the American Indians and the great Turanian and Malayan families, establishing also, beside their Classificatory system, the Descriptive, which we have derived from our Aryan forefathers. He afterward resumed the whole question in a popular manner in his 'Ancient Society, or Researches in the Line of Human Progress from Savagery through Barbarism into Civilization' (1877), which is unquestionably the most comprehensive study of the *gens* ever made, and one of the most important documents in support of the development theory. The 'League of the Iroquois,' the 'Systems of Consanguinity,' the 'Ancient Society,' and the 'American Beaver' are Mr. Morgan's *monumentum ære perennius*. His last work was among the pueblos of New Mexico, from the study of which he concluded that the Mound-builders were village Indians of New Mexican origin, and that the mounds were the platforms for their long wooden communal houses. These conclusions were published in the first report of the Archæological Institute of America (1880). On his deathbed he received his very latest printed work, 'Houses and House Life of the American Aborigines,' published by the Bureau of Ethnology of the Smithsonian Institution. Mr. Morgan's personal qualities had a peculiar charm, in which gentleness and unaffectedness were conspicuous. He was one of a group of learned and gifted men whom the University of Rochester naturally drew about it, and whose periodical meetings and constant coöperation maintained in that city an uncommon intellectual atmosphere. He will be greatly lamented by his associates and by his correspondents all over the world, and the *Nation* can after all pay but a feeble tribute to one who was its steadfast friend through good report and evil report, and a willing contributor whenever his strength and leisure permitted.

—In our issue of October 13 we gave a synopsis of Prof. Pettenkofer's address before the fifty-fourth assembly of German Naturalists and Physicians at Salzburg, on "The Soil and its Relations to Health." The *Deutsche Rundschau* for November publishes the address in full, and, in view of the peculiar interest lent to Prof. Pettenkofer's theories by the mysterious prevalence of "malarial" diseases in this country, we may be permitted to recur to the subject. Prof. Pettenkofer lays great stress on the necessity of consulting the condition of the soil in the erection of buildings, and advises the Government to give heed to the suggestions of Dr. Port, a prominent army surgeon, in regard to the construction of barracks and camps. He quotes Dr. Port's remark that, as far as hygienic requirements are concerned, our palaces are far behind the earliest pile-dwellings and the primitive mud-huts still to be found among the poor peasants of Germany, apropos of which the account given by Prof. Hirsch of a recent outbreak of cholera on an estate near Dantzic is interesting. Besides the proprietor's residence, there were nine buildings on the grounds—seven of them well-built modern houses, kept perfectly clean, and provided with dry, airy cellars; the remaining two, situated in the midst of the others, being really mud-huts without cellars. Yet in each of the seven houses cases of cholera occurred, resulting in the death of seventeen persons out of a total population of one hundred and fifty, while in the two old dwellings not a single one was attacked. Dr. Port, evidently a thoroughgoing disciple of Prof. Pettenkofer, attributes this immunity solely to the mud flooring, which completely shut out the noxious influences of the soil. Few numbers of the *Rundschau* appear without some article in the nature of a biographical memoir. The issue before us contains two: "Antonio Panizzi," by Karl Hillebrand, and "Friedrich Arnold Brockhaus," by Friedrich Kapp, both writers being among the most frequent contributors to the *Rundschau*. Prof. Hillebrand never treats a subject without impressing his readers with his thorough knowledge of the literature and history of many countries; yet we should have expected a more felicitous treatment of so rich a theme as Panizzi's life must have been to him. Dr. Kapp's review of the life of the founder of the great Leipzig publishing-house, as written by his grandson, reveals in a striking way the thorny path of the originator of the 'Conversations-Lexikon,' whose struggles with the censors of the days of the Holy Alliance may well raise an incredulous smile on the lips of modern cyclopædia publishers. The essay is to be concluded in the following number. Of the other articles, we may mention, besides a feeling tribute to the memory of President Garfield by Dr. Kapp, the concluding instalment of Ferdinand Hiller's "Besuche im Jenseits" (Visits in the Other World)—a light species of "Imaginary Conversations," with far less ability than Landor's, and much greater obtrusion of the writer's individuality. The two novels are unexpectedly good in opposite ways. "Das Brigittchen von Trogen," by Conrad Ferdinand Meyer—a writer whose striking poem, "Hutten's Letzte Tage" deserves far more general appreciation than it has received—is entertaining in spite of its formidable array of mediæval lore; while Marie von Ebner-Eschenbach's "Die Poesie des Unbewussten" (The Poetry of the Unconscious), a novelette in postal cards, belongs to the *genre* of bright nothings in which the German hand so rarely succeeds.

—Among the many new Reviews recently started there is hardly another which has so good a *raison d'être* as the *Revue de l'Histoire des Religions*, begun last year at Paris, under the editorship of M. Maurice Vernes (E. Leroux, publisher). The subject to which it is devoted—the scientific as distinguished from the theological study of men's religious beliefs and practices—is one of prominent interest before the public mind at present, and it has hardly had an organ of its own in any country. M. Vernes counts among his contributors not only the leading French names, but also the Dutch, the well-known Prof. Tiele, of Leyden, being one of his chief collaborators. The state of feeling still existing between France and Germany apparently forbids his drawing any help from the latter land of scholars. The volumes already issued are full of valuable matter — elaborate articles, criticisms, notices; and bulletins, intended to be continued at regular intervals, of the progress of research in the various main departments of the field. The *Revue* is issued every other month, in parts of about 150 pages each, and the foreign subscription price is 30 francs a year.

—In the last number of the *Revue Historique* (Sept.–Oct.) is an article by M. Paul Guiraud proposing a new theory as to the reform of the centuriate comitia of ancient Rome. The generally accepted view (that of Pantagathus) assumes that each of the thirty-five tribes contained ten centuries, divided equally between the *seniores* and *juniores;* the new theory maintains that this division applied only to the first class, and that the lower classes were divided essentially as before. We cannot consider the point made out. M. Guiraud brings up really only two citations to prove it. One is the corrupt passage in Cicero, *de Rep.*, ii., 22, which appears to prove that the first class contained only seventy centuries, while the whole number of the centuries was 193, and which he refers to the time of Cicero (*Nunc videtis . . . esse*, etc.). But the whole context shows that Cicero is speaking of the early period, so some other explanation must be found for the number 70. The other is a narrative in Livy (xliii. 16), which really proves nothing except that the vote was evidently going against the accused when eight centuries of knights and *multæ aliæ primæ classis* had voted against him. But it appears to us to be a decisive argument that the canvassing in the elections was done by tribes—for of course this canvassing was of more importance for the lower classes than for the first; these, therefore, as well as the first, must have been divided into centuries. Moreover, the existence of these lower centuries appears to be attested by inscriptions. We must, therefore, still hold to the view presented by Mommsen, Marquardt, and Lange.

—Franz Liszt has exposed himself to violent attacks by the whole Semitic press of Germany. The new volume of his collected works which Breitkopf & Härtel are now issuing contains his article on "Les Bohémiens et leur Musique en Hongrie." In this article Liszt has inserted a ten-page disquisition on the Jews, after the manner of his son-in-law, Richard Wagner. He asserts that the Jews, having exchanged retail for wholesale trade and taken possession of the banks and the press, are now with these two greatest of civil powers endeavoring to ruin everything that constitutes the well-being and glory of that society on which they have fastened themselves like parasites. The problem that presents itself to the Christian is that of self-preservation, and the best means to secure that end would be the compulsory emigration of the Jews to Palestine. As for the art of the Jews, Liszt denies it all originality. They merely assimilate and imitate. "The music of the Jews, like their painting and stage-work, is modelled after the Chris-

tian type. They do not even attempt to emancipate themselves from our methods. What Meyerbeer did was simply to unite the German and Italian schools, to place them side by side. The combination was novel, and ensured him an unprecedented popularity; but it was nothing beyond a combination. Mendelssohn only repeated what Handel had done before him, although he made use of modern resources, adapted to the habits of his hearers. What the Jews do is simply to transform and recombine the elements which we create." The Berlin *Boersen-Courier*, which although edited by Jews has always been one of Wagner's principal champions, remarks in reference to Liszt's article that in the case of Wagner, whose aim was to create a distinct national German art and who spent his whole life in polemics, his attitude toward the Jews was quite explicable, though not excusable. With Liszt, however, it is quite otherwise, as his tendencies have always been of the most cosmopolitan nature. Born of German parents, in Hungary, he grew up in the German school of art, but not without being deeply influenced by the French spirit. These elements, harmoniously united in his compositions with Italian and Hungarian traits, have hitherto been symbolic of his life tendencies, which have always been liberal and conciliatory. If in his old age he has suddenly abandoned this policy, the *Courier* is inclined to attribute it to the weakening effects of his recent illness. Further details concerning this affair may be found in a late feuilleton by Dr. Hanslick in the Vienna *Neue Freie Presse*, and in a pamphlet published at Pesth by "Sagittarius," and entitled "Franz Liszt über die Juden."

—The second Philharmonic Concert at the Brooklyn Academy of Music opened with Schumann's Rhenish Symphony in E flat No. 3. This symphony has been lately described by a German critic in a few lines which are worth quoting: "It belongs to Schumann's latest period, whose sombre cloud-shadows rest heavily on it, yet the first part moves on in an energetic, almost defiant manner. Like an unexpected ray of sunshine the minuet-like allegretto in C then follows. All the rest we listen to with very divergent feelings; it is like the flight of an eagle with broken wings." We should wish to modify the last part of this judgment, for certainly the theme of the last movement is vigorous and new, and elaborated with the peculiar elastic spring, so to say, and the final rush of violins that distinguish Schumann's best compositions. The scenes from Gluck's "Alceste," which came next in order, were doubtless new to a majority of the audience. Even in Gluck's native country his operas are now seldom heard, although they are superior in finish and intrinsic worth to very many of the modern German, Italian, and French operas that have displaced them. They are characterized by a noble simplicity and grandeur that will no doubt some day lead to a general revival of interest in them, similar to the Berlioz revival we now witness. Gluck, the reformer of the opera, still retained its general forms—the division into recitatives, duos, trios, and so forth—and in so far differs from Wagner, who merged all these forms in his endless melody. But Gluck was Wagner's predecessor in the successful and conscientious adaptation of the music to the spirit of the text, and in the chaste simplicity of his melodic ideas, which were no longer disfigured by the tasteless ornaments of meretricious singers. These characteristics were well illustrated by the nine selections from "Alceste" which were rendered. The short orchestral scene representing the rescue of Alceste from Hades by Hercules is an agitated and stormy instrumental conception, that would be appreciated in a modern realistic music-drama. The chorus with solos "With wreaths of roses," with its graceful melody and "'cute" pizzicato accompaniment, was particularly appreciated by the large audience, which, be it said once for all, was uncommonly demonstrative in its expressions of pleasure at the excellent work done by Mr. Thomas's musicians, the chorus, and the soloists, Miss Schell, Miss Winant, and Signor Galassi. After the intermission, Signor Galassi sang the second scene of the first act of the "Flying Dutchman" as sequel to the overture. He succeeded admirably in portraying the despair and anguish of the unhappy Dutchman, his voice struggling successfully against the angry waves of the agitated orchestra. This was followed by the minuet and fugue from Beethoven's marvelous Ninth quartet in C, played by string orchestra. Fugue writing was not Beethoven's strong point, but after hearing this movement Bach himself would have patted him on the back or embraced him after the German manner. The manuscript duo from Berlioz's "Beatrice and Benedick," which was beautifully sung by Miss Schell and Miss Winant, proved an excellent addition to Mr. Thomas's concert repertory. The exquisite and subdued orchestral tint which is diffused over the close of this piece, like the lingering traces of a glorious sunset, is one of those simple but poetic touches that appeal alike to the masses and the musical enthusiast. The Festival Procession and chorus from Goldmark's "Queen of Sheba" proved a good enough selection for the close of a very successful concert. It is a pompous, noisy composition of no lasting musical value, with a semblance of grandeur which imposes at first, but disappears after repeated hearing. In some of the highest notes of the chorus the sopranos were a trifle flat and shrill, but in all the rest of their work the new chorus of about five hundred performers proved itself quite worthy of being heard in connection with Mr. Thomas's superb orchestra.

HOW ILLINOIS WAS MADE A FREE STATE.

Sketch of Edward Coles, Second Governor of Illinois, and of the Slavery Struggle of 1823-4. Prepared for the Chicago Historical Society, by E. B. Washburne. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. 1881.

THE story here related is important and interesting alike on personal and historical grounds, and eminently worthy of permanent record. Edward Coles was of a prominent Virginia family. His father's house in Albemarle county was a centre of the old-fashioned Virginia hospitality, its roof having frequently sheltered such guests as Patrick Henry, Jefferson, Madison, the Randolphs, and others of equal celebrity. Born in 1786, he was educated partly at Hampden-Sidney, and partly at William and Mary College. In his early college days his attention was drawn to the subject of slavery, and after extensive reading and reflection he resolved that he would neither be a slaveholder nor live permanently in a slaveholding community. In 1809, when he was twenty-three years of age, he found himself the possessor of a plantation and a considerable number of slaves, bequeathed to him by his father. While he was in a state of great embarrassment over his new possessions, President Madison invited him to become his private secretary. This appointment he accepted in the hope that through the acquaintances he was sure to make in Washington, he should gain information which would enable him to decide in what part of the non-slaveholding portion of the Union it would be most advantageous for him to settle. He remained in the service of President Madison for six years, acquiring much knowledge of public affairs and of the public men of the time, and enjoying the confidence of those with whom he became either officially or socially acquainted. That he remained true to his anti-slavery convictions, and that his mind dwelt much upon the slavery problem, is proved by his celebrated correspondence with Jefferson, in which he earnestly besought that eminent statesman to devise and put in operation some plan of gradual abolition. "In the calm of your retirement," he eloquently pleaded, "you might, most beneficially to society and with much addition to your own fame, avail yourself of the love and confidence of your fellow-citizens to put into complete practice those hallowed principles contained in that renowned Declaration of which you were the immortal author."

If Jefferson had heeded this earnest appeal of one of Virginia's younger sons, slavery might perchance have come to a peaceful instead of a bloody end. But he excused himself on the plea of old age, saying the appeal was "like bidding old Priam buckle on the armor of Hector." "I have overlived," he pathetically added, "the generation with which mutual labors and perils begat mutual confidence and influence. This enterprise is for the young, for those who can follow it up and bear it through to its consummation. It shall have all my prayers, and these are the only weapons of an old man." The real difficulty, however, was, that Jefferson was enmeshed and paralyzed by the doctrine of gradualism. "The laws do not permit us," he said, "to turn the slaves loose, if that were for their good." The Abolitionists of a later day, as our older readers will remember, were charged with having incited the South to enact the laws forbidding emancipation; but here is Jefferson's confession that they existed in 1814, seventeen years at least before the commencement of the agitation. The sage of American democracy, while confessing the wrongfulness of slavery, could see nothing for anti-slavery men to do but to go on holding slaves, feeding and clothing them well, protecting them from ill-usage, and waiting supinely for "the hour of emancipation" to come, as he was sure it must, "brought on either by the generous energy of our own minds, or by the bloody process of St. Domingo." He even tried to dissuade Mr. Coles from his purpose to leave Virginia in order to escape from the toils of slavery, and to induce him to remain there as a slaveholder. Happily, Mr. Coles's opposition to slavery was too intelligent and too earnest to permit him to take this bad advice.

After the conclusion of peace with Great Britain, Mr. Coles thought the time at hand for the execution of his purpose. In 1815 he resigned his position as private secretary and went on a tour of exploration to the Northwest Territory. On his return to Virginia he was surprised by an urgent request from the President that he would consent to go on a confidential and very delicate mission to Russia. He accepted the appointment, sailed for the Baltic in the naval ship *Prometheus*, in the summer of 1816, and having honorably and successfully fulfilled the objects of his mission, he visited France, England, Scotland, Ireland, and Wales, and returned to the United States. In the spring of 1819, having sold his plantation in Virginia, he removed with all his negroes to Edwardsville, in Illinois. It cost him much to break the strong social and political ties which bound him to his native State, but his conscience would not permit him to remain there as a slaveholder. His slaves were ignorant of his purpose to free them, but they followed him with unfaltering faith. It was a long journey in emigrant wagons over the Alleghanies to Brownsville, Pa., where they embarked on two flat-bottomed boats for a journey

by water of more than 600 miles, to a point below Louisville, Ky. The morning after leaving Pittsburg, while the boats, lashed together, were floating gently down the Ohio River, he called the negroes on deck, and in a short address informed them that they were no longer slaves, but free—"free as I was, and at liberty to proceed with me or to go ashore at their pleasure."

"The effect on them was electrical. They stared at me and at each other, as if doubting the accuracy or reality of what they heard. In breathless silence they stood before me, unable to answer a word, but with countenances beaming with an expression which no words could convey, and which no language can describe. As they began to see the truth of what they had heard, and to realize their situation, there came on a kind of hysterical, giggling laugh. After a pause of intense and unutterable emotion, bathed in tears, and with tremulous voices, they gave vent to their gratitude, and implored the blessings of God on me."

The grateful creatures tried to persuade him that he was too generous in freeing them all at once, and avowed their willingness to remain in his service until they could reimburse him for the expense of their removal from Virginia and get him well established in his new home. He not only declined their proffered service, but informed them that he should, upon their arrival in Illinois, give to each head of a family a clear title to 160 acres of land. They expressed their fear that in doing this he would reduce himself to want, and told him he had done enough for them in giving them their freedom. Soon after reaching Edwardsville he executed and delivered to them deeds to the promised lands. By advice of counsel, in order to protect them against the operation of the infamous Black Code of Illinois, on the 4th of July, 1819, he executed for each one of them an instrument of emancipation.

Strange as it may seem to those who remember the proscriptive spirit of later administrations of the Federal Government, this practical Abolitionist was appointed by President Monroe to be Registrar of the Land Office at Edwardsville. In this office he earned great popularity among the early settlers of the new State, which had been admitted to the Union only a year before his appointment; and in 1822, largely on account of his well-known anti-slavery principles, he was nominated for Governor, and the pro-slavery party being divided between two candidates, he was elected by a plurality of fifty votes. That a pro-slavery party was found at that time in a State from which slavery had been excluded not only by the Ordinance of 1787, but by its own Constitution, is a fact to be explained by the existence of a bitterly proscriptive spirit toward the negroes, and the determination of leading citizens to remove the legal barriers and add Illinois to the list of slave States. It was stoutly contended that the Ordinance of 1787 was null and void, being in conflict with the deed of cession by which the Territory was transferred by Virginia to the United States, that deed providing that "the inhabitants of the territory ceded, who professed themselves to have been citizens of Virginia previous to the cession, should have their possessions and titles confirmed to them, and be protected in their rights and liberties." It was assumed that the first right of every Virginia citizen was to hold slaves, and therefore that Congress had transcended its power in ordaining the exclusion of slavery from Illinois. As a matter of fact, slavery actually existed in the State at that time in spite both of the Ordinance and of her own Constitution.

Although Mr. Coles had been elected Governor, the pro-slavery party had a majority in the Legislature. In his inaugural address he reminded the Legislature of the illegal existence of slavery in the State, and recommended the adoption of measures for its abrogation and for the amelioration or repeal of the oppressive laws relating to free negroes. At once the State was thrown into a blaze of excitement. The pro-slavery party resolved to call a convention to frame a new Constitution which should remove every barrier to the legal introduction of slavery. To accomplish this required a majority of two-thirds in both houses of the Legislature. In the Senate the needed majority was found, but in the House of Representatives one additional vote was needed. When it was found that this vote could not otherwise be obtained, it was determined that an anti-Convention man should be put out of the House and a Convention man put in his place; and this, in defiance of the rules and of every principle of justice, was accomplished. The act providing for a convention was passed, but it had to be submitted to a vote of the people, and the opponents of the measure resolved to defeat it if possible. The story of this conflict, which is graphically told by Mr. Washburne, reminds us at every step of the "border-ruffian" period in the history of Kansas and Nebraska. The conflict was a most desperate one, the anti-slavery party being led by Governor Coles. The pro-slavery men, confident of success, were arrogant, insulting, and defiant. Fortunately there was a period of eighteen months before the election, in which to discuss the question in all its aspects, and to make a thorough exposure of the designs of the pro-slavery party. The conflict was very bitter, no quarter being given on either side. There were strong men and eloquent orators in both parties, and the rank and file of the people entered into the struggle with intense zeal. It would be interesting to dwell upon the story, especially those features of it which illustrate the courage and the enlightened statesmanship of Governor Coles; but we must content ourselves with announcing the result, which was a defeat of the project for a convention by a majority of 1,872 votes in a total of 11,772. The scheme was never renewed, the rapid increase of immigration from the free States forbidding all hope of success. It is pleasant to read "that to the eternal honor of the clergy of Illinois at that day, they were almost without exception" on the anti-slavery side of the question. One of their number, the Rev. John M. Peck, a Baptist, was especially conspicuous.

But while the convention project was overwhelmingly defeated, the pro-slavery party, rallying under the flag of General Jackson, carried the Legislature, and were able to fill the most important offices in the State with their own partisans, and to proscribe their opponents. They improved their opportunity to the fullest extent. Governor Coles was prosecuted for bringing his negroes into the State, contrary to the provisions of the Black Code enacted just before his arrival, but not promulgated till some months later. The judges of the lower courts, being pro-slavery partisans, ruled against him most unfairly, and he was subjected to many annoyances and much harsh experience; but he found relief at last in a favorable decision of the Supreme Court. The emancipated negroes, without exception, became industrious citizens and taxpayers.

Mr. Coles's term as Governor expired in 1826. In 1825 he had the honor of officially welcoming Lafayette to the State, thus renewing the acquaintance which he had made with him during his visit to Paris in 1818. He was not a candidate for reëlection. In 1831 he consented to be a candidate for Congress, but failed of an election. Some time about 1832 he removed to Philadelphia, where he married and passed the remainder of his days, dying July 7, 1868. Mr. Washburne says that in his later years he took much interest in public affairs, and that a "History of the Ordinance of 1787," prepared by him, was read before the Pennsylvania Historical Society, June 9, 1856. We do not remember, however, that he took any part in the national anti-slavery struggle which began about the time of his removal to Philadelphia. We have spoken only of his services in keeping Illinois from lapsing into the embrace of slavery, but it ought to be mentioned that his views upon all the questions of his time, as expressed in his messages to the Legislature of the State, were those of an enlightened patriot and statesman.

SOME HOLIDAY BOOKS.

Études in Modern French Art. By Edward Strahan. Illustrated. New York: Richard Worthington. 1881.

The Lady of Shalott. By Alfred Tennyson. Decorated by Howard Pyle. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1881.

Poets and Etchers. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1881.

THERE is scarcely sufficient flavor of France either in the illustrations or in the text of the 'Études' to excuse the title. *Études* presuppose a point of view decidedly European—if we may excuse the use of the word at all. "Studies" better define the decidedly cisatlantic smack of the whole make-up. The text is interesting, chatty, and often engaging in its richness of anecdotes and character-touches. Still, the reader must feel a little disappointed that the author has not given an idea of the great changes of the last decade, but has insisted on the status of his list of names at a period before the strength of the real modern throb had made itself felt in French art. In his classification of the artists he has been guided by the spirit of their productions, and in this he has shown good discrimination, and sometimes a thorough knowledge of the men of whom he writes. But he only covers a portion of the ground, and that not the most fertile. Why should Florent Willems be classed as a French painter and Alfred Stevens be not mentioned at all? The incomparable talent of the latter places him, without the slightest question, at the head of the painters of his class. How can Tissot be considered more of a French painter than Alma-Tadema, if we, with the author, agree to ignore the accident of birth? The selection is certainly incomprehensible unless it may be explained that the list of names chosen is rather the dealers' list than that which appeals most to artists and connoisseurs. Again, what study of present French art can afford to pass over Jules Breton and Bastien-Lepage? or what discussion of this subject can be comprehensive without an allusion to Vollon, the acknowledged master of execution? Indeed, how can an idea of the modern tendency of the so-called French school be given without including Duez, Mélingue, Cormon, Cazin, Merson, and the company of men, already in the front ranks of the profession, whose progress is changing the whole scheme and scope of the art of the great capital, and whose influence is felt where the names of Escosura, Anker, Boulanger, Chaplin, and Mazerolle are scarcely ever spoken? What painter or sculptor has done more to elevate French art of to-day than Paul Dubois? His existence is not recognized in the chapter devoted to sculpture.

There is every indication that Mr. Strahan has written up, or down, to a portfolio of proofs and fac-simile reproductions. It is a pity that a writer with such a fund of knowledge, and so rich a store of studio reminiscences, should not have had a better opportunity. In short, the volume under consideration is valuable for its excellent presswork and its numerous illustrations, rather

than for its quality as a handbook of modern French art. There is unquestionably a demand for a good study of modern French art, but the volume which shall satisfy the conditions of this demand must be made, not for the purpose of producing a book of a certain number of pages, with a proper sprinkling of illustrations, but with the honest endeavor to place the subject before the reader in its most intelligible and agreeable aspect. We cannot agree with the author, in his preface, that the binding is "art-binding" at all.

Although the field of colored decoration of books has been long successfully cultivated by English artists of note, Mr. Howard Pyle is the first American who has had the inclination or the courage to undertake this work with deliberation and care. He has been, without doubt, fully alive to the danger of imitation, and he has made no pretence of cutting loose from the accepted methods of treatment. In the 'Lady of Shalott' he has shown a considerable degree of inventive power, and a knowledge of the limitations of this sort of decoration, accompanied by great facility of execution. How much of the color may be credited to the lithographer we have no means of judging except from occasional combinations. It is more than probable, however, that Mr. Pyle's designs were far more harmonious and much richer than the plates are. Economy of printing is no necessary hindrance to the production of agreeable colors. A few stones with carefully selected tones will make far better decoration than a score of superimposed crudities. In printing from Mr. Pyle's designs the lithographer has chosen two or three raw colors which, when they occur in any quantity, entirely spoil the decorative aspect. An unqualified yellow and a harsh green occur too often to be agreeable to the eye, and it seems impossible that these tones should have been prepared under Mr. Pyle's direct supervision. The designs are too artistic to permit the suspicion that the author of them has so deficient a color sense as the plates would appear to prove. In all the decorations the figures are well enough drawn and sufficiently expressive. The landscapes are a little less studied than the other parts of the compositions, but the character of the designs is everywhere intelligently carried out.

Soft-toned paper, generous margins, large, clear type, excellent printing, and good arrangement, make 'Poets and Etchers' so far a credit to the publishers. The plan has been to furnish motives for five artists, by selecting from the works of Longfellow, Lowell, Emerson, Whittier, Bryant, and Aldrich. Twenty full-page etchings form the principal feature of the book, and professedly furnish the reason of its publication. Etchings are distinctly valuable as a class of artistic productions only when they have the peculiar directness and masculinity, so to speak, which especially belong to this process of illustration. Etchings as such have no *raison d'être* unless they have the above qualifications. Marvels of dexterity with a fine point are not necessarily true etchings. We do not exactly see the reason for all the four full-page etchings by each of the five artists who are here represented. Most of the compositions would not by any process of illustration rise above mediocrity, and some of them are even bad, inexcusably bad. Several figures by Mr. J. D. Smillie, neither well drawn, dignified, nor picturesque, do not deserve the treatment with point and plate. The frontispiece, a view in the Yo-Semite Valley by the same artist, intended to illustrate Whittier's "Lakeside," is forcibly touched, and is much more successful. Mr. A. F. Bellows does not put in a valid claim to be ranked as an etcher, unless acquaintance with the process be considered a claim. His figures, moreover, are absolutely devoid of good qualities. There is in the examples of Mr. Henry Farrer's work an element of simplicity which, while it sometimes inclines a little more toward the meagre than is agreeable, is certainly commendable. His landscape illustrating Lowell's "Last Walk in Autumn" is sympathetically treated. Mr. Samuel Coleman has shown no particular originality of design in his four etchings, but they have the merit of vigor of contrast. This quality is less noticeable in the work of Mr. R. Swain Gifford, but it nevertheless is a strong element there. His touch is forcible and knowing, and he has apparently put down without hesitation the compositions he had in mind. This frankness and confidence give his etchings a certain charm. It must be said in justice to Mr. Gifford that he is not seen at his best in this volume. Five good American etchers can be readily named. The only wonder is that the publishers did not form their little company with better judgment, or at least select examples which have an individual value.

A JACOBIN'S VIEW OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

The Great French Revolution. 1785-1793. Narrated in the Letters of Madame J— of the Jacobin Party, Edited by her Grandson, M. Édouard Lockroy. London: Sampson, Low & Co. 1881.

In recalling those periods of the world's history when a new order of things was shaping itself amid infinite noise, tumult, and agitation, most of us have a strong desire to know how individuals thought and felt amid the whirl and rush of events going on around them—individuals, that is, who were not themselves engaged in making history, but were simply acted upon by the scenes and influences in the centre of which their lot happened to be cast. It is not possible to obtain this information from books written with a view to publication. Any one writing with such an object naturally and designedly drapes himself so as to present a becoming appearance in the eyes of a critical and unsympathetic world. Hence the extraordinary interest attaching to private letters which are the genuine and spontaneous outpourings of the writer's thoughts and sentiments, and which register, with complete fidelity, each successive phase of emotion while it was still actual. Such is the character of the recently published letters of Madame de Rémusat to her husband and son. The interest of Madame J—'s letters is of a more sombre and intense description. As the translators of the volume say in their preface: "The remarkable letters that compose this volume form the only personal narrative that has been presented to the public by an eye-witness of the terrible events which they describe from a Revolutionary point of view." Madame J— was a Jacobin of the Jacobins—or rather was transformed into one by the progress of events—and her letters from Paris, written almost daily either to her husband in the country or to her son in England, enable us to see the wild suspicions, the irrational fanaticism, and the baseless expectations which went to the building up of a French Jacobin. Madame J— is fond of dwelling upon her "sensibility" as a quality for which she is especially distinguished; the Jacobin's political creed, therefore, found in her a subject peculiarly adapted for its reception. With her, political truth and error may be said to have been a question of the emotions, and not of objective fact at all. There is not a line in these letters which indicates either perception or understanding of the functions of government. Abstractions and catchwords are all that she is ready to slay and be slain for, showing herself, thereby, to have been a typical Jacobin.

The first of the letters from Paris is dated June, 1790, when every good Frenchman and Frenchwoman believed that the millennium had already begun, at least in France. In this letter we read how "our good King, mounted on a fine horse, rode almost alone from the Tuileries to the Champ de Mars to hold a review of 4,000 citizen soldiers. . . . He was gay and as happy as a king. The people were delighted; the shouts of *Vive le Roi* came from all hearts. If," adds Madame J— with true oracular obscurity, "we glance at the history of England, if we sound the depths of the human mind, we shall find material for reflection in all this." A year later, and the prospect is still at "set-fair" in the judgment of Madame J—. "The people admire the National Assembly and adore the Constitution." As for Madame J— herself, she hopes "the new régime will bring forth virtue, and therefore it is that I worship the Revolution." On April 16, 1792, she still writes to her husband "in a sort of transport of pleasure." The fête has "passed off amid all the pomp, the magnificent simplicity, and the profound tranquillity of a festival of the people." But this is the last that we hear of pleasant weather. Clouds speedily cover all the sky. A month or two later Madame J— informs her husband that "Orgies are beginning again (at Court) as scandalous as those of Versailles; the healths of Condé and Bouillé are drunk; the national cockade is trampled underfoot, and so on. An unfortunate man, one of the King's Guard, was nearly murdered by his comrades for drinking the health of the 'Prince Royal' instead of the 'Dauphin,' but the others interfered in time. Bazire, who supplied all these details, says he had them from some brave body-guards who were there only by accident." These "brave body-guards, who were there only by accident," are typical of the kind of testimony which sufficed as a basis of belief for anything and everything in the credulous mind of a French Jacobin. They or their prototypes appear and reappear pretty frequently in the character of "informers," and no doubt of their perfect veracity ever seems to have touched the mind of any one. "Twenty *invalides*," we are told, "presented themselves at the bar, and nobly expressed their regret for the painful obligation that they were under to denounce their officers. . . . The utterances of these brave soldiers drew tears from our eyes." "Three young guards asked to be heard at the bar, and in the language of free and candid minds they denounced the horrors of which they had been the witnesses and the victims, having been exposed on account of their civic spirit to every sort of oppression." Madame J—'s "sensibility" caused her to believe with the whole strength of her being, and apparently without any attempt to sift the evidence, whatever a "brave body-guard," or any other chance "man in the street," might have to disclose respecting the machinations of the court. She, like the rest of the populace of Paris and the Parliament itself, believed that they were in nightly peril of being massacred in their beds by order of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette, and Madame J— ascribes their escape from this fate to a direct interposition of Providence. "I look," she writes, "upon all that has happened as so many miracles of His power and goodness toward the people. Men have had little to do with it. The crimes were accumulated, the circumstances were developed and collected together, by the Providence of the Revolution, without any help from human prudence; and this has forced the legislators to save us and themselves."

This phrase, "The Providence of the Revolution," occurs repeatedly in Madame J—'s letters, and it accounts for much. The French Jacobins, from Robespierre downward, pursued ends in politics in the spirit and by the methods of a religious persecutor. For a moment Madame J—'s "sensibilities" and her womanly tenderness of heart are shocked by the terrible September massacres, but by an effort she stifles the stirring impulses of pity and remorse. "Who wills the ends," she writes to her husband, "wills the means." We know, now, that these September massacres were the work, deliberately planned and executed, of Danton; to Madame J—, living in the very scene of them, they were caused by the "wild justice" of the people rising up in wrath against traitors and "Austrians."

"I must," she writes, "cast a veil over the crimes into which the people have been forced by those whose victims they have been for the last three years. The dark plots discovered on every side shed a frightful light, and an absolute certainty, on the fate which awaits the patriots. They must put to death or be put to death. To what a horrible necessity does the fatal work of their enemies drive them—heads cut off! priests massacred! . . . I cannot give you the details, although my reason tells me that kings and Prussians would have done a thousand times worse."

Perhaps so; but it was unfortunate for France, and for the world, that it did not occur to Madame J—, or to any of her brother Jacobins, that a kingdom of justice could hardly be established by borrowing from its enemies the very methods and weapons against which the new kingdom was to be a protest.

We get a glimpse of Robespierre himself in one of these letters. He, his brother and sister dine with Madame J— and her husband, a short time after the execution of the King, but while the "Reign of Terror" is still a good distance ahead. Madame J— writes to her son:

"I was much pleased with the Robespierre family. The sister is naïve and natural like your aunts; she arrived two hours before her brother, and we chatted like two old women. I made her tell me about their domestic life; it is exactly like ours—simple and frugal. Her brother had as little to do with the 10th of August as with the 2d of September. He is as capable of being a party leader as of catching hold of the moon. He is absent-minded, like a thinker; cold and formal, like a lawyer; but gentle as a lamb, and as sombre as Young. I see he has not our tender sensibility, but I believe he desires the good of the human race, though rather from justice than from love. For the rest, you need only see him face to face to be sure that nature never gave such attractive features to any but a noble mind."

It would be interesting to learn what Madame J— came to think of the "sea-green Incorruptible" in after years. In the course of these letters she has many idols, whom she discovers in succession to be formed of only inferior clay. She runs, in fact, through almost the entire gamut of French Revolutionary leaders, from Lafayette onward; admires each so long as the populace admire him, and then transfers her homage to the next popular god of the moment. The letters break off abruptly just as Robespierre is in the ascendant, leaving in the mind of the reader a great craving for an additional supply.

Captain John Smith. By Charles Dudley Warner. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

"When I consented," says the author, "to prepare this volume for a series which should deal with the notables of American history with some familiarity and disregard of historic gravity, I did not anticipate the seriousness of the task. But investigation of the subject showed me that while Capt. John Smith would lend himself, easily enough, to a purely facetious treatment, there were historic problems worthy of a different handling." The figure of Captain Smith combines, in a rare degree, the qualities of picturesqueness and historic importance, and Mr. Warner, without shirking the historically important (and comparatively uninteresting) incidents in Smith's career, has a keen eye to the humorous side of them, and describes them with the intuitive skill of a humorist. His narrative of Smith's American experiences rests, of course, on Mr. Deane's annotated editions of Smith's own accounts, which had already been systematically arranged, and, to some extent, "popularized," by Prof. Henry Adams. But Mr. Warner's book will, from its form, be read far more widely than Mr. Adams's article, for it humorizes, as well as popularizes, the amusing tale of Smith's mendacity and Pocahontas's fame. He is also in a position to mention and to refute the rebutting evidence brought in after Messrs. Deane and Adams's case was closed. Moreover, he relates, with considerable detail, and, it need hardly be said, in a highly amusing manner, the remarkable adventures undergone by Smith before he came to this country—a period passed over very lightly by previous historians.

The chief fault we have to find with Mr. Warner is that, in his natural and proper contempt for the dignity of history, he is occasionally more facetious than the circumstances demand; as when he remarks that "it is nearly as certain that St. Botolph founded a monastery at Boston, Lincoln, as it is that he founded a club afterward in Boston, Massachusetts." Most biographers, we suppose, would avoid saying of their heroes, as Mr. Warner does of his, that "he loafed in the coffee-houses," and also avoid such expressions as "he thrust his lance through the sight of his beaver, face, head, and all," and "he drops into this remark" (p. 265). It is startling to read on page 249: "The London to which Smith returned was the London of Shakespeare's day. . . . . The Thames had no bridges"! The volume is attractively printed, and has an index. We commend it to the contributors to the dictionary of the Philological Society, with the hint that they will find in it, if nowhere else, authority for the two words "bumptious" (p. 62) and "truck," meaning pewter dish (p. 42). To these we may add "amind" (p. 240).

Recollections of Auton House. A Book for Children. With illustrations. By C. Auton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Children of a larger growth were, as the author admits in his preface, the immediate audience for which these reminiscences were intended; but perhaps only a fastidious taste would keep this book out of the hands of any well-behaved boy or girl. The illustrations are realistic even to portraiture. The skill and humor and general style of them betray the family name and the geographical scene of the narrative to a sufficiently wide circle of readers; others, with some knowledge of New England, have only to ask themselves what city is reached by boat overnight from New York, and has a noticeably large colored population, and understands perfectly the expression "a Rhode Island turkey." It would be an injustice to this little book to pass it by among the ephemeral juvenile productions of the year. It is more than an irresistibly droll family history: it is a true picture of the domestic life of a period dating two generations back — broadly, among the well-to-do classes in various parts of the North; and narrowly, among the respectable Whig upper classes of New England. This life has wholly disappeared before friction-matches, and rubber overshoes, and gas, and fixed washbasins, and railroads, and the telegraph, and the Know-nothing movement, and the Rebellion; and the 'Recollections,' if one could but help laughing over them, might be pronounced a serious contribution to American history. It is, however, the peculiar (αὐτῶν) constitution and activity of the Auton household that flavor this restoration of a bygone time—the "ark" and trundle-bed sleeping arrangements; the eleventh-hour and the early-morning johnnycake repast; the pranks of the nursery; the putting out of Christmas shoes instead of stockings; the boy who, for the sake of a croupy cough and all the coddling which that implied, got a window opened on a cold winter's day, "in order that he might hang his head out and 'hoarsen up,' as we called it"; his brother, who sat in his night-drawers on the top stair while his sister went below with the message, "T. Auton wants to know if he will live till morning"; the girl who "chewed out" her weekly doll-wash by way of respecting the prohibition against playing with water in the nursery; the pet lamb; the spaniel who had fits; the nurses "Aunt Moody" and "Deb'rah"; the woodsawyer. These are a faint hint of the entertainment which every page of the 'Recollections' affords.

Half-Hours with Greek and Latin Authors. From various English translations. With biographical notices. By G. H. Jennings and W. S. Johnstone, authors of 'A Book of Parliamentary Anecdote.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881. Pp. 532.

This is a well-selected collection of extracts from classical writers, long enough to be characteristic and instructive, short enough to be quickly read. There appears to be no plan of arrangement except that of variety. The first selection is from Herodotus, the next from Horace, the next from Cæsar, the next from Theocritus, etc., while specimens of Horace are also found in three other places. The selections are such as, from their relation to English literature and modern thought, are likely to be especially interesting to readers who are not acquainted with the classic languages; *e. g.*, Plutarch's account of the death of Cæsar, the mention of the Christians by Tacitus and Pliny, Demosthenes on the Crown, Plato's account of the death of Socrates. Not only the selections but the translations are so selected as to afford a considerable variety; for example, Homer is represented by Chapman, Derby, and Pope. We are surprised to find Jowett's translations of Plato and Thucydides unrepresented. One could wish also for some of those occasional translations, not by professional translators, like Matthew Arnold's from the "Adoniazusæ" of Theocritus, and D'Arcy Thompson's from the "Trinummus" of Plautus, either of which is better than the one here given. The biographical notices are very brief, but sufficient for those to whom the literature is the chief thing. We notice (p. 61) that the birth of Tacitus is placed A.D. 60, which is certainly too late.

Spain. By James A. Harrison, Professor of History and Modern Languages in Washington-Lee University. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. Pp. 717.

A book of "entertaining history," embellished with "over one hundred illustrations," is naturally expected to be a book of lively narration—the incident and romance of history. This expectation does entire injustice to Mr. Harrison's conception of his undertaking, for his history is solid, sober, and even dry. The "entertainment" comes from the illustrations, which, with very few exceptions, have absolutely nothing to do with the text, but represent scenes and characters of the present day—scenes from the Alhambra; the interior of Seville cathedral; balconies at Granada, with dark-eyed beauties

peeping out from behind the drapery; cattle merchants, and peasants. They appear to belong to some book of travels, and most of the plates seem much worn. This may not be the case, however, for the portraits in the text, which were probably made for the book, are as wretched examples of wood-engraving as one could wish to see.

The book has, as we have said, solid merits, but the author has, we think, been embarrassed by the extent and complication of his task, and does not often show at his best. He has no skill in carrying a thread of history through the confused epochs when half a dozen rival kingdoms occupied the peninsula; for this period his relation is confused and obscure. Neither, to tell the truth, is he good in political history. What shall we say of a history of Spain that only mentions Alberoni once, and that casually, and says nothing of the Parma branch of the Spanish Bourbons? The two most interesting questions of Spanish dynastic history in modern times—the succession to Charles II. in 1700, and the Carlist movement in the present century—are very inadequately explained. The best parts of the book are those which treat of literature and institutions. We will instance, as particularly good, the description (p. 580) of the three eighteenth-century statesmen, Aranda, Campomanes, and Florida Blanca. The author describes character carefully, and on the whole justly, but too much in "the catalogue style"—an enumeration of qualities, rather than an analysis. Take, for example, the description of Ferdinand the Catholic (p. 355):

"Ferdinand was a bigot; he was not free from the taint of perfidy tossed to and fro so freely in that age; he was parsimonious, subtle, and insincere; he utterly lacked geniality, and never threw off the gravity which he thought becoming the Spanish grandee; he indulged in vicious gallantries, in egotistic designs, in an ill-assorted second marriage: he was suspicious, vulgar, and uneducated; all this one is willing to grant, and yet concede that there were elements of true grandeur in his character. In the judgment of many of his contemporaries, he was the most renowned and glorious monarch in Christendom. Impartial, economical, indefatigable in his attention to business, he was neither epicure nor ostentatious; he loved history, horsemanship, the rites and ritual of a splendid church ceremonial, knightly virtues and chivalrous undertakings; and with unusual control over his temper, undaunted personal courage, and a far-seeing political sagacity, he made few bad mistakes, and, by wonderful good fortune, raised Spain, jointly with his magnanimous queen, from a conglomeration of reciprocally hostile states into a spacious and concentrated European empire."

The style, as will be seen from the above extract, is not always careful and accurate: did Ferdinand, for instance, raise "his magnanimous queen," etc.? Defective, however, as the book is in many particulars, it meets the demand for a brief history of Spain, and will be found acceptable by many.

There are several maps, reduced from Spruner, and therefore good, but so fine as to be almost useless, and three genealogical tables, taken from Mr. George's work. We notice here a discrepancy between table and text: the table counts "the Emperor" as Alfonso VIII. (reckoning his father, Alfonso I. of Aragon, as the seventh of Castile), while the text, more correctly, calls him Alfonso VII. (p. 188). In the account of Mexico (p. 381) Mr. Bandelier's valuable monographs are referred to the transactions of the "American Archæological Association," instead of the Peabody Museum. The index is not very complete; for example, there is only one reference in it under the head of Navarre.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Kempis's Imitation of Christ. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $2.

Abbott, E. A Trip Eastward. Boston: H. D. Noyes & Co. $1.

Bolles, J. R. The Edelweiss. New London: Charles Allyn. $1.

Bourne, W. O. Now I Lay Me Down to Sleep. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1 25.

Brine, Mary D. My Boy and I: Poetry. New York: Geo. W. Harlan.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 29, 1881.

The Week.

THE week in Wall Street was broken by the two Christmas holidays, but on the days devoted to business the Stock Exchange was extremely active, the sales of stocks on one day having amounted to nearly seven hundred thousand shares, each of the par value of $100. This activity was the result of a liquidation of stock accounts which were supported only by 10@15 per cent. "margins"; and this liquidation was forced by a few leading speculators, who began battering prices, and who were helped later by the reports of the year's business of the Vanderbilt railroad companies. These reports showed clearly that the railroad war has worked great havoc with the net receipts of the trunk-line roads. The decline in the prices of the principal stocks during the week ranged from 1 to 11 per cent., and the general temper of speculation in the "Street" was changed most decidedly from "bullish" to "bearish." As usual after such a decline, outside capitalists who watched for such opportunities came in as buyers of selected stocks. The general trade of the country continues prosperous; the half year about closing will probably show larger profits to many branches of business than ever before in any six months on record, so that the depression at the Stock Exchange appears to be merely a speculative reverse. The money market was easy for borrowers during the week. The New York banks gained $1,814,000 in reserve. Foreign exchange fell to figures which permit gold imports at a profit. United States bonds were in good demand, and amid all the general depression at the Stock Exchange advanced ¼@¼. The price of silver bullion in London was steady, and at the close of the week the 412½ grain silver dollar had a bullion value of 87 cents.

As is reported from Washington, the principal measures by which President Arthur has sought to relieve himself of the almost intolerable pressure of office-seekers consist in limiting the time for the reception of visitors to certain hours on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Thursdays, and in referring applications for office to the heads of the several departments. This is undoubtedly good as far as it goes, but it does not go very far. It will give the President some breathing time. It will suggest to office-seekers and their friends that they will have little chance to make to the President personally "a full statement of the case," and to delegations from Maryland or Virginia that not every one of their members will have an opportunity to make a set speech at the Chief Executive. Nevertheless, it does not touch the source of the evil. If office-seekers are turned away from the White House and are referred with their applications and claims to the different departments, they may let the President more or less alone, but they will pounce upon the Secretaries with intensified energy, and the Secretaries need their time and laboring force for the public business just as much as the President. Indeed, as actual work is distributed in the Government, the President can afford to give more time to the office-seekers than most of the heads of departments can. If there is merely a transfer of the pressure from one point to another, from one officer who can ill afford to give his time to it to several others who can afford it still less, then it is evident that this measure is after all only a palliative, and not even a very strong one, but by no means a remedy.

It is generally believed that Mr. Lincoln will remain at the head of the War Department, and as to the selections President Arthur has made, or is going to make, for the Interior and Navy Departments, there are conflicting rumors. One of these is that Mr. Kirkwood is to remain in the Interior, and it would not be surprising if it had occurred to President Arthur's practical sense that frequent changes in the headship of that department are apt to be particularly hurtful to the public interest. The Interior Department is an aggregation of the most heterogeneous branches of the service, with the needs and the strong and weak points of which a Secretary can become sufficiently acquainted only after many months of very hard work. At the same time, in the Interior Department more than anywhere else is a thorough knowledge of the administrative machinery, as well as of the influences which are constantly striving to use it for bad purposes, required on the part of the chief to prevent corruption and scandal. The Interior Department should, therefore, least of all be subjected to frequent apprenticeships.

The appointment by the President of Professor Hilgard to the superintendency of the Coast and Geodetic Survey is gratifying to all friends of civil-service reform. It must, of course, be observed that, since the members of the corps are professional men and specialists, the organization is in a manner placed beyond the reach of seekers after political spoils, and it is fortunate that, by the judicious action of the President, the rules and traditions of the service—namely, promotion by merit and tenure during good behavior—have not been disturbed. The fitness of the new superintendent for the position to which he has just been appointed has been amply proved during the thirty-four years or more of his connection with the Survey. His scientific acquirements received recognition at home by the Government as early as 1863, when he was appointed one of the members of the National Academy of Sciences on its incorporation by Congress, and abroad by having offered to him the directorship of the International Standards Bureau. His executive ability was tested during the trying years when, owing to the illness of Professor Bache, the responsibility of conducting the Survey devolved entirely on Mr. Hilgard.

There is nothing particularly remarkable about the construction of the Committees of the House considered as a piece of political workmanship. The Speaker has in a few cases disregarded the general principles which usually govern his action in this matter—the first of which is, of course, that the majority to which he owed his election must be taken care of, and this he has respected in such manner as to make it appear that he owes more to the Pennsylvania delegation than to that of any other State. The second is that he must do something handsome for his more prominent competitors of his own party, but he has disregarded this in his treatment of Mr. Kasson. It is, however, useless to discuss the make-up of committees from the political point of view simply. The considerations which determine it are very numerous, and in a very large degree personal, and in most cases known to few beyond the Speaker himself. From the point of view of the public business, there are two committees the composition of which has just now unusual interest—the Committee of Ways and Means, and the Committee on Coinage. No two questions are so important at this moment as those with which these committees will respectively have to deal—viz., in what manner the revenue shall be raised, and how much longer we shall go on coining silver. These committees ought to contain a fair representation of the opinions held by the Republican party at least on these very important problems. As a matter of fact the Committee on Ways and Means contains only three opponents of the extreme protective theory, Messrs. Tucker, Carlisle, and Morrison, and not one of them comes from the great seats of American industry and commerce; Messrs. Tucker and Carlisle are Southerners; Mr. Morrison is from Illinois. It is remarkable but true, that the solitary representative on it of the great manufacturing and commercial region covered by New York and New England, Mr. Russell, is a fierce protectionist and Mr. Warner Miller's right-hand man in the paper business. The other places are divided between Pennsylvania and the West, Pennsylvania having three members, including the chairman, Mr. W. D. Kelley.

An attempt has been made to soften this by representing Mr. Kelley as prepared to modify his opinions and anxious to connect his name with successful tariff revision. It may be that he entertains some such purpose, but it is useless to ask moderate tariff men to believe that he will pursue it with steadiness, or that he has any clear conception of what moderation means. Mr. Kelley owes everything in politics to his having been all his life a fanatic. It is his fanaticism which has prevented his aberrations about greenbacks and silver from ruining him. To suppose that he will now lay aside his fanaticism and become judicial-minded over the claims of his idol on popular worship, is expecting a great deal. Steadiness of purpose, too—the very first requisite of a tariff reformer—is hardly to be looked for from a gentleman who, after having twice re-

ported in favor of the demonetization of silver, and warmly supporting it, went about the country two years afterward denouncing the demonetization as the result of a bondholders' conspiracy. The opinion of the commercial and industrial world about the consequence of continuing the coinage of silver at the present rate is well known. This world is very nearly as sure that, in the absence of European coöperation, it will result in reducing us to a single silver standard as that the sun will rise to-morrow. This may be a wrong opinion, but it is held by the great body of those who have most to do with the work of exchange, and it is certainly entitled to careful hearing before those who have the coinage matter in hand. Nevertheless, the Committee on Coinage contains only one representative of the Eastern States, Mr. Fisher, the Chairman, who is said to be the only man on it who is opposed to the policy we are now pursuing. The rest are gentlemen from the West, who either have silver to sell, or look on bankers as cormorants who can be best foiled by lowering the value of the circulating medium.

We have more than once of late referred to the difficulty of obtaining from writers and speakers on Mormon polygamy—who are very numerous just now—any practical suggestions for its extirpation. It is safe to say that the objections to polygamy, both moral, social, and political, are fully established and very well known. The power of the United States is also now beyond doubt. What we need is light upon the manner in which this power can be brought to bear on the "twin relic of barbarism." We therefore turned with much interest to an article on the subject by Senator Edmunds in *Harper's Magazine* for January, hoping to find in it some practical suggestions toward the solution of the problem, but confess that we have been somewhat disappointed. He acknowledges the failure of the existing legislation, owing to the difficulty of proof and the difficulty of getting impartial jurors. How this difficulty is to be overcome he does not explain beyond saying that it might be overcome by "suitable legislation"; though what this "suitable legislation" is, is just the kind of information we expect from a Senator. He deepens the mystery by remarking that if the "suitable legislation" were enforced with "the same vigor" shown "in punishing illicit distilling, the practice of polygamy might in a very few years be broken up." How this can be we fail to see. In polygamy the wife corresponds to the still in the crooked-whiskey business, and illicit distillation could never be broken up if the still could not be destroyed and the whiskey spilt, or if the still, when it heard the officers coming, ran off with the distiller or clung to him and refused to be separated from him. Senator Edmunds does not propose that we should serve Mormon wives as we serve illicit stills, that is, confiscate or destroy them. Toward the close he grows a little more practical, and says that the encouragement of non-Mormon immigration would have a valuable effect in the right direction, and also suggests the annexation of the Territory to adjoining States and Territories as possibly an "effectual disposition of the subject." But then how is non-Mormon immigration to be encouraged? By the Government, or by volunteer efforts, as in the case of Kansas and Missouri?

District Attorney Beatty has written another letter on the subject of polygamy, in which he makes several suggestions as to changes in the law. He would, first, make the living in and practice of polygamy a criminal offence, just as the polygamous marriage itself is now. The difficulty, however, with this is that, unless the mere fact that a number of women live under the same roof with a man is to be taken as proof of the practice of polygamy (which involves a serious change of the law of evidence), it would be just as difficult to prove the cohabitation as to prove the marriage. Again, he would have wives made competent witnesses in all cases, on the theory that some of them would be willing witnesses, while others could be forced to testify. But there is no reason why they should be willing to testify, as their coming forward would merely have the result of making them outcasts from the only social existence in which they have any position, and the idea that they can be forced to testify is absurd. Any attempt of the sort would be a kind of legal persecution; it would probably be very welcome to the Mormons, for it was by persecution that the church was originally built up. Mr. Beatty also advocates the disfranchisement of all polygamists, including of course the women, who, after having been given the suffrage in the interests of monogamy, have basely used it to further those of Mormonism. The more of Mr. Beatty's letters we read the more convinced we are that Judge Poland, after all, showed that he understood the real difficulty in the case better than any one when he used to ridicule in Congress the idea that the "Mormon problem" could be solved by simply legal means. Any useful bill for the alteration of the law of marriage in Utah, he said, must wind up with the provision that "the President shall have power to enforce the provisions of this act by means of United States troops."

The London *Economist* sees in the new foreign policy of the United States instituted by Mr. Blaine and apparently supported by President Arthur a probable expenditure for naval and military force—without which the new foreign policy would be mere wind—sufficient to reduce the Treasury surplus by one-third if not more. It adds, however: "We may be wrong, for the whole body of the American people is inscrutable, invariably gets its way, and rarely makes mistakes." This saving clause contains the truth in a nutshell. There is no evidence and has been none from the outset that the traditional policy of the country as regards foreign affairs—aversion to entangling alliances and complications with other countries, and especially to such as are likely to lead to war—has been weakened or altered in the public mind in the slightest degree by the recent sallies of Mr. Blaine in the field of diplomacy. This traditional policy applies to South America, to Central America, and to the West Indies as well as to Europe, and the Monroe doctrine itself is in harmony with it. The central and governing idea of the Monroe doctrine is the prevention of foreign complication and foreign wars by the application of the principle *obsta principiis*. The rejection of San Domingo, when its annexation was pressed by General Grant at the height of his popularity, was grounded partly upon the apprehension that its possession by us might lead to foreign complications. The refusal of Congress to appropriate money for the purchase of St. Thomas, after a treaty of cession had been negotiated with Denmark, was based largely upon the same apprehension. In so far as the policy instituted by Mr. Blaine can be shown to tend toward lasting peace with foreign countries, and the avoidance of international disputes and war expenditures, it will be sustained by public opinion; but the country was never less inclined to pick quarrels with other nations than now, and never less disposed to throw a dollar of its treasury surplus into the gulf of war.

The Guiteau trial became rather more scandalous than usual on Friday. The language addressed by the prisoner to the jury—"One of the jury has lost his wife, and I am sorry for it. I go so far as to say that one of those jurymen will get off that panel as an act of God, if I can't get justice in any other way. God knows that I would not have shot the President if he had not put it on me"—if it means anything, means a threat that he will, if pushed to extremities, kill one of them. Of course, there is not much chance of his doing anything of the kind; but that such a threat should be made in open court, and allowed to go unpunished by the judge, is an event entirely unprecedented in the annals of criminal jurisprudence. Guiteau, who has been disgusted with Mr. Scoville's unskilful cross-examination, on Friday called in the services of one of the witnesses, Charles H. Reed, of Chicago, and requested that he be allowed to act as counsel also. No objection was made to this, and Mr. Reed, whose method of cross-examination is apparently as much too searching as Mr. Scoville's is too mild, was formally taken into the case, and introduced by Guiteau to the Court, the jury, and the American people.

The comments of the English press on the Guiteau trial are extremely humiliating to our pride, not because they are severe, but because they are in the main well founded and just. Fair criticism upon Judge Cox is not directed against the latitude allowed to the prisoner in court, although this has been stretched at times beyond reasonable limits, but against the *tout ensemble* of the trial. Neither law, nor precedent, nor custom, nor public opinion, warrants the admission day after day of crowds of people to the court-room to laugh and applaud at the sharp hits of the prisoner, counsel, and witnesses. When we reflect that this is the trial of the murderer of a beloved President, the last scene and climax of the most appalling tragedy of recent times, the falling of the curtain upon a nation

in mourning, the transactions in and around the court-room where the trial is going on are simply ghastly and horrible. The judge, it seems, has so far awakened to a sense of the fitness of things as to order that the prisoner's cell be closed against reporters and visitors, so that his daily reception and levee, which is incense to his nostrils, may be no longer indulged in. But even this order, it is said, was made not in behalf of public decorum, but at the instance of the prisoner's counsel. A dark threat was thrown out by the judge last week, implying that if the prisoner did not behave himself he would be placed in the dock. Seeing that the dock is provided expressly for the reception of prisoners on trial for felonious crimes, and that Guiteau has a hundred times violated all the proprieties of a common police court, the hint that he may yet be placed in the dock is nearly as terrible as the threat of the able-bodied æsthete in the play of "Patience" to launch a curse at the head of the other able-bodied æsthete. It is rather late in the day for the judge to resort to extremities with the prisoner, but he can at least keep order among the spectators and outsiders, whose presence and attention are the joy and inspiration and breath of life of the prisoner.

A bill has already been passed by one branch of the Virginia Legislature, and will soon be passed by the other, to relieve from legal disability some two or three score of more or less eminent citizens who, as principals or seconds, were engaged in duels during the last two political canvasses in the State. No physical disability resulted from these desperate encounters, with a single exception in the case of Mr. R. R. Campbell, who "lost a finger." Whether this conspicuous hero of two campaigns was wounded by the discharge of his adversary's pistol or his own, does not appear. If then the political disqualifications of the participants are removed, these affairs will turn out to be quite harmless. Of course the law against duelling is a farce if the Legislature suspends its operation upon persons who incur its penalties. There is a reason why, from the duellist's own point of view, political disability should be enforced. It has come to be well understood that there is no bodily risk in "going out"; but the theory of "the code" is that some risk is essential to the "vindication" of "wounded honor." If the law is not enforced, there is no risk at all; but if it is rigidly executed, while the upholders of duelling can no longer say that an offence is "wiped out in blood," they may at least say that it is "wiped out in disability." There is another aspect of the question which is more serious. Many of these men were disqualified from holding office by their violation of the criminal laws of the State before the recent election; so that when they were voted for they were not eligible. But if they were not eligible, the candidates who ran against them must have been elected. They can no more be entitled to their offices than if they were dead or in prison. If all this is so, it would seem as if the proposed act were unconstitutional, so far as it is intended to affect the titles to these offices. As a general rule, the title to office, once fixed by election, cannot be altered by subsequent legislation any more than the title to land. The question could be brought up, of course, by a *quo warranto* suit.

A somewhat important meeting of the Socialist-Labor party began on Monday in this city. It was the regular biennial session of the National Convention, and the usual report of the Executive Committee was read. It shows, what every one must have expected, that during the last five years the party has been steadily declining in strength. The explanation offered is that so often put forward by the leaders of waning movements—"internal dissensions and lack of effort." Since 1876, when the party was organized, only $600 have been expended for agitation. During the same time $15,000 or $20,000 have been lost in attempts to establish newspapers, and over $10,000 have been sent to Germany. The failure of the Labor Socialists to make any mark in politics is due really to the fact that the rapidly returning prosperity of the country has made their doctrines and principles every year more and more unpopular and unintelligible. The attitude of the Socialist in the midst of a general "boom" is one which cannot be maintained. Good wages and plenty of work have a similar effect upon the wage-receiver to that which certain and increasing dividends have upon the bloated bondholder. They make him indifferent to the numerous wrongs under which the world groans, and which greenback parties, and land leagues, and trade-unions, and granges, and socialism are intended to redress, and sink him in a contented indifference to the future of humanity. This is, of course, little less than appalling to the enthusiasts who in times of scarcity and depression are able to turn his wretchedness to such good account.

The public has generally made up its mind that the history of the elevated railroads in this city is of a very scandalous character, but it has never shown a very angry feeling against the operators who have created the scandal; and it is to be feared that the *Times's* "Chapter of Manhattan" will not excite that active indignation which it really merits. The *Times* arraigns not only Jay Gould, Cyrus Field, and Russell Sage, but ex-Judge Dillon, Mr. Hopkins, Mr. Ward (the Attorney-General), and Judge Westbrook, to say nothing of "the daily sheet belonging to Jay Gould, and making pretensions to influence as a newspaper"—in other words, the *World*. The entire "chapter" is too long and complicated for any rival historian, except one of those employed on a daily sheet owned by Jay Gould, to go into in all its details, and indeed some of them have made their way into print piecemeal already. The person most seriously compromised in the eye of the law seems after all to be not a monopolist but a judge. The monopolists have acquired the knack of doing the most outrageous things without exposing themselves to punishment; but a Judge of the Supreme Court cannot hold chambers or grant orders in the private offices of a man like Jay Gould, as the *Times* distinctly charges that Judge Westbrook has done on two distinct occasions, without serious risk. The charges of the *Times* against both the Judge and the Attorney-General are too serious to be passed over by them in silence.

Booth's Theatre was sold on Thursday for about a third of its original cost, and this is said to mean its final extinction as a theatre, and the conversion of the property to business purposes. The story of the building as a theatrical venture is a very old one. An enthusiastic manager, with a hobby for elevating the drama, conceives the idea that money can be made by doing it—the fact being that theatrical reform has never been, and can never be, made to pay the rate of profit which theatrical business risks make necessary. There is no business more speculative, and none, consequently, in which, to get money, it is more necessary for the manager to make it his first object to find out not what the public ought to like, but what it does like. To make a theatre the means of educating the popular taste is indeed possible; but only on the conditions which are recognized in other countries—that money must be sacrificed for the purpose. Whether the state gives it, or a private patron, does not make any difference, except that the resources of the former are practically inexhaustible, while those of the latter are not. Mr. Booth built one of the best theatres in the world, and spared no expense in adapting it to the great Shaksperian revival in which he has played such a conspicuous part, and threw good money after bad until all was gone. But the public would not do their part. They liked the idea of theatrical elevation and improvement, but for amusement they liked something else. And so the Shaksperian revival and the theatre and Mr. Booth all failed lamentably, and "dry goods" will soon pervade a locality solemnly dedicated only a few short years ago to the cause of dramatic reform.

The brigand Randazzo, or Esposito, has been found guilty of murder, presumably in the first degree, but, on account of "extenuating circumstances," has been sentenced to penal servitude for life. This disposes of the question of his return to this country by Italy. Whatever the State Department might do if his identity were still in dispute, it is not likely to take much trouble about rectifying irregularities in the method of his extradition now that he has turned out to be the man really "wanted" by the Italian police, and not an innocent New Orleans fruit-seller. Nevertheless, we trust that Messrs. Shipman and Choate will press their demand for an investigation by the Senate, for the case reveals a condition of the law which is likely hereafter to lead to great abuses. It is difficult, by the way, to guess what the "extenuating circumstances" shown on the trial can be. If Randazzo's whole career was gone into on the trial as it was in the extradition papers, his crimes were all aggravated rather than extenuated by the circumstances that attended them; unless, indeed, Sicilian common law still regards the occupation of highway robbery as extenuating occasional mutilation and murder.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

SPEAKER KEIFER announced the committees of the House of Representatives on Wednesday. The principal chairmen are as follows: Ways and Means, Kelley, of Pennsylvania; Banking and Currency, Crapo, of Massachusetts; Appropriations, Hiscock, of New York; Elections, Calkins, of Indiana; Judiciary, Reed, of Maine; Coinage, Weights and Measures, Fisher, of Pennsylvania; Pacific Railroads, Hazleton, of Wisconsin; Foreign Affairs, Williams, of Wisconsin; Expenditures of the Navy Department, Robeson, of New Jersey; Reform in the Civil Service, Orth, of Indiana. As usual, the selections have given a good deal of dissatisfaction, the Democrats especially complaining that their leading men have not been justly treated. Mr. Keifer has introduced a new precedent by giving the Democrats—the party in the minority—a majority of one committee—that on Public Expenditures—and making ex-Speaker Randall its chairman. It is said that two new and important committees will be formed after the holiday recess; that one of them will have charge of the Panama Canal question, and that Mr. Kasson, of Iowa, will be its chairman.

It is said that the Morrill Tariff Commission Bill is not so strong as the vote of the Senate Finance Committee in favor of reporting it would indicate, several members of the committee who oppose it voting to report it in order to bring it up for discussion.

The House Committee on Elections is preparing to give speedy hearings in all the contested-election cases. The committee has been divided into three sub-committees, and seven cases have been referred to each of these.

Postmaster-General James having written to Mr. George Bliss, urging that civil suits be begun against the members of the Star-route ring, for the recovery of their plunder, Mr. Bliss says in his reply that the civil proceedings have been delayed because of the vast amount of necessary work in preparing the criminal cases. The prosecutors, he says, are ready to issue subpœnas for sixty witnesses in regard to one of the ring "combinations," and he adds: "A good deal of progress has been made in the preparation of the criminal cases connected with the other great combinations; so much, indeed, that, so far as I can see, there is no danger that the Statute of Limitations can bar any of the cases. . . . Both civil and criminal proceedings will be pushed as rapidly as is consistent with justice to the Government and to the defendants, though it is quite possible that you will not find the progress so rapid as you desire."

Professor J. E. Hilgard has been appointed Superintendent of the Coast and Geodetic Survey.

The Guiteau trial was resumed on Wednesday. The principal testimony has been given by experts who have testified that the assassin is sane. Among these have been Dr. Worcester, of Salem, Mass., who was first called by the defence; Dr. Damon, of Auburn, N. Y.; Dr. S. H. Talcott, superintendent of the Homœopathic Asylum for the Insane, at Middletown, N. Y.; Dr. H. P. Stearns, superintendent of the Hartford (Conn.) Retreat for the Insane; Dr. J. Strong, superintendent of the Asylum for the Insane at Cleveland, Ohio; Dr. A. M. Shew, superintendent of the Hospital for the Insane at Middletown, Conn., and Dr. D. Evarts, superintendent of a private asylum for the insane in Ohio. All of these gentlemen had examined Guiteau in his cell and watched him in the court-room. Their testimony constantly excited the prisoner to outbursts of passion, in which he berated his counsel, the witnesses, and the prosecutors. He admits now that he is sane at present, but says he was insane when he shot the President. On Friday he said, as if realizing his danger: "I guess it will take an act of God to straighten this thing out, but I think it will come. I would rather have God Almighty on my side and have the whole world against me, with all Corkhill's money back of it. I will take my chance of that. I am not afraid to die. I would as lief die on the gallows as die from malaria or anything else. I shall not go till my time comes. I am happy. I sleep well, I eat well, and I feel well." At another time, addressing the jury, he said: "One of the jury has lost his wife, and I am sorry for it. I go so far as to say that one of those jurymen will get off that panel as an act of God, if I can't get justice in any other way. God knows that I would not have shot the President if he had not put it on me." On Saturday his language to the counsel for the prosecution was so abusive that Judge Cox warned him that if it was continued he (Guiteau) would be placed in the dock. On Friday morning the prisoner announced in a short speech that while Mr. Scoville was a good real-estate lawyer he knew little about criminal law, and he added: "My friend Charles H. Reed, who was for twelve years District Attorney at Chicago and a first-class lawyer, has very kindly consented to assume the charge of this case, and I introduce him to your honor, the jury, and the American people." Since that time Mr. Reed has taken a leading part in the defence. When the court was adjourned on Saturday afternoon until Tuesday, Guiteau said: "To-morrow is Christmas. I wish the Court, the jury, and the American people and everybody else a happy Christmas. I am happy." Dr. MacDonald, Superintendent of the Ward's Island (N. Y.) Insane Hospital, testified Tuesday that in his talks with Guiteau the latter had told him he expected to be acquitted on the ground of insanity, and would then be taken to an asylum. "And stay there all your life?" asked the Doctor. "Oh, no," said he. "I have been studying up the law on that subject. I shall have a commission of lunacy. They will adjudge me sane and I shall be released." Guiteau, on being asked why he published the statement regarding the progress of the trial, which was telegraphed hence to some newspapers on December 17, replied: "I need money. Business is business. I was offered a hundred dollars to make that statement for publication, and I took it. I shall be glad to furnish more of the same kind, at the price, at any time."

There is excellent authority for saying that the Court of Inquiry found Whittaker, the colored cadet, guilty of cutting his own ears.

The Virginia House of Delegates on Wednesday passed a bill removing the political disabilities of all persons incurred under the duelling laws during the last two political campaigns in that State. Among those affected are W. C. Elam, editor of the *Whig*, General W. Payne and Judge Smith, Congressman George D. Wise, Senator-elect H. H. Riddleberger, United States District Attorney L. L. Lewis, and General Peyton Wise.

The Executive Committee of the Independent Republicans of Pennsylvania has issued an address to the people of the State. While asserting that the great majority of the people of the State are Republican in their views and sympathies, it says that the fact "that their party allegiance has been weakened, and that discontent and dissatisfaction prevail" is proved by the result of the late State election, in which "over 40,000 Republicans refused their support to the party's candidate or gave it to another." Pointing out the importance of the election next year, they add: "We enjoin upon you the importance of making the next State Convention a thoroughly representative body of the Republicans of the Commonwealth. The just sense of the party demands, and has a right to demand, that the delegates shall come from the people through the legitimate local representative conventions, and that the State Convention shall be held at a time which will permit the fair, full, and deliberate expression of the party will."

A State Senate committee of Arkansas has found a deficit of $164,000 in the accounts of the present Governor, Mr. Churchill, while he was treasurer.

Gov. Long has tendered to Mr. William G. Russell, a distinguished lawyer of Boston, the position of Chief-Justice of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts, made vacant by the appointment of Judge Gray to the U. S. Supreme Court.

It is understood that the committee of the American Bar Association will, at its meeting in this city in February, adopt the plan for the relief of the United States Supreme Court which contemplates the establishment of another court to consist of fifteen judges. The justices oppose the proposed division of the present court as tending to lessen its dignity.

A census report shows that at the close of the census year in 1880 there were 515 steamers of all classes owned in the New England States, measuring 120,177.83 tons, and valued at $8,041,250. The passenger movement in 1880, amounting to 15,587,280 passengers, may be divided into 12,042,889 ferry, and 3,544,391 regular and excursion passengers. The freight traffic amounted to 2,680.874 tons. The number of lives lost by accidents was 29, of which 27 were passenger.

The Executive Committee of the Connecticut Bible Society has furnished for publication a long rejoinder to the reply of the American Bible Society to criticisms of its last annual report. Not only are the serious charges heretofore made by the Connecticut Society restated and reaffirmed, but some very severe comments are made on the method of business pursued by the American Bible Society.

The Rev. Dr. Leonard Bacon, D. D., LL.D., died suddenly in New Haven of heart disease on Saturday, aged almost eighty years. He has long been one of the leading Congregational clergymen of New England, having become pastor of the Centre Church of New Haven in 1825, and retained his active pastorate until 1866. Since the latter date he has held a professorship in the Yale Divinity School. He took an active part in the slavery discussions before the war, siding with the Colonization and later with the Free-soil advocates. He has long had a leading share in the government of Yale College. As an editor he was connected with the *Christian Spectator*, of New Haven, the *New Englander*, and the *Independent* of this city, and was the author of several books.

F. A. Palmer, City Auditor of Accounts, of Newark, N. J., delivered himself up to the warden of the county jail on Wednesday, confessing that he was a defaulter to the amount of $125,000, having lost the money in Wall Street speculations. The announcement was a complete surprise. Investigation shows that Palmer accomplished his peculations, partly at least, by forgery. On Thursday the Mayor suspended City Treasurer Winants, who confessed that he had lent Palmer money belonging to the city. The same day W. A. Hall, chief clerk in the City Comptroller's office, disappeared, and it was reported that he had fled to Canada. It is found that he has embezzled money paid in for arrears of taxes.

William V. Brown, assistant bookkeeper, and S. V. Halloway, paying teller of the Poughkeepsie (N. Y.) National Bank, are charged with a heavy embezzlement of the bank's funds. Brown was arrested and put under bonds last Wednesday, and Halloway, who has been put into a lunatic asylum by his relatives, is under close arrest.

The American committee on the Bartholdi statue, to be erected by the French people in New York Harbor, has issued an address to the American people asking them to contribute money to secure a proper pedestal to the monument. It is estimated that $250,000 will be needed for this purpose, as it is proposed to have one that will be at least 160 feet high,

the desire being to have the entire piece 300 feet in height.

The will of Samuel Wood, leaving $1,500,000 to found a free college of music in this city, having been sustained by the Surrogate, the Trustees of the College will organize this week. They want an endowment fund that will give them at least $50,000 a year income, and if Mr. Wood's gift is not sufficient for this, several wealthy gentlemen have offered to supply the deficiency. Gounod is talked of as the Director of the College.

Booth's Theatre, in this city, has been sold for $525,000, and will, after May 1, 1883, be altered for use as a dry-goods store.

Two destructive fires occurred in this city on Christmas Eve. In one, on Maiden Lane, South and De Peyster Streets, two warehouses filled with tobacco, liquors, teas, and other goods, were burned out. The loss is estimated at nearly $2,500,000. The other fire occurred in a building at No. 359 Broadway, occupied by a number of mercantile firms. The loss is about $235,000.

The disaster in Vienna has caused thorough examinations to be made of the theatres in this and some other cities, and where additional precautions were found necessary they have been ordered.

Some wealthy members of the Methodist Episcopal Church in this city have subscribed $150,000 to build a handsome church of their denomination at Madison Avenue and Sixtieth Street. The church and lot, chapel attached, will cost $225,000.

Phillips, Marshall & Co., of London, have concluded the purchase of 1,300,000 acres of land from the State of Mississippi; 767,000 acres are known as the "levee lands," and are situated mostly in the Yazoo delta, comprising some of the richest cotton and timber land in the South. The intention of the purchasers is to improve, colonize, and cultivate these lands.

While men were unloading the steamer *West Point*, at West Point, Va., on Monday, a terrible explosion, from some cause as yet unexplained, occurred on board, resulting in the death of nineteen of the men at work. The *West Point* ran up the York River from Baltimore. This was her first trip.

FOREIGN.

No further news has been heard from the crew of the *Jeannette* that is later than the report announcing the wreck of the vessel. Persons who are best acquainted with the country which the members of the expedition have reached say that they will receive only the kindest treatment, and predict that the men in the boat which has not been heard from are safe, and in good hands. The Russian Government has ordered an active search for this boat. Mr. Bennett has sent to Russia the $4,000 needed for the relief of the explorers, and the State Department has telegraphed to St. Petersburg orders that every assistance be extended them. Mr. George Kennan, a well-known writer, who has travelled widely in northeastern Asia, says the wrecked explorers may return home by either of the following routes: First, they may go overland to St. Petersburg by the Imperial Russian Post by way of Irkutsk, Tomsk, Omsk, Ekaterineburg, and Moscow. Second, they may be sent eastward across the Stanovoi Mountains on reindeer sledges to the seaport of Okhotsk, on the Okhotsk Sea, and be there called for next summer by a vessel from America. Third, they may go up the Lena River by post this winter, or by steamer in the spring, and thence by post or steamer down the Amoor to Nikolaievsk, where they may be called for, as soon as navigation opens in the summer by one of our ships from the Asiatic station. Mr. P. M. D. Collins, who was employed in telegraph building in Siberia in 1865, says their best route will be by way of Moscow; that they will travel comfortably in sledges at the rate of 130 miles a day, and that the kindest hospitality will be extended to them.

Mr. Leigh Smith, an Englishman, started to explore Franz Josef Land in his yacht, the *Eira*, last summer, and had no intention of wintering in the Arctic. Fears have been entertained for his safety, and relief measures have been proposed in England. Now, however, a Norwegian whaler reports seeing the *Eira* on July 2, steaming southward, and he feels certain that Mr. Smith has reached Franz Josef Land, and that he may have been able to push still nearer to the Pole. The English Admiralty has decided to send a vessel in search of Mr. Smith next spring.

The fate of the overdue steamer *City of Bath*, from Bristol to this city, was made known on Wednesday by the arrival of seventeen of her crew at Liverpool. The steamer sprang aleak off Newfoundland and sank, and the crew took to two boats. One of the boats capsized, and the captain and four of the crew were drowned. The others were picked up by a bark and taken to Liverpool.

Mr. William Shaw, member of Parliament for Cork County, Ireland, has written a letter giving his reasons for withdrawing from the League. He thinks the League as now constituted is unfitted to act effectively, and he does not sympathize with its apparent aims. The only solution of the Irish difficulty will be, he thinks, a measure of federalism, with which, he maintains, leading statesmen will be prepared to deal in a generous manner when the state of the public feeling permits the question to be approached. Miss Reynolds, of the Ladies' Land League, charged with abetting a criminal conspiracy to prevent payment of rent, was ordered either to find bail to keep the peace for six months or undergo a month's imprisonment. She refused to give bail, and went to jail. Mr. Pigott, former proprietor of the Dublin *Irishman*, publishes a letter saying he believes that Fenianism is practically extinct in America and in Ireland, and nearly so in Great Britain; that the "no-rent" manifesto has caused such a run upon the resources of the Land League that they must soon be exhausted; and that probably a general adoption of the "no-rent" policy will lead to such exasperation that there will be organized attacks on the military and police, which attacks can be effectually stamped out, and the League with them. The "suspect" Moore has been released from Kilmainham prison on condition of his emigrating. Mr. Stenson, late editor of the Boyle *Herald* and formerly secretary to Mr. Sexton, has been arrested at Sligo, under the Coercion Act, and conveyed to Galway. The *Pall Mall Gazette* believes it to be substantially true that the Government has divided the disturbed localities of Ireland into five or six districts, each of which is to be under a superior sort of magistrate, who will be able to act without previous superior sanction, and have entire control of the troops and police, with a view to prompt action in the event of disturbance. The *Gazette* adds that possibly this is a preliminary step toward the enforcement of the payment of rent.

At a meeting of the Prussian Cabinet on Friday, Prince Bismarck presiding, the principles of the bill for a revision of the May laws were agreed to. The bill, while removing the more stringent provisions, leaves many safeguards for the authority of the state.

It is announced that the Austro-Hungarian Lloyd will start direct steamship communication with the United States and Brazil. The first steamer will sail on the 25th of January for New York, and the second, for Brazil, in February.

The corrected list of victims of the theatre fire at Vienna reduces the number to 449. Increased precautions in regard to the safety of theatres have been ordered in different European cities. The German Minister of the Interior has approved stringent rules for this purpose. The dramatic critics of London have formally condemned the unsafe condition of the theatres in that city, and passed resolutions urging the appointment of a Government officer who shall be held responsible for their safety.

During the celebration of High Mass in a church in Warsaw, Russia, on Sunday, an arrested pickpocket, in order to escape, cried, "Fire!" This caused a panic, in which thirty persons were fatally injured and many others injured less seriously. The culprit being a Jew, much feeling exists against his coreligionists. Shops have been gutted and the military have been called out.

In the trial by court martial at Miejin, Russia, of persons who participated in the anti-Jewish riots last August, among the prisoners are some wealthy merchants accused of inciting the mob.

Another plot to kill the Czar has been discovered. Had he passed through a certain street as expected, nothing, it is said, would have saved him.

At a meeting of bankers and merchants in London on Thursday, a resolution was passed in favor of the formation of an association to consider the rehabilitation of silver, and Mr. H. H. Gibbs, a director of the Bank of England, was chosen president of the council.

The death is announced of John Ludwig Kraff, the African explorer and missionary, and of Grenville Murray, journalist, and author of 'The Member for Paris' and 'Side Lights on English Society.'

The troops despatched by the Emperor of Morocco to capture Chief Bou Amena have joined the latter in proclaiming a holy war against the French in Algiers and Morocco, and have defeated the tribes who refused to join them. The revolt is spreading.

Three of the large tribes in the southern part of Tunis hold out against the French.

The Italian Senate has adopted the whole Reform Bill, including the clause giving the right to vote to all who can read and write.

Esposito, the Italian brigand, who was arrested in this country, has been found guilty at Palermo, Italy, but in consequence of extenuating circumstances in regard to the murder with which he was charged he has been sentenced to life servitude.

Mount Vesuvius is in a state of increasing eruption.

The Pope, in his address to the Cardinals at his Christmas-eve reception, said that his position was becoming more and more intolerable; when he claimed temporal power, in order to secure independence of spiritual power, he was accused of being a rebel and an enemy to Italy. He expects still greater persecutions to come.

Mr. O'Donovan, the correspondent of the London *Daily News*, who recently arrived at Constantinople from Merv, where he had been in prison, was arrested on Wednesday on the charge of publicly insulting the Sultan, and sentenced to six months' imprisonment. He has, however, been pardoned.

The Japanese Government is about to establish a Central Bank, with a capital of $20,000,000, in order to render the Government independent of foreign banks, and to encourage direct trade.

There has been a rumor in South America that the United States steamer *Alaska* has been fired into and damaged so seriously that she had to return to Callao for repairs. This report is not credited at Washington.

The Canadian authorities have seized a number of cars and some other property belonging to the Pullman Palace Car Company, alleging that the company sends Canadian-built cars into the United States for furnishing and repairs and then uses them in the Dominion without payment of duty. The claim against the company is for $160,000.

THE NEXT STAGE OF THE ADMINISTRATION.

EVERY Administration has its honeymoon. It is that period at its beginning when everybody is disposed to put the most favorable construction upon all its acts, and when enthusiastic newspaper writers decorate it with all sorts of superior faculties and statesmanlike purposes. This is largely owing to the good nature of the American people, as well as to the honorable desire of every just man that those who have a difficult task before them should also have a fair chance and a pleasant start. This sentiment is so general that even those who cherish feelings unfriendly to the Administration will, during that period, be careful to restrain the manifestation of their hostility. But this honeymoon seldom lasts very long. It is apt to wane as soon as any of the public expectations excited by premature and unreasonable enthusiasm are disappointed ; and criticism, fair and unfair, then emerges with a sharpness proportioned to the restraint which it has endured. President Arthur has gone through the first period, and is now about entering upon the second. He has hitherto had the advantage of doing better than his opponents predicted he would do, disappointing evil anticipations. The standard by which he has been judged was not a very high one, and it was comparatively easy to come up to it, or even to rise above it. But the credit thus gained has induced his friends to indulge in glowing predictions as to his future achievements, and consequently the standard will now be much higher and far more difficult to reach.

No reasonable man in the Presidential office will permit the good-natured confidence offered to the Administration during its honeymoon to delude him into the belief that, whatever he may do, he will always have the approval of the public. The manner in which President Arthur's official acts have been received is in this respect significant and instructive. His message was greeted with general applause, which seems to indicate that on matters of public policy, so far as he has pronounced himself upon them, there is no vital disagreement between him and the majority of the people, especially if what he said about our foreign relations and about the civil service is construed in a sense favorable to peace and to reform. But it is in the matter of appointments to office that trouble is looked for, and it is characteristic of our wretched service system that it should be so. President Arthur has made four appointments of Cabinet officers, and the criticism passed upon them—a criticism made, on the whole, in a very friendly spirit—points out clearly the direction in which the trouble lies. When the President had filled the departments of the Treasury, of State, and of Justice with new men, it was remarked that they were all from the same wing of the party, and that wing a minority. But while this seemed of doubtful propriety from the point of view of party politics, public opinion was evidently willing to take into account the fact that Mr. Folger was a prominent jurist, of recognized business capacity, that Mr. Frelinghuysen was a public man of large experience and a conservative spirit, likely to take us safely through the muddles in which we have recently become involved, and that Mr. Brewster was a lawyer of high standing, who could be counted upon to push the prosecution of the Star-route and other frauds with vigor, and that therefore for these appointments other reasons might be produced than mere partisan preference. Strikingly different was the expression of public judgment when, in the Post-office Department, the place of a public officer who had achieved remarkable success through strict business methods, was filled with a gentleman for whose appointment no reason could be given but the desire of the President to revitalize a third-term partisan, who had been defeated by the people of his own State just on account of such partisanship. It can scarcely have escaped the President's attention how sharply that selection was criticised by a large majority of the Republican press. The lesson to be drawn from this significant fact is, that while there are many citizens who care very little from what party or faction a man be taken to do a certain business, provided he be well qualified for doing it, even partisans will express their dissatisfaction when men are selected for the performance of important public duties for merely partisan reasons, without any regard to their business qualifications.

It is a matter of history that the principal troubles of Administrations have been about the offices, and that their greatest failures and most stinging disappointments have been caused by attempts on their part to accomplish political objects by means of the patronage. Nothing could be more instructive in this respect than the Administrations of Mr. Buchanan and General Grant. If, as is thought by some of President Arthur's friends as well as some of his opponents, it is his purpose to turn the old third-term or "Stalwart" faction, which now forms only a small minority of the party, into a majority, or to subjugate the majority to it by giving it all the offices, it requires no gift of prophecy to predict that he will wretchedly fail in his purpose and wreck his Administration upon that very point. The only safe course for any Administration under the present state of public sentiment is to treat the offices of the Government as places of work, trust, and responsibility, and to select for each one the best man available, in whatever party or faction he may be found. As experience, recent as well as remote, shows, Administrations will impair their general success in the measure in which they depart from that principle.

THE RAILROAD WAR.

THE railroad war, after much shuffling and negotiation, has been renewed with extreme bitterness. It would, perhaps, be more proper to say that it has never been discontinued since it broke out last summer. For the first time since railways began to compete with water lines in the carriage of heavy goods, the closing of lake and canal navigation has had no effect to advance rates. It is reported that grain is now taken from Chicago to New York at ten cents per hundred pounds, or a trifle more than one-fifth of a cent per ton per mile. According to all estimates of actual cost of handling, this rate must involve a considerable loss to the carriers, so that the more business a railroad company does at this price the less money it will have. The most commonly accepted estimate of actual cost of hauling for that distance is one half cent per ton per mile. That is to say, if a railroad charges that rate it will receive only as much money as it pays out in doing the business. The economies applied to railway transportation as now conducted on the east-and-west trunk lines would have been considered simply fabulous twenty years ago, when the cost of the cheapest known mode of transportation—that of long ocean voyages in sailing ships—was estimated by good authority at one half cent per ton per mile, while the minimum cost by railway was supposed to be three times as much.

The war of rates is no longer confined to the railroad companies themselves. It has been transferred to the commercial bodies of New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, all of which have held meetings and passed resolutions sustaining the action of the railways terminating at those cities respectively. The New York merchants sustain Mr. Vanderbilt in insisting on an equal rate on east-bound products for this city, notwithstanding its somewhat greater distance from the principal shipping points in the West. The Philadelphia and Baltimore merchants sustain Mr. Roberts and Mr. Garrett in insisting on differential rates for those cities, on account of their natural advantages as regards distance and fuel. The New Yorkers would show egregious folly if they did not give their hearty support to any railroad policy calculated to throw additional trade into their laps without cost to themselves. The men of Philadelphia and Baltimore would be equally shortsighted if they did not "rally" to the support of differential rates. Finally, the West cannot be otherwise than favorable to any policy or conflict of policies which keeps rates at or below the actual cost of hauling their products to the seaboard. The expenses of the war must be paid by somebody, of course. They are in fact paid partly by the railway shareholders and partly by the local traffic. The recent reports of the New York Central, Lake Shore, and Canada Southern roads show a large decrease in earnings on a considerable increase of business. The New York Central and Lake Shore seem to be still earning fair dividends, but this result, if actually attained, is attained only by discriminating against local and non-competing points, charging them higher rates relatively if not actually than the more distant places where competition is keen. Thus the railroad war has tended and now tends to equalize the money value of farms hundreds or even thousands of miles apart, taking away the advantages of some as regards nearness of market and adding to those of others. This process has been going on with increasing force for thirty years, and its operation is felt by landowners in Great Britain perhaps even more severely than by any in our own country.

What is the cause of this railroad war, unexampled in point of severity and duration in the history of such contests? Many an-

swers to this question have been offered by the railroad men themselves—answers contradictory and even self-contradictory. The true answer must be one sufficient to account for the voluntarily incurred loss of millions of dollars by men whose sole purpose in life is to make money. Tenderness for the city of New York is not to be accounted a sufficient reason for Mr. Vanderbilt's stubborn persistence in the war of rates. Nor is it by any means apparent that if he could break down the principle of differential rates, the net result would repay him for the outlay. The most obvious reason for the beginning and continuance of the war is to be found in the fact that new lines of railway parallel with the New York Central and Lake Shore, extending from Jersey City, by way of Albany, Buffalo, and Cleveland, to Chicago, and running for long distances within a stone's throw of the old lines, are now in course of construction. These new lines are the New York, West Shore, and Buffalo, and the New York, Chicago, and St. Louis. It is said that the money required to finish them has already been obtained, and hence it is idle for Mr. Vanderbilt to expect to stop them by any possible reduction of rates. It is said, also, that if Mr. Vanderbilt had intended to "freeze them out," he would have begun before the money had been so largely subscribed and paid in, and, by putting rates down to a non-paying point, have frightened the subscribers out of the field. Possibly he desired them to build a road which should eventually fall into his hands at low figures. Possibly he did not determine in his own mind until midsummer of the present year that war to the knife was necessary to meet this new competition, the most formidable that has ever been offered to the lines under his control. However this may be, we can see no sufficient reason for the war except the threatened competition of these new roads.

If this be the true reason, it must be admitted that competition—the competition of an uncompleted line—has wrought reductions in freight and passenger rates, at least on through-business, which the wildest dreams of the anti-monopoly league had never pictured. It may be said that these reductions are not permanent, and probably they are not. No reduction can be permanent which puts the price of an article below first cost. But it will be impossible for the railroads, after teaching the lesson of low rates to the public, and after demonstrating that they can live under such rates, to go back to their former charges—to the *status quo ante bellum*. The permanent rates must be something lower than the old ones, and thus the public will be the gainers in the long run as they are indubitably the gainers now. It is impossible for the Vanderbilt lines, or for all the old lines together, to put a limit to railroad construction when the increase of business calls for it. The growth of railways will keep pace with the growth of the country in spite of them, and is more likely to outrun than fall short of the public needs. Present as well as past experience teaches that the interests involved in the east-and-west trunk lines, at all events, are too unwieldy, diverse, and conflicting to be combined together in such manner as to circumvent the law of competition for any great length of time; for whenever the profits of the old lines rise above a certain point new capital is tempted into the field.

THE PROTECTION OF CHILD PERFORMERS.

The case of the child Corinne, which has just come to an end, was not merely a dispute over the interpretation of local statutes, but presented some questions of general interest as well. The child, who is about ten years of age, was brought to New York by her guardians—she has no father or mother—to take part in some operatic performances. She and her guardians all live in Massachusetts. On her arrival in New York, the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children had her brought before Judge Donohue, on a charge of cruelty, asking that a new guardian be appointed, and that she be meanwhile handed over to the Society to be taken care of. There was no evidence of cruelty, and it was soon apparent that this was not the proper place to inquire into the guardianship of the child, as her existing guardians lived in another State, where all the evidence on the subject of their character and responsibility was to be found. It was a question for the courts of Massachusetts to decide, if it was to be gone into at all. Meanwhile the child became greatly alarmed and distressed at the prospect of protection held out by the benevolent philanthropists who had undertaken the case, and to secure her against any more protection she was carried off to New Jersey, upon which the judge got very angry, compared the case to that of Guiteau, and imposed bail upon the guardian who was supposed to have had a hand in the escape, in the enormous sum of $10,000. This of course led to the return of the child, upon which the judge became much calmer and heard the case. No testimony to show cruelty was introduced, it being proved, on the contrary, that she was maintained in great comfort and luxury, with a complete establishment, including a maid, a footman, carriage and horses, etc.; but a curious and novel attempt was made to establish the fact that her guardians were sacrificing her moral and spiritual capacities to the development of her vocal organs. She was made to say her prayers in court, and the examination practically covered the whole ground of her education. Finally, the charge of cruelty was dismissed, and she was released.

The case took a new turn on Friday last in the production of the child before the Mayor by counsel, who asked that she might be permitted to sing in opera in this city. The child, as we have said, earns her living by singing songs from popular operas of the day, and was brought to New York for the purpose of enabling her to do this at the Metropolitan Casino. She was advertised to appear there, but the proceedings set on foot by the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty prevented it, and Judge Donohue, in giving his final decision in the case, showed that the statute with regard to children expressly prohibited even performances of this kind, and consequently he required bail that the statute would not be violated.

The statute provides that:

"Any person having the care, custody, or control of any child under the age of sixteen years, who shall exhibit, use, or employ, or who shall in any manner, or under any pretence, sell, apprentice, give away, let out, . . . for the vocation . . . of singing, playing on musical instruments, rope or wire-walking, dancing, begging, or peddling, or as a gymnast, contortionist, rider, or acrobat, in any place whatsoever; or for or in any obscene, indecent, or immoral purpose, exhibition, or practice whatsoever, . . . shall be guilty of a misdemeanor."

And, whenever this statute is violated, it is the duty of the Society to bring such violation to the attention of the court, and ask that it be punished, and, if the case demands it, that the child be taken from the custody of those violating the law and placed where she will be protected.

This law practically prevents any child from singing in public, and that there was any such statute in existence was probably news to nine-tenths of the people who read Judge Donohue's opinion, particularly to those who, being in the habit of going to the theatre and opera, know that there is never a time in the year when some performance is not going on with a child or a troupe of children singing every night to admiring audiences, and without the slightest attempt at prevention being made. The explanation, it seems, is, that under the law the Mayor can license the musical performances which the statute forbids, and Mayor Grace decided under this on Friday that Corinne could sing, but could not be allowed to dance.

Taking all these proceedings together, it must be said that they show the law of this State on the subject to be in a very unsatisfactory condition. All laws for the protection of children must proceed on general principles which can be laid down in advance, and which can be enforced simply and readily by the courts. Actual cruelty to children can be prevented by a society like Mr. Gerry's, because cruelty is a fact which can be proved, like any other, by means of human testimony. There are various ways of employing young children for the public amusement, involving either excessive physical strain or exposure, which everybody knows are cruel and barbarous, and against which children can be protected just as they are against being engaged in unhealthy employments. Statutes for this purpose will probably always need an organized philanthropic society to enforce them. But when we find a law to prevent children from singing in public ameliorated by a provision that the Mayor may license them to sing in public, we get into a very different statutory region. The dispute that has been going on over Corinne has really been not a discussion about cruelty, but about the child's education. There never was any evidence of cruelty in the case; but the question was whether on the whole it was a good thing for her spiritual and moral welfare to earn money by singing songs from "Olivette" and "Pinafore" on a public stage. For the purpose of deciding this the State has provided a process which calls for the services of a Judge of the Supreme Court, four or five members of the bar, an incorporated society, and finally the Mayor of New York, and the result of the whole is that the matter is left just where nature and the circumstances of the case originally placed it, in

the hands of the guardians who have brought the child up. To attain this result many thousand dollars have been expended, much valuable time has been wasted, and a good deal of actual suffering has been inflicted upon the child herself.

Of course, if it were a well-established fact that no child of tender years could sing in public without injury, the whole thing ought to be prevented; but the discretion given to the Mayor shows that the Legislature never meant anything of this kind. But why should the discretion be vested in the Mayor? The enforcement of the statute is placed in the hands of the judge who hears all the evidence as to the child's physical condition, circumstances in life, etc. All these facts being within his knowledge, why should the Mayor be called in to hear the case all over again? The Mayor is not in virtue of his office a general protector or guardian of children; in fact, there is nothing more disconnected with the usual course of his duties. His licensing power in the case of public performances is based on the idea that he ought to have a police supervision of the character of the performances themselves, in their relations to the public as public exhibitions; not that he is a proper person to ascertain whether the performances are injurious to the moral and spiritual future of the performers.

But the statute ought to be confined to the original purpose which all such statutes are designed to further—the prevention of actual cruelty. Cases may of course arise in which making a child sing in public does involve actual cruelty, and then it ought to be stopped; but when, as in the majority of instances, it simply involves the question of the best way of bringing up the child, and the injurious effect upon its moral and spiritual future which theatrical training may have, mayors and judges and incorporated societies are not good agencies to provide for determining so delicate a matter. As long as the theatre continues to exist, some children will be fitted for theatrical life, of one kind or another, at a very early age. The determination of the question as to what children are fitted for this sort of life, and how early they shall begin it, can best be left where nature has left it, with their parents or guardians. What society can do is to protect the child against actual cruelty in the process. It can use all its moral agencies also to discourage exhibitions of children which have even a remotely demoralizing tendency. But beyond this it can hardly go with advantage.

BISMARCK, THE POPE, AND ITALY.

BERLIN, December 7.

THE proceedings of the Reichstag during the last week have thrown much new light upon our foreign policy, the present aims of the Chancellor, and the mutual relations of the political parties. Bismarck, on four succeeding days—viz., from November 28 to December 1 inst., made about half a dozen speeches, in which, although on the one hand he repeated himself over and over again, nevertheless, on the other, he developed some new and interesting points of view. I have seldom seen him so full of vitality and aggressive spirit. He fought in partly humorous, partly exasperated mood, and in the debate bore the brunt of the battle. While he was present none of his subordinates and assistants dared to utter a syllable; they obey him implicitly, and are proud of serving as his tools. The Chancellor is not a fluent speaker, and not at all an orator; but he always hits the point with a happy remark, a sharp word, and a significant jest. I have never seen a leading Minister who personally exposed himself so recklessly, and this often conciliates even his bitterest opponents.

"It is true," he said the other day, "that I may often have talked nonsense and still talk nonsense. I am even ashamed of myself when I make long speeches, thus taking up your time and my own, but I am bound to do so, as I have to defend my position and my budget. Keep to my measures and not to my words. What a blessing it is for you, gentlemen, that my person can always serve for your attacks! Suppose that some fine morning I should disappear through a trap-door. What would become of you if, the butt being gone, you could only rid yourselves of your bad humor by firing at each other?"

Notwithstanding these semi-humorous, semi-serious, and earnest appeals, Bismarck did not carry his point. He suffered his first defeat in the present session: his plan for the "Volkswirthschaftsrath" (*Conseil Supérieur*) was rejected by 169 to 83 votes. He had expected a larger minority, and was greatly incensed at losing his pet measure by two to one.

On the other hand, however, his statements about his relations to Rome and to the party of the Centre created a very painful sensation, which alienated even those of his admirers who had still considered it possible and expedient to submit to the Chancellor's dictates. He openly declared that he preferred an alliance with the Centre to one with the Liberals. This declaration proves that Bismarck is ready to pay the highest price for a peace with Rome, hoping to obtain in reward for his advances the assent of the Centre to his social and economical schemes. Thus he has put his seal on a Clerico-Conservative alliance. It is not quite a year ago since he declared that if confronted with such an eventuality, he would rather leave the management of public affairs to other hands. This assertion of the Chancellor, that the Centre can never become so dangerous to the Government as the Liberals, again proves how readily the most formidable lessons of history are put aside when it is inexpedient to remember them. Bismarck covers this change of principle by likening it to a mere strategic movement, and adds that to ask of him an invariable mode of procedure would be just as foolish as to demand that his venerable friend Moltke should fight the battle of Sedan with the same manœuvres as that of Mars-la-Tour.

This declaration has destroyed the last remnant of illusion among the Liberals, and has had the effect of uniting them into one resolute body for the defence of popular rights. Since Bismarck's speech of November 29 the subordinate differences hitherto separating the Progressists, the Liberals, and the National Liberals have disappeared. We have thus got at last a great Liberal party which offers a united front against all encroachments on popular liberties. There is no reason to doubt a permanent success. The middle parties, having been broken to pieces, have to look out for new affinities, and there will in future be only a Liberal and a Conservative party. For the present the united Liberals are preparing new laws for the insurance of workingmen against accidents, sickness, and old age, and in all other respects, too, they will agree on new bills to be submitted to, and their policy to be followed in, the Reichstag.

You will probably remember that, on September 7, I informed you that the Pope had asked the good offices of Bismarck to place him under European instead of Italian protection, and to recover his temporal power—the initiatory steps for which date back to last summer, when the well-calculated scandals on the removal of the corpse of Pio IX. were made a pretext for opening hostilities against the Italian kingdom. At that time Malta was mentioned as the future seat of the Pope. What a few months ago was a mere rumor has lately gained consistency, and what was then considered a mere feeler now turns out to be a deliberate plan for the re-establishment of the Pope's secular power. Moreover, Bismarck seems to have suggested to Leo XIII. the old bishopric of St. Boniface, the Prussian town of Fulda, as a proper place for his residence. When this rumor first became known, toward the end of October, it was laughed at as impossible. I did not believe it when I first heard of it, and therefore did not mention it in my letters to you, but lately it has been affirmed as a fact by trustworthy authorities, and Bismarck did not deny it in his last great speech of November 29. For all these reasons, although I am not prepared to say that Fulda will be the future residence of the Pope, I can almost positively assert that as such it has been recommended to him.

The Pope, too, has lately more openly revealed his plans. In an audience granted on the 16th of October to Italian pilgrims, he complained that some ill-disposed people had laid hands on his holy person, and that it seemed to him as if they wished to drive him into exile. All Italians, he added, were bound to protect the Pope, who was surrounded by enemies, and even threatened by the Italian King, whose dynasty ought to be abandoned to its well-deserved fate. But what is more remarkable, Bismarck's officious organ, the *Post*, agrees with Leo XIII. that his situation in Rome is untenable.

"Where the pontificate," it says, in criticising a little French pamphlet published by order of the Pope and called 'La situation du Pape et le dernier mot sur la question romaine' (which, it remarks, is a pretty irrefutable proof of the Pope's claims), "cannot display its solemn pomp, the symbols of that godlike rule the bearer of which on earth is the Pope for Roman Catholics, it needs a pious and faithful multitude and the sovereign disposal of that absolute power which alone can keep off all malignant and reckless disturbers. This desideratum can never be reached in the Rome of the King of Italy. It might perhaps be realized if the monarchy would consider itself dependent on the Pope, and treat him as the only spiritual power. In that capital, however, which, according to the Catholic faith, the prince of apostles bestowed on the Pope, the latter cannot be satisfied to live side by side with infidels of all kinds, with Jews and atheists [and, of course, Protestants]. He who believes that to be possible has no appreciation of historical facts."

The aim for which he should strive is, in the eyes of the *Post*, the reëstablishment of his temporal power in Rome:

"In order to get absolute possession of it, he has a most powerful weapon in voluntary exile. It is a shallow thing to say that the Pope is not the highest dignitary of the Church when not in Rome. On the contrary, he is in every other place more Pope than in Rome, where he is only a subject. Exile, however, would be much more than a temporary delivery from an intolerable situation; it would be a weapon for the destruction of the Italian monarchy. The hostility between the priesthood, whose head was in exile, and the state, which had exiled it, would break out in open flames. The radicals would urge the annihilation of the priesthood, and the atheistic republic would raise its head. In Italy republicans and free-thinkers are inseparable; while Roman Catholicism is after all the pillar and embodiment of everything that is sound and respectable in the Italian monarchy. The radical republic in Italy would be the transition to a restoration, and perhaps lead to a great war, if another republic [France] should support the Italian republic and at the same time subject it to its rule. The Pontificate, therefore, is not without efficient arms; in its exile it possesses a powerful weapon, which can ultimately destroy the Italian monarchy. After its restoration, however, the Pope can hope soon to be called back to Rome, where he will find himself in a much better condition than at present."

Now compare with these words Bismarck's remarks made on November 29 in the Reichstag. After having announced that, for the purpose of facilitating business of a merely political character, the appointment and the salary of a Prussian Minister to Rome would be laid before the next Landtag, and after having passed unnoticed the alleged offer of a German residence to the self-exiled Pope, he continued in relation to Italy in the following words:

"The last speaker [Professor Virchow] has declared those prophecies false—namely, that the more political aspirations and tendencies glide to the Left, the more monarchical governments are driven into the republican pathway. . . . In France it was the Girondists who drove the state carriage to the verge of the abyss, although they expected to further the constitutional development in that liberal and humane sense which may float before the speaker's mind; but these same men always ultimately go beyond their original limits. Liberalism always goes further than its supporters wish to go. You cannot, *ad libitum*, stop the momentum of forty millions of people you have once put in motion. Thus it happened in France. Did not, in the hands of the extreme constitutional Left, an old and hereditary monarchical government glide down into the republican path? . . . Take Italy as another instance. There we have seen, temporarily, at least, and partially, a republic, as to which I do not know whether it was created in concert with the whole people. At all events, it haunts many minds which are decidedly ahead of German progress. Can you take upon yourselves any guarantee for the future, especially if God should not keep alive the dynasty, which rests upon a few individuals? Are you sure that the prophecies which the speaker has declared false would not be realized in Italy? Is the road which Italy has travelled for the last twenty years not discernible, and is not the terminus discernible, although I will not say that she will reach it? Has not, one cabinet after another, the centre of gravity glided more to the Left, so that without falling into the republican range it cannot glide more to the Left?"

Without discussing the historical and logical merits of the Chancellor's statements and deductions, I am at a loss to find an explanation for this underhanded attack on the present Italian Government if it is not to please the Papal See, which long ago forfeited its claims to political existence, and as a worldly power is an anachronism and absurdity. What interest have we Germans in offending a friendly power, which was just about to ally itself more closely with Germany and Austria, and which now will be drawn into the arms of France? As a reporter on German politics, I need not dwell on the consternation and irritation which Bismarck's declarations have caused in Italy. I can only say that if he wishes to maintain German unity, he must first respect Italian unity. † † †

A PRESS TRIAL IN ROME.

ROME, December 1, 1881.

YOUR readers will remember the affair of the 13th of July, when the remains of Pio Nono were transported from the Vatican to their final resting-place in the Church of San Lorenzo, escorted by a torch-light procession of all the "blacks" in the city of Rome, some of whom were hissed and even stoned by the Roman plebs. It was known that Leo XIII. had deprecated any such demonstration, but as usual he was overruled, and was exceedingly edified afterward by the effect produced by the sensational letters of the *Times* correspondent, who of late has taken a most devotional turn. This was fresh capital for the Ultramontanes, espe ially as the Ministry arrested and punished the ringleaders of the counter demonstration; whereupon commenced a series of public meetings for the abolition of the Law of Guarantees, promoted by the Mazzinian radicals, whose ideal is a unitarian republic, and by the Federalists, whose ideal, on the contrary, is a republic modelled like that of the United States of America. The Liberals of all shades of opinion adhered to the programme on the ground that, as the Pope had refused to avail himself of the guarantees, and in his late speeches to the press and to the pilgrims had hurled as much contumely against the new kingdom as Pio Nono himself, and as by his constant appeals to foreign nations for succor his existence as a recognized and inviolable sovereign is a constant menace to Italy, it is indecorous for an Italian Liberal Government to continue the application of the said laws.

One of these meetings was held in Rome and suspended by the police. One of the chief speakers, Alberto Mario, was put on his trial for having called the Pope "Mr. Pecci," and for offering a resolution that "the Government should take possession of the Apostolic palaces." Signor Mario has been for the last two years editor of the Republican Federalistic paper, the *Lega della Democrazia*, which advocates its doctrines openly, but insists that as monarchy was installed by the will of the nation, no violence must be used in substituting a republic; that indeed no violence is necessary—that the dynasty, having no root in the hearts of the nation, will quietly disappear. Evolution instead of revolution, in short, is the motto of the writers. For the first eighteen months of its existence the paper was never once sequestrated, partly because of the moderate form in which the most radical doctrines were expounded, and also because the royal procurator seemed to be of opinion that press trials only serve to give publicity to writings which otherwise would be confined to a comparatively small audience. About six months since the very zealous procurator Lavini was officially installed in Rome, and at the very commencement of his career appeared in the *Lega* an article alluding to the possible return of the Conservatives as a piece of impolicy that would act as a "box of dynamite under the royal throne." Lavini took the words in their literal sense, seized the paper, and indicted the writer for incitement to the violent destruction of the reigning dynasty. The shouts of derision with which his act was received by no means increased his love for the *Lega* or its editor, and for some months he went on recklessly sequestrating the paper for pretended insults to the reigning dynasty and to his Holiness the Pope, taking care, however, to put off the trial until after the 20th of September, when a general amnesty for political and press offences is always granted. This year no exception was made to the ordinary rule: the incriminated articles in the *Lega* were included in the amnesty, but the editor, anxious only for the propaganda of his doctrines, republished them all immediately, and the paper was sequestrated afresh; hence the present trial.

The first lawyers in Italy proffered their services as counsel, among them two ex-ministers; and day before yesterday the Court of Assizes was crowded to overflowing, numbers of ladies filling the small gallery. Possibly of the audience present not a hundred had read the articles originally in the *Lega*, it being, as we have said, the organ exclusively of a party; but now a copy of the sequestrated paper was handed to each of the thirteen jurymen, while the Chancellor, in a sing-song voice, resembling that of the Livornese boatmen, read out to the attentive public the six incriminated articles, "The Silken Ladder," "His Majesty," "Letter to Cavalotti," "Behind the Scenes," "Fanfulla," "The Queen and Prince," and, finally, the famous speech made at the meeting of the Politeama against the law on papal guarantees and against "Mr. Pecci."

As was intended, these articles showed up the defects of existing institutions, and some of the sentences literally convulsed the audience and the jurymen with laughter, the President himself being scarcely able to keep his countenance. The royal procurator, beside himself with annoyance, made a really ferocious requisition, accusing the author of the articles with attempting to upset the altar and the state; brought in the "box of dynamite," which increased the hilarity of the public at his expense; became quite pathetic in speaking of the Pope, and called upon the jury to save their country from such disturbers of the public peace.

The college of the defence, as it is here called, was composed of Bovio, Palomba, and several other members of Parliament; a famous counsel in several *causes célèbres* in Florence; Ceneri, the noted professor and jurisconsult of Bologna; Massa, Zuccari, Coboevich, also noted advocates, and Maiorana, ex-minister, now Senator of the realm. Bovio occupied the whole of the first day with his speech, starting from a scientific point of view, and arguing that no one of the incriminated articles violated any of the provisions of the existing press laws, seeing that with regard to the King, the Queen, and the Prince, the writer merely demonstrated that from an economical and social point of view monarchical institutions were not adapted to Italy; that Italy had proclaimed thought and speech free, and that Mario had only exercised his liberty. How much of this harangue was understood by the jurymen it is difficult to say; by his colleagues it was judged one of the most brilliant successes of this brilliant southern orator, who as a professor is the idol of the students of the University of Naples and the horror of their mammas, who accuse him of filling the boys' heads with politics, stuff, and irreligion instead of making them stick to their books and obey their superiors.

On the second day advocate Palomba analyzed the various articles incriminated, suggested that the expression, "the return of the Right to power would equal the placing of a box of dynamite under the steps of the throne," might be taken as a friendly warning to monarchy not to commit suicide by calling to its councils the men who had brought the country to the verge of ruin by exorbitant and uncontrolled expenditure, by the forced loan, by the *macinato* tax, etc. Again, why should Mario not be free to criticise the effect on Italy of the Tunis expedition, and to observe that had the people been masters of their own destinies they would have taken more care of national honor and national interests? Other people might think differently, but in what then consisted the so much vaunted free speech guaranteed by the statute, if those who held different opinions from the men in power were to be persecuted, gagged, and imprisoned? He dwelt at length on the absurdity of including in the indictment the *gerente*, who could have no possible influence on what the editor chose to write in his own paper. Maiorana Calatabiano, ex-Minister and Senator, then rose to affirm that, having read all the articles attentively, he could not find a single syllable which would justify the jury in finding either the editor or the *gerente* guilty. Mario, as a free-thinker and a republican, could not be expected to hymn the praises of either the monarchy or the papacy. All the jury had to ascertain was whether he had or had not violated any existing laws. He defied them to find proof of violation in any of the articles, and expressed his full belief in a final acquittal.

The honors of the day were, perhaps, due to Professor Ceneri, who in face and form resembles Shelley, as the portraits have handed him down to us: his eyes magnetize, his voice enchains his audience, and it was visible that he was the only orator who made any real impression upon the jury. When he sat down the president asked Signor Mario whether

he had anything to add in his own defence. He made answer that, though a republican, he respected popular sovereignty too thoroughly to dispute the legitimate authority of the king chosen by the *plebiscito*, but that his was the only legal authority in the realm, as the Constitution ought to have been voted by a constituent assembly; that all other so-called constituted authorities were illegal, including the royal procurator (a laugh raised at whose expense caused the president to threaten to expel the public). Mario concluded by saying that the law of papal guarantees was a categoric negation of the national will. The debates ended at five, and at seven the jury returned with a verdict finding editor and *gerente* both "guilty," on which the Court condemned Giuseppe Capricciosi to three months' imprisonment and a fine of 1,000 francs, and Alberto Mario to a fine of 500 francs and two months' imprisonment.

The editor and *gerente* will now appeal to the Court of Cassation, and, ten to one, the sentence will be cancelled, as there seem to have been some grave irregularities committed. But supposing the Court confirms the sentence, what great hardship is there for the prisoners? The interiors of Italian prisons became familiar to the editor in times when imprisonment meant a quite other thing than to-day. He will continue to write his articles daily, and probably with greater ease, being freed from the inevitable distractions of the editor's office, will receive his friends daily, be fed from his own table, sleep in his own bed, and tub in his own bath. The *gerente*, who is a working-man, will enjoy the same privileges: the paper will be brought to him daily to sign, and, as per contract, the proprietors of the paper will maintain him during his imprisonment. The chance of having to go to prison is the *raison d'être* of a *gerente;* the actual writers or editors of the paper never need sign their articles, the *gerente* being responsible for the whole of them. All things considered, one can hardly regard these zealous champions of the Church and of the state as wise in their generation. Naturally, these trials with Zanardelli Minister of Grace and Justice, Mancini Minister of Foreign Affairs, Bacelli Minister of Public Education, all zealous free-thinkers, and all but one republicans of ancient date, are nuts for the Conservatives, who ask: What is the difference between Liberalism and Conservatism?

The latest grievance of the Vatican is the suggestion or intimation of the Government that the canonization of the saints which is to take place on the 8th of December should be performed in the inner hall of the Vatican, and not in St. Peter's; but on the whole Leo XIII. seems well satisfied with their royal Majesties and present Ministers, and by no means despairs of himself or his successors meeting a goodly number of them at Canossa. Rome is now full of bishops, archbishops, monsignori, priests, and pilgrims assembling for the canonization, and the Government will have a weary time of it in preventing the Roman *gamins* from playing off pranks on their reverences.

RENAN'S MARCUS AURELIUS.—II.

PARIS, December 10, 1881.

MARCUS AURELIUS was brought face to face with the Christians during his campaign against the Quadi. The Roman army found itself at one time deprived of water, when a sudden storm broke out and rain fell in torrents. The "Antonine Column" was built in order to commemorate this event, which was considered miraculous. The legion which received this mark of favor from Jupiter Pluvius was named for a time the Thundering. There were some Christians with Marcus Aurelius who pretended that the miracle was the work of their God, not of Jupiter. There was much talk on the subject in all the Christian churches. The conduct of Marcus Aurelius toward them was not modified; the number of the martyrs did not decrease, and, under the mildest of rulers, persecution became as terrible as it had ever been. Renan excuses the Emperor on the plea that he could not alter the law and interfere with the judges. Everywhere it seemed to the conservative Romans that the new Church threatened not only the old religion, but all the foundations of social order. The proconsuls were like the prefects of our day—they merely made themselves the instruments of the law. The bishops tried to move the heart of the Emperor; they sent to him all sorts of *apologiæ*. He read them, or was supposed to read them. These *apologiæ* prepared the reconciliation of the Empire and of Christianity. The bishops did not now speak like enemies; they tried to prove that the good Emperors had favored Christianity, and that the wicked had persecuted it—a theory quite contrary to history, but convenient, and likely to pave the way to reconciliation. Tertullian will still doubt whether the same man can be Cæsar and Christian, but a century after him such a doubt will seem absurd. Marcus Aurelius, it must be confessed, despised the new religion, viewing the Christians and the Jews with the same pity. In Palestine he once said: "O Marcomanni! O Quadi! O Sarmatæ! I have found here a people more stupid than yourselves." He was a Roman, and as a philosopher he looked upon all religious fanaticism with impatience.

The last three years of the reign of Marcus Aurelius were saddened by spectacles "unworthy of such a perfect sovereign." Public opinion had become very much excited against the Church of Lyons in France. Every year deputies of all Gaul used to go to Lyons to the "Concilium Galliarum." The Christians, who did not take part in those festivities, were looked upon as infidels, atheists, accused of every crime. In 177 the Christians were persecuted, tortured, and martyrized. To every question the deacon Sanctus, of Vienna, merely answered: "Christianus sum." The old Bishop Pothinus was among the victims. The imperial Legate gave great exhibitions to the people; all those who persevered in the Christian confession were killed, beheaded, or abandoned to the fury of wild beasts. Blandine, a young Christian virgin, was exhibited the last day in the circus, and killed before a horrible populace by a wild bull. Forty-eight Christians in all were martyrized on this occasion. But the blood of martyrs is never shed in vain, and Irenæus soon took the place of Pothinus. How absurd are those who think that ideas can be conquered by laws, and religious enthusiasm by death. The attacks of Celsus against Christianity were as futile as the persecutions: in vain did Celsus prove that the greatness of the Roman Empire had been concomitant with the old religion; in vain did he show the divisions of the new churches; in vain did he point to the bloody, hard, egotistical character of Jewish history, to the extraordinary theories of the Apocalypses. In the midst of the extravagance of the Montanists and the Gnostics; of the Sibylline impostures; of the ignorance and the social misery of the new sects, there was something which Celsus did not understand. The spirit of Christianity, the tender sympathy for the poor, the illiterate, the weak, the slaves, the women, were foreign to a thoroughly Roman character. In one sense, Lucian, the sceptic, was not so far from Christianity as his contemporary Celsus. Celsus admits all religions, and makes them subordinate to the state; Lucian denies all religions—he is an enemy of paganism, he asks not for persecutions.

"In Lucian," says Renan, "first appeared that form of the human genius of which Voltaire was the complete incarnation [Renan seems to forget Erasmus]. Man being incapable of solving seriously any of the metaphysical problems which he imprudently raises, what should the wise man do in the midst of the war of religions and systems? Abstain, laugh; preach tolerance, humanity, unpretending charity, gayety. The real evil is hypocrisy, fanaticism, superstition. To substitute one superstition for another is to render a very poor service to humanity. The radical remedy is the remedy of Epicurus, who suppresses at one blow religion, and its object, and the evils which it brings with it. Lucian appears thus like a wise man in a world of fools."

It is evident that such passages as this have been written under the preoccupations of modern events. They produce, in my opinion, what the musicians call a dissonance in a concert; they are not quite in harmony with the tone of a historical work. But if "aliquando dormitat Homerus," the historian also sometimes becomes modern. We shall say nothing of the various *apologiæ* of Athenagoras; of Theophilus, of Antioch; of Minucius Felix. Their pleadings had no power to stay the persecution. Christianity, meanwhile, was organizing itself more and more; the Church of Rome became more and more preëminent. The history of this organization may be divided into five periods: first is the primitive *ecclesia*, where all the members are equally inspired; then the ancients, or *presbyteri*, assume a certain authority; then the president of the ancients, the *episcopus*, becomes preëminent; the various *episcopi* compound with each other, and form finally the Catholic Church. At the end of the second century the principle of the episcopate was already ripe, and papacy was virtually contained in this principle. There were no General Councils yet, but everywhere there were provincial synods. The Church was becoming gradually a state within the state.

Meanwhile Marcus Aurelius was slowly dying. An immense revolution was taking place in his empire, and he did not understand it; he only saw in it a result of the fickleness and inconstancy of mankind. He looked around with resignation. He had almost given up speaking; he went through his daily duties like a victim; he took all his pleasure in praying. His 'Thoughts' have the form of those ejaculations which became a part of the Christian monastic life. Renan compares him to the descendants of the nobility of Versailles, who make themselves in our times Trappists or Friars. "Woe," says he, "to the old aristocracies who, after the excesses of a mad youth, suddenly become virtuous, human, quiet! It is a sign that they are going to die." Marcus Aurelius was not happy. He had, in a moment of weakness, accepted as his associate in the empire Lucius Verus, a frivolous and foolish man. His wife Faustina was not worthy of him; she became tired of his austerity, of his simplicity, of his melancholy; she was young and handsome; she lived apart, with her lovers. The Emperor always shut his eyes on her conduct; she was ever his "good and faithful wife." But the heaviest blow which fell on him came from his son. The Darwinian theory would find it impossible to link together the profound, noble, and thoughtful nature of Marcus Aurelius and the nature of Commodus—a stupid, athletic, ferocious young man, born to be a butcher's valet. He lived with the lowest companions; he was so stupid that he could bear no other company. Marcus Aurelius would have done well to adopt another heir, as the law of the empire allowed him to do; but, on principle, he defended the hereditary principle, and he hoped against hope; he believed that Com-

modus would throw off his vulgar vices with his youth. Morally, he may have been right; in fact, he gave to the empire a ruler who led the most disgusting life with the valets of the circus and of the amphitheatre. The people would not believe that Commodus was the son of Marcus, and whispered that he was the son of a gladiator. The medals, however, and the monuments show much physical resemblance between Marcus and Commodus.

For years Marcus led the most melancholy life. All his early friends, formed under the rule of Antoninus, were gone. He remained alone in his generation, with the horrible thought that his son would become a Caligula or a Domitian. He had but one thought: he wished to glide out of life noiselessly, as a well-bred man leaves a drawing-room. "He had attained," says Renan, "the Buddhist *nirvana*, the peace of Christ. Like Jesus, Sakyamuni, Socrates, Francis of Assisi, he had completely conquered death." He left Rome on the 5th of August, 178, for the Danube; on the 10th of March, 180, he fell ill, and at once sent for Commodus and bade him continue the campaign. The army was inconsolable. The Emperor had still strength enough to present his son to the legions. After the seventh day he felt the end coming; he sent his son away, either because he dreaded the contagion for him, or because he preferred to die alone. He covered his head with his toga, and remained thus for a whole day; the night afterward he expired. His death is justly considered by Renan as the death of a whole world, of a whole civilization. All was now in ruins:

"In the domain of philosophy, the great Emperor had placed the ideal of virtue so high that nobody could well attain it. In politics, as he had not separated profoundly enough the duties of the father and the duties of Cæsar, he unwittingly opened the era of tyranny and of anarchy. In religion, through too great attachment to a state religion, though he saw its weaknesses, he prepared the violent triumph of the non-official religion, and exposed his memory to reproaches which ought not to lie against so pure a life. . . . After the greatest effort of governmental rationalism, after eighty years of a good régime, after Nerva, Trajan, Hadrian, Antoninus, Marcus Aurelius, the reign of evil recommences worse than ever. Adieu, virtue! Adieu, reason! Since Marcus Aurelius could not save the world, who will save it?"

It is a melancholy thought that the infamous Commodus was at first more lenient to Christianity than his father. He liked the Egyptian gods; he was not a thorough Roman; one of his mistresses was almost a Christian. We will end here our analysis of Renan's last volume; we will only add that it is as interesting as any of the preceding volumes, that its style preserves the same incomparable qualities, and that it ends with the 'Beginnings of Christianity.'

Correspondence.

EARLY HISTORICAL COLLECTIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your "Notes" of this week, alluding to Pertz's 'Monumenta Germaniæ Historiæ' and its predecessors, you do scant justice to the earlier scholars whose zeal and earnestness in editing the contemporary chronicles of their respective nationalities have in great measure preserved for us the materials of European history. Leibnitz was only one, and by no means the most deserving, of a numerous band who had been laboring in the field for a century and a half; and Duchesne's 'Historiæ Francorum Scriptores' was by no means the most conspicuous of the models which Leibnitz had before him. In fact, Duchesne's earlier collection—the 'Historiæ Normanorum Scriptores,' published in 1619, thirty years before the other, is by far the more valuable of the two. I fail to see what connection the Magdeburg Centuriators and Baronius have with these, as the latter were compilers and historians—not editors of collections presenting the original sources of history. This editing and collecting, to which we owe so much, began at a much earlier period than your remarks would seem to infer; and as you have called attention to the matter, perhaps you may be willing to find space for a brief list of some of the first contributions to a literature which has since grown to dimensions quite appalling.

In Germany I may mention:

Simon Schard.—Germanicarum Rerum quatuor Chronographi. 1566.

J. Pistorius.—Rerum Germanicarum Scriptores. 3 tom., 1583–1607.

Just. Reuber.—Veterum Scriptorum qui Cæsarum et Imperatorum Germanicorum res literis mandarunt. 1584.

Ch. Urstisius.—Germaniæ Historicorum illustrium Tomi II. 1585.

Marq. Freher.—Rerum Germanicarum Scriptores. 3 tom., 1600–1611.

—— Rerum Bohemicarum Scriptores. 1612.

M. Goldast.—Rerum Suevicarum Scriptores. 1605.

—— Rerum Alamannicarum Scriptores. 1606.

Erp. Lindenbrog.—Scriptores Rerum Germanicarum Septentrionalium. 1609.

The earliest French collections are:

Pierre Pithou.—Annalium et Historiæ Francorum Scriptores coætanei XII. 1588.

—— Historiæ Francorum Scriptores Veteres XI. 1596.

In English history we have:

Rerum Britannicarum Scriptores vetustiores. Heidelberg, 1587.

H. Savile.—Rerum Anglicarum Scriptores post Bedam præcipui. 1596.

An Englishman was the earliest editor of Spanish history:

R. Bell.—Rerum Hispanicarum Scriptores aliquot. 1579. Followed by

Sandoval.—Historias de Idacio, Isidore, etc. 1615.

Italy, likewise, was not conspicuous for early zeal in this direction, but we have:

O. Fazelli.—Rerum Siculorum Scriptores. 1579.

Andr. Schott.—Rerum Italicarum Scriptores. 1600.

Vulcanius.—Gothicarum et Longobardicarum rerum Scriptores. 1597.

Bongars, in 1600, brought out his 'Rerum Hungaricarum Scriptores varii,' and he followed this in 1611 by his 'Gesta Dei per Francos'—a collection of the chronicles of the Crusades, not strictly national in its character, perhaps, but yet an effort in the same direction.

More germane to the subject than Mabillon's 'Acta Sanctorum O. S. Benedicti,' to which you allude, are the great collections of the Councils and Fathers. Of these, the comparatively humble beginnings are to be found—of the former, in Fr. Laurentius Surius's 'Conciliorum Tomi IV.,' published in 1567, the four volumes of which have expanded to the twenty-nine which compose the collection of Labbe and Mansi. Even this latter is very imperfect, and it is to be regretted that the late Abbé Migne was unable to add an enlarged edition of this to his very useful, though imperfectly edited, series. As regards the patristic collections, due honor should be paid to Margarin de la Bigne, who issued (1576–9) his 'Bibliotheca veterum Patrum,' in nine folios, which expanded finally into the 'Bibliotheca Maxima veterum Patrum,' which, with its appendices, amounts to thirty folios; to say nothing of Migne's 'Patrologiæ Cursus Completus,' the extent of which, if ever finished, it would be rash to estimate.

Most of the above details will be found in Potthast's "Wegweiser durch die Geschichtswerke des Europäischen Mittenalters"—an invaluable work for the student of mediæval history. L.

Philadelphia, Dec. 23, 1881.

Notes.

All persons having letters from the late Bayard Taylor which might be of service to his literary executors in the preparation of his life, are requested to lend them to Mrs. Taylor, who may be addressed at No. 142 East Eighteenth Street, New York, or at Kennett Square, Penn. They will be copied and returned.——The new *Atlantic* portrait of Emerson, life-size, improves on acquaintance, and appears to us not inferior, to say the least, to its predecessors in the same series. It represents the poet in his prime.——The Dante Society of Cambridge, Mass., has had the ground cut from under its preparations to publish Benvenuto da Imola's Comment on the 'Divine Comedy,' by information that the present Lord Vernon has begun to carry out his father's design to do the same thing, using his copy of the Laurentian manuscript of the 'Comedy.'——The Maine Historical Society has undertaken to obtain for its library, as far as practicable, a copy or set of all printed productions of Maine citizens, of both sexes, including non-resident natives.——A monument to Sir Francis Drake is contemplated at Plymouth, England, on the eminence known as Plymouth Hoe, and the New World is not inappropriately asked to share in the tribute to the great navigator's memory. Subscriptions may be sent to Mr. Alderman Derry, Municipal Buildings, or to the Mayor of Plymouth, Mr. Charles F. Burnand.——Mr. Dorman B. Eaton's 'Civil Service in Great Britain,' with an introduction by Mr. George Wm. Curtis, has been added to the Harper's Franklin Square Library. The placing of this important work at a merely nominal price renders the cause of civil-service reform substantial assistance. To the same series will shortly be added 'The Dickens Reader,' illustrated, the selections having been made by Nathan Sheppard. We cannot say that we regard this as a move in the right direction for the elevation of the standard of reading in schools.——Apropos of Dickens, J. R. Osgood & Co. have brought out in a pretty pocket volume Mr. J. R. G. Hassard's letters to the *Tribune* two years ago, now entitled 'A Pickwickian Pilgrimage,' a methodical description of the scenes of the 'Pickwick Papers.' Those who are not satisfied with this pious if restricted labor, nor yet with recent illustrated papers of a broader scope in *Scribner's Magazine*, may order of Chapman & Hall, London, the shilling pamphlet, 'Charles Dickens at Rochester,' which contains a number of nice woodcuts.——Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will soon publish 'Noah Webster,' in the "American Men of Letters" series; and a 'Life of Copley,' the painter, by Mrs. Charles Amory, containing an engraving of his likeness by himself.——In continuance of their tasteful uniform series of Dr. Holland's works, Charles Scribner's Sons have issued 'The Jones Family,' 'The Mistress of the Manse,' and 'The Puritan's Guest, and Other Poems.'——The second volume of Irving's 'Washington' in their "Geoffrey Crayon" edition has been issued by G. P. Putnam's Sons.——J. R. Osgood & Co. have issued a second edition of Mr. J. Pickering Putnam's useful treatise, theoretic and with a great abundance of beautiful examples, on 'The Open Fireplace in All Ages.' An appendix of tables facilitates the comprehension and use of the metric dimensions employed

in the plates and text. The same publishers have taken special pains with an edition of the 'Imitation of Christ,' abounding in ornamental initial letters and head and tail-pieces, apparently of foreign derivation.——An 'Address Commemorative of Elihu Root, Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy in Amherst College,' by his colleague, Professor H. Humphrey Neill, is just issued in a neat little brochure from the press of James H. Earle, Boston. Professor Root died at Amherst very suddenly a little more than a year ago. A mere country lad, coming to college from a neighboring town, he rapidly attained a high standard of scholarship, which he maintained to the end. A tutor in the college, a student of theology, and later passing the turning-point of his life under Lotze, of Göttingen, he became a pupil of Helmholtz, who set a high estimate on his genius for physical research. Professor Neill's memorial is the feeling tribute of a loving and devoted friend, without attempting a strict estimate of the value of his original scientific work.——An English child has just died of fright caused by her belief in Mother Shipton's prophecies of the approaching end of the world. An English journal, instead of blaming the want of popular education which makes such belief possible, has fallen foul of the booksellers who deal in the trash. Certainly it is easier to prevent the publication or sale of doggerel prophecies than it is to enlighten a whole layer of society. But fancy a New England girl frightened to death by Mother Shipton's rhymes. The *Bookseller*, by the way, proposes a remedy that might be worthy of adoption in places where public libraries furnish too large a supply of sensational fiction. "The parents deserve to be flogged for allowing her to read it."

—The January *Harper's* opens with a paper, by Mr. G. F. Muller, on "King Coal's Highway," almost to be called poetically graphic in its management of statistics, as well as in its description of coal transportation from Pittsburgh to New Orleans. In our reading it is absolutely fresh, and its account of the nature and conduct of "tows" and of the perils of river navigation must, we think, be new and interesting to a very large majority of the patrons of the magazine. Whoever passes from this to a subsequent paper, by Mr. W. H. Bishop, "With the Van-Guard in Mexico," makes an at least logical transition. Here what is remarkable is the plain exposition of the unwholesomeness of the site of the city of Mexico, and the nature of the drainage problem caused by the higher levels of the adjacent lakes. A fourth paper completes Mr. Joseph Hatton's series on "Journalistic London" (which we learn through the *Athenæum* will eventually make a book), by relating the history of *Lloyd's Newspaper* in particular, with some account of the *Guardian*, *Post*, and *Athenæum*, and of the *Illustrated London News* and *Graphic*. Mr. Lloyd, in this respect surpassing even the *Times*, makes his own paper, in his own mill, from esparto grown on his own farm in Algeria. Such enterprise contrasts curiously with the disposition in this country to invest surplus newspaper profits in Central African and Polar exploration. Among the portraits which accompany Mr. Hatton's readable gossip, those of Blanchard Jerrold and Sir C. W. Dilke will chiefly attract American eyes. Portraits in great number adorn also Mr. George R. Crooks's article on "Young Men's Christian Associations." We may mention, besides the foregoing, Mr. James Jackson Jarves's "Ancient and Modern Venetian Glass of Murano," of which the illustrations represent portions of his own collection given to the Metropolitan Museum; Mr. Robert P. Keep's "The Boundary of Greece," with a chart showing the various lines compromised on the one now established; and Mr. William T. Davis's "Who Were the Pilgrims?"—before they came over, namely.

—"Who were the Chartists?" is the question asked and satisfactorily answered by Mr. W. J. Linton in the January *Century*. He gives a number of biographical sketches of the leaders with whom he was more or less intimately acquainted, and vindicates their amiable and philanthropic character. He does not make it clear, however, for American readers, why the Chartism of such men was "a word of fear in England, from 1837, for ten to fifteen years onward," though this might have been done in a few broad strokes without entering upon a history of Chartism, which the writer expressly disclaims doing here. To the dead and the not few living of his old associates, Mr. Linton pays an added tribute in the shape of portraits of Lovett, Hetherington, Watson, Moore, Frost, and Cooper, engraved by his own hands—some of these, if not all, being unique. He has, perhaps, overlooked, as he does not refer to it, an admirable likeness of Henry Vincent that appeared in *Harper's Monthly* for July, 1880. Mr. Bishop's "With the Van-Guard in Mexico," in the current issue of the latter magazine, is paralleled in the *Century* by Mrs. Mary Hallock Foote's pleasant paper on "A Provincial Capital of Mexico." Mrs. Foote herself encounters the "van-guard"—"a barefooted Indian lad carrying the red signal-flag of the railroad engineers, and . . . a little troop of horsemen riding in—a detachment of the advance of the nineteenth century." In like manner Senator Edmunds's "Political Aspects of Mormonism" (*Harper's*) is matched or supplemented by Mr. A. G. Sedgwick's "Legal Aspects of the Mormon Problem," while what in Salt Lake City will probably be thought a kindred topic, "The Increase of Divorce" (among the Gentiles), is discussed by the Rev. W. Gladden. In fact, the writer expressly says that "the looseness and confusion of State legislation on this subject renders it difficult for the general Government to deal with the Mormon problem. . . . The Mormons might easily point out that polygamous relations are maintained under State laws." One more coincidence in the two illustrated magazines is to be found in Mr. Jarves's story of the revival of Venetian glass and Catherine Cornaro's "Revival of Burano Lace" (the *Century*), another Venetian industry. Mr. John Burroughs defends our American songsters against the Duke of Argyll's too hasty conclusion that they are inferior to the British; Mr. Ernest Ingersoll gives a sober account of the really remarkable Caverns of Luray in the Shenandoah Valley; and Mr. Elihu B. Washburne contributes some disordered and not very valuable "Reminiscences of Thiers," with such idiomatic translations as the following:

"M. le Marquis de Piré: You are the trumpet anti-patriotic of disaster. . . ."

"M. Thiers: . . . I am ready to submit to all to avert the shedding of blood. . . ."

"M. Jerome David: Guard your lessons—we reject them."

However, we get a solid piece of engraving in Cole's portrait of Thiers, after the impressive painting by Bonnat.

—In pointing out the objectionable character of the fiction in the Boston Public Library, Mr. James M. Hubbard appears to have stirred up a hornet's nest. The Boston *Globe* has called him a "crank." The Boston *Herald* declares that he has a bee in his bonnet, and that his extracts are garbled and misrepresent the real character of some of the books noticed; and the writer truly remarks that before attacking a public institution it is well to be sure of one's facts. The facts in the present case are the evil characters of the hundred novels. It seems to an outsider as if Mr. Hubbard must have been tolerably correct in his facts, since in the same week in which the too-zealous defenders of the Public Library are taking this course, the Public Library itself has withdrawn from circulation all, or nearly all, of the books mentioned in Mr. Hubbard's list. At least, this assertion is made by the *Congregationalist*, in an editorial that appears to be founded on a *communiqué* from the Library. It is, however, only fair to state that the Trustees have made no public declaration to this effect, and that, so far as can be officially known, they still adhere to the declaration in the last annual report, that "it is obviously impossible, as it would be highly improper, for the Trustees to exclude such authors as these."

—The principal enterprise in American bookmaking in 1882 will consist, we are told, in publishing the third edition of Appletons' Cyclopædia. Is it too much to hope that the revisers will insert a few of the ordinary devices to facilitate the work of searchers? We do not recollect any book which is so good an example of what an encyclopædia should not be in this particular. Look, for instance, under the article "England." It has twenty-nine pages, or fifty-eight columns, of not too large type, treating of the physical geography, the geology, the climate, soil, agriculture, manufactures, education, revenue, navy and army, judicial system, and history, and very likely of more subjects which we have overlooked. Now, in all these fifty-eight columns there is not a pretence of a guide to the subject treated of. If you wish to find out about education, you dip in somewhere and read enough to find out that you are not in the section on education; then you dip in somewhere else, with a like result; then perhaps you begin at the beginning and look through the article till you come to the part wished for. Every country is treated in this unworkmanlike way. It would not have taken one line more of space to note the subdivision at the top of the page—to have the running title not "England," but "England (Geology)," "England (Education)," "England (History)"; nor would it have been a very severe tax on the editor's powers. To provide such an unhandy tool falsifies the title of the encyclopædia, for it is thoroughly *un*-American.

—The seventh volume of the reports upon the United States Geographical Surveys west of the one hundredth meridian is prepared by Prof. F. W. Putnam, assisted by Drs. C. C. Abbott, Haldman, Yarrow, and Messrs. Henshaw, Carr, and Gatschet—the last-named furnishing a classification into seven linguistic stocks of Western Indian dialects contained in forty vocabularies. The body of the volume, however, is devoted to the archæology of southern California. Some special interest pertains to archæological investigations upon the Pacific Coast, arising from the great antiquity assigned by Prof. Whitney to the date of man's advent there. Prof. Putnam accepts his decision upon the question, and derives some assistance from it in solving the complicated ethnological problems of that region; and in turn comes to Prof. Whitney's assistance with a subsidiary hypothesis to relieve him from the objections urged by both archæologists and evolutionists against the reality of his discoveries. Archæologists object to Whitney's conclusions because the stone implements he purports to produce from the pliocene deposits are all of a neolithic type, whereas, according to experience in every other part of the world, they should at that early stage of human development have been palæolithic. Upon similar grounds, evolutionists doubt the genuineness of the Calaveras skull because of its similarity to modern skulls. Prof. Putnam sees no reason why the

earliest home of man, like that of the horse, may not have been in America, and that having reached the lower status of barbarism in which his physical wants were supplied, the very luxuriance of the conditions of life in southern California removed inducements to the higher exertions which alone are productive of civilization. It is unfortunate respecting Prof. Whitney's evidence that further discoveries cannot be expected, owing to the changed modes of mining now in use; but it is evidence notwithstanding, and of a circumstantial and definite kind, and, as Prof. Putnam insists, should be weighed on its intrinsic merits, however much opposed to the prepossessions of archæologists. Prof. Putnam looks upon the Eskimo and the Innuit as the purest continuation of the primitive American stock, whose inferior development is to be accounted for on the supposition that they became separated before the highest degree of development had been reached in California. The Eskimo element is, however, still pronounced both in the physical characters and in the arts of the Californians.

—There has been no time in the past fifty years when the name of Leonard Bacon, whose death occurred suddenly on Saturday, at New Haven, has not been familiar to his countrymen and prominent in the denomination to which he belonged. It was only by accident that he was born in Michigan, for he was the incarnation of New England Puritanism, which he illustrated in his two-fold concern for orthodoxy and for public education. His intense clericalism made him, after Dr. Beecher's removal to Boston and the West, the primate of Congregational Connecticut, and led him while still a young man into the misdirected championship of the Colonization Society against the intuitive and overwhelming attacks of the Immediate Emancipationists. With the latter he never became reconciled, discovering a new ground for his opposition when they incurred the reproach of "infidelity." According to his intellectual powers and his influence on the churches, he undoubtedly retarded the growth of the anti-slavery sentiment in New England and in the country at large; but in time he allied himself with the political movement against the extension of slavery, and took a leading part in the clerical protest against the Kansas-Nebraska infamy. With Drs. Storrs and Thompson he founded the *Independent*, partly in the interest of anti-slavery ideas, which were generally excluded from the orthodox press, and he remained a frequent contributor to that paper down to the day of his death. Dr. Bacon had no great reputation as a sermonizer, but he was a very positive and forcible writer, and was never more in his element than as a controversialist. He had a weak side for Dr. Bushnell, in the days of the latter's persecution for heresy, but he did not share his views. His conservative temper was averse to all innovation in matters theological, among which he reckoned the higher education of young men. His professorial and gubernatorial connection with Yale College was marked by resistance to tendencies which will probably prove as irresistible as those which the Abolitionists represented. In his previous pastoral career he made himself respected and beloved, and as a public character he always showed the courage of his convictions, though these seldom brought him into unpopular attitudes. In strength of body and mind, and in the conscientious and inflexible pursuit of duty, he did honor to the land in which he was educated and achieved distinction.

—Oliver Ditson & Co. have added to their numerous useful collections of vocal and instrumental music a 'Norway Music Album,' edited by Auber Forrestier and B. B. Anderson, which deserves a large sale. American civilization, according to the preface, is of too recent a growth to have the glowing background of mythology, popular epics, and folklore requisite for the production of a rich crop of popular music. But we are very quick at assimilating the treasure-stores of other nations, and among these the Norwegian folk-songs and dance pieces are not the least attractive. These "weird tunes, improvisations in their original form, inspired by the spirit-voices of the fjords, the mountains, the waterfalls, the forests, and by the orchestral strains which are actually heard among the mountain regions," are aptly described by the words weirdly romantic, grotesquely solemn, and profoundly melancholy, with an occasional touch of quaint humor. Svendsen, Grieg, and other northern composers, have made frequent use of these popular melodies to give a national flavor to compositions otherwise formed according to German models. The use of such bits of local color for the purpose of stimulating the jaded palates of an audience listening to an otherwise insipid opera, has justly evoked the scathing satire of R. Wagner; but when they are utilized by such masters as Rubinstein, Verdi ("Aïda"), and the Norwegian composers just mentioned, the result is as artistic and legitimate as in case of the modern poems based on ancient legends. Still, the masses are apt to prefer the folk-songs in the more primitive form in which they are presented in the 'Norway Album.' The first part of this collection, which is based on earlier collections by Lindemann, Kjerulf, Grieg, Svendsen, and others, contains songs and dances arranged for the piano—the former with the words added, so that they can be sung as solos, or in some cases as quartets. Part second contains selections from the original works of the modern Norse composers, both vocal and instrumental, all of moderate difficulty. The introduction offers some general remarks on the nature of folk-songs and brief biographical sketches of leading Scandinavian musicians, including Ole Bull, to whose memory the volume is dedicated.

—Meyerbeer's "Les Huguenots," which, in spite of Schumann's famous anathema, is now generally regarded as his masterwork, was put on the boards at the Academy of Music last week in a very creditable manner. In a game of cards it is customary to retain the best trumps till the end, but in Italian opera it should be otherwise. If Mr. Mapleson had engaged Mlle. Rossini a few weeks earlier, and produced "Aïda," "Les Huguenots," and "Mefistofele" sooner, the latter with a somewhat altered cast, the season would have been more satisfactory from an artistic point of view. Excepting the chorus, which was lacking in firmness and shading, and the scenery, which, as usual, was somewhat primitive, last Wednesday's performance may be called a success. The orchestra, not having the dreary functions of a mere guitar, was more animated and wide-awake than usual. Meyerbeer knew how to put the musicians in good humor by giving them an occasional solo all round—a proceeding which would be reprehensible in a true music-drama, but in an opera helps to amuse the public. The principals included almost all the good material Mr. Mapleson had on hand. There were Signori Galassi, Del Puente, and Novara, who did ample justice to the rôles of *Saint Bris*, *Nevers*, and *Marcel*. Then there was Mlle. Lauri, who made a tolerably good *Urban*, but no more than that. Mlle. Juch's *Marguerite* surpassed all her previous efforts, and although in her play she still showed a want of routine, her voice gave pleasure by its purity of intonation, smoothness, and agreeable *timbre*. She only needs more power in order to become a very useful opera singer. Signor Campanini's impersonation of *Raoul* deserves very much praise, but by no means unqualified praise. A slight fog hovered over many of his tones and made them wanting in clearness. Some of the most difficult passages were made easy by the adroit substitution of the falsetto for the natural voice. Like many Italians, Campanini mistakes loudness and intensity for real dramatic passion, and his expression lacks variety and appropriateness—that is to say, he is not a dramatic tenor. His play, his gestures, and attempts at facial expression are often such as to provoke laughter at the wrong moment. For instance, the exaggerated writhing and wriggling of his body at the window after the shot, induced a lady near us to exclaim, "Was he shot?" Better proof of the correctness of our criticism could not be found. Mlle. Rossini, on the contrary (*Valentine*), is a genuine dramatic vocalist. Her play was not free from occasional exaggeration—thanks, perhaps, to the example of *Raoul;* but in general it was natural and appropriate. Her voice was almost entirely free from the defects noticed heretofore—an occasional deviation from the pitch and a slight tremolo. It was fresh, clear, strong, smooth, well sustained, and wonderfully impassioned in the agitated scenes. If Mlle. Rossini continues in her present course and finds opportunity to develop her uncommon talent by appearing in first-class operas having a dramatic background, she may in a short time claim a place among the leading *prime donne* of the age. A year's study under the supervision of R. Wagner, or his pupil Materna, would enable her to reach that goal sooner than any other method.

—'Speculum regale, ein altnorwegischer Dialog,' edited by Dr. Oscar Brenner, has been published by Christian Kaiser, in Munich. It is the third textual edition of the so-called 'Konungs Skuggsjá' (King's Mirror) of the old Norse literature, having been edited in 1768 by Halfdaer Einersen, and in 1848 by Kayser, Munch, and Unger. It was formerly ascribed to the time of King Sverre, but it is now admitted on all hands to belong to the classic time of King Hakon—about 1230-50. The author is anonymous, but he describes himself as a Norwegian, who lived in Halogaland, the northern part of Norway, the region visited by King Alfred's henchman, Othere. It is a dialogue between father and son, and is one of the most remarkable products of the scholastic school of the time. The work has attracted much attention in the literary world. Its chief value consists in its vivid description of life in the thirteenth century, and of the state of learning in those days. The author sets out to discuss the occupations, manners, and rules of life for (1) chapmen, (2) courtiers, (3) learned men, (4) common people; but only numbers 1 and 2 were ever completed. In section 2 there is a long discussion on weapons and warfare, on court manners, dress, etc., which is very interesting, but is based on foreign fashions of the time of the Plantagenets, and not, as one might suppose, on life in Norway. In chapters 8–23 there is an elaborate description of the striking natural phenomena to be found, or which were thought to exist, in Scandinavia, in Ireland, the wonderland of the Middle Ages, and in Iceland and Greenland. There are accounts of whales, seals, icebergs, northern lights, volcanoes, geysers, etc., which are especially interesting for the startling knowledge they reveal of natural history. The excellent information given concerning the Norse settlers in Greenland and their mode of living will always be of inestimable value. Einersen's edition of 1768, though very good for its time, is of course antiquated;

the Christiania edition of 1848 was published in a normalized Icelandic spelling; Brenner's edition, which is in the Norse spelling of the old vellum, printed from a photograph of the old manuscript, is therefore a timely work. The price of it is five marks.

—The blue-covered pamphlet of nineteen pages, printed at Yokohama, and entitled 'The Food of the Japanese People,' by Thos. B. Van Buren, our Consul-General in Japan, has a threefold interest, to which we shall refer in the order of chronology. In the first place, one cannot help contrasting the former life and works of the average American consul in Japan, in the first days of our intercourse with the newly-opened country, with those of the present. Drawing a veil over the disreputable past, it is gratifying to state that the consuls and their chief now annually furnish a fund of sterling information for the merchant and general reader in the United States that compares very favorably with the British Blue-book reports. In the second place, we cannot help thinking that whether General Van Buren's name was justly or unjustly associated with the "Vienna scandal" of 1873—so industriously circulated by Mr. Jay—he has done honor to his office and Government thus far in his present post. His vigorous manner of handling the "roughs" of the foreign settlement, and purging it of the worst elements from the slums of the Pacific Coast, is still gratefully remembered by Japanese and foreigners. In the third place, the pamphlet before us is but one of the many evidences of his studious ability. From it we learn that to the 36,000,000 Japanese people there are only about 1,000,000 head of cattle, or 2 head to every 100 people; while in the United States there are 73 head of cattle to every 100 people. Of 36,000 cows slaughtered last year (the emasculation of male cattle not being practised, they are not fit for food), more than one-half were consumed by foreigners on shore or ship. Few natives, except officers in the capital, sailors, and soldiers, eat beef. Mutton and pork beyond the treaty ports are hardly yet known. About 200 varieties of fish are eaten, one-half of the people eating fish every day. The food of the masses is "90 per cent. vegetable." The list of food-plants in use, not including sea-plants, was prepared for the pamphlet, with their analyses, by Prof. Edward Kinch, of the Tokio University. A large number of these substances are unknown, or at least unused, in the United States. Of rice, which occupies in its culture one-half of the cultivated land, there are 250 varieties of seed in the country. Millet is extensively used, but bread raised from a "sponge" of yeast is hardly yet known in the popular diet, the old Latin-Portuguese word *pan* being, however, in use. The soy-bean, which in chemical composition closely approaches animal fibre, is extensively cultivated. Probably no country excels Japan in the variety of leguminous plants raised for food. Of tubers and roots, the sweet potato is the most popular, though, strange to say, as much tabooed by the aristocratic classes as onions are supposed to be among us. 16,000,000 bushels of these "Satsuma potatoes" were produced last year, while the "Java" or "Dutch"—our common white potato—is left to foreigners, the native palate not liking it. Lily bulbs—sixteen varieties—serve as food, boiled and served with "drawn butter." The lotus root is eagerly eaten without oblivion of country or decay of patriotism. Poppy seeds powdered as condiment, infusions of salted cherry blossoms for drink, horse-chestnuts, and acorns are among the articles of diet. We do not agree with the author in his assertion that the Japanese "live about the average lives of the laborers of Europe and America, with a table expenditure of about one-sixth or one-seventh that required by the latter." If the General means "expenditure" of money, we agree with him; but if he means one-sixth in weight or bulk of food, or would have us believe that hour for hour in value of work the Japanese laborer is equal to the farm-hand or navvy of England or the United States, then, after long observation and some practical experience with laborers, we have only to say that we wonder at either statement.

A MODERN PUBLISHER.

James T. Fields. Biographical Notes and Personal Sketches, with Unpublished Fragments and Tributes from Men and Women of Letters. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1881.

MRS. FIELDS'S memoir of her husband is chiefly noticeable for its good taste. Great care has evidently been taken to omit the names of all living persons where any offence could possibly have been given; and besides this, as a biography of a husband by a wife, the general tone of the book is to an unusual degree restrained and impersonal. Mr. Fields's life was not in any way remarkable for incident, and derives its chief interest from the really extraordinary number of noted people with whom he was continually thrown in contact through his occupation as a publisher. Mrs. Fields gives numerous sketches by well-known writers of his character, all of which agree that he was a man well adapted for the business he selected, and one whose moral qualities aided him in it. Dr. Holmes is quoted as writing privately a few words about him, which sum up his intellectual and moral traits and his relation to literature very well:

"His mind was as hospitable as his roof, which has accepted famous visitors and quiet friends alike, as if it had been their own. From a very early period in my own life of authorship I have looked to Mr. Fields as one who would be sure to take an interest in whatever I wrote, to let me know all that he could learn about my writings which would please and encourage me and keep me in heart for new efforts; and what I can say for myself many and many another can say with equal truth. Very rarely, if ever, has a publisher enjoyed the confidence and friendship of so wide and various a circle of authors; and so, when he came to give the time to authorship which had always for many years been devoted to literature, he found a listening and reading public waiting for him and welcoming him."

The record of his literary life is not important. We find here and there some entertaining anecdotes derived from his career as a lecturer, or furnished by his European trips. In writing from a large city visited on one of his lecturing tours, he mentions the case of a young man who came to him for his advice, there being no ground for the visit at all except that the young man regarded him as an "educator."

"He said he belonged to one of the oldest families, and wanted my advice as to his education. He wanted to attach himself to me, he said, and be with me constantly. He wished to be carried up as high as the mind of man could go, to the extent of human knowledge."

Another visitor is mentioned who sent up his card, and, on being admitted, politely inquired of the lecturer "if he could engage him for half an hour?" On being asked for what purpose he proposed such an engagement, he replied that it was to read a poem he had written, and get his (Mr. Fields's) opinion upon it.

In the European letters there are one or two things which are new to us, as, for instance, the inquiry attributed by Leigh Hunt to Shelley: "Hunt, we write *love* songs, why shouldn't we write *hate* songs?" Shelley, it seems, disliked the second Mrs. Godwin particularly, believing her to be untrue; and when obliged to dine with her, he used to say that he "would lean back in his chair and languish into hate." It is interesting to notice that Leigh Hunt, who certainly did not lack powers of description, candidly confessed to Mr. Fields the total impossibility of describing his fellow-poet: "No one could describe Shelley; he was always to me as if he were just arrived from the planet Mercury, bearing a winged wand tipped with flame"—a sufficiently vague picture.

It is not as a literary man, but as a publisher, that Mr. Fields is likely to be remembered. As a lecturer, he was successful mainly because he had already created an audience which was ready and waiting to welcome him. In the same way, subjects were ready to his hand, and he had a gift of expression sufficient to meet the by no means lofty standard of ordinary lecture-audiences. As a publisher, he was one of the first men in this country to see what all successful publishers now recognize as a fact, that the great secret of success in the trade lies in playing the part of a benefactor to men of letters. It is only in the present century that this new type of publisher, of which Mr. Fields was a distinguished instance, has become common or even known. The old theory of the relation between publisher and author, as handed down to us by tradition, is that they necessarily stand in a hostile attitude to one another. The author of literary tradition, always in straits for money, is preyed upon by the publisher, who, purchasing from him the products of his mind at a price dictated by his necessity, reaps a large fortune by means of the genius of his victim. The old story of the sale of the copyright of 'Paradise Lost' for £5 is still told as an illustration of the helpless position of writers of the first magnitude, and in some quarters the publisher is still regarded as much the same harpy he was represented to be in the days of Dr. Johnson and Grub Street.

The fact is, probably, that he never was a harpy; that in the last century the reading public was so small, the cost of publication so great, and the means of reaching and developing it so few, that capital was not easily attracted to the business, and that the publisher himself was usually a man of resources altogether too small to justify any great liberality toward unknown literary men bringing their wares for sale. He had no monthly magazine in which he could test the interest of the public in what was offered, nor was there any cheap press which made it part of its daily business to attract the attention of mankind to whatever was going on in the way of intellectual work. In most cases he could not have known in the least, except by mere guesswork, whether the book offered him would sell or would not sell; and if he generally drove a hard bargain, it was probably because he was obliged to. No statistics have ever been collected as to the fortunes which were imagined to be made by publishers during that early period, and, in the absence of any evidence on the subject, it is fair to assume that the whole theory was founded in error—a natural error, which sprang from the peculiarly humiliating position in which authors then found themselves: forced to choose between the supercilious benevolence of a patron and the closeness of a mere man of business. If the publishers of the period before the invention of the cheap press and monthly magazine really ground the face of the poor author, and amassed large sums of money by doing so, is it not probable that the names at least of these great pirates of the intellectual world would have been handed down to us, and that some record would have been preserved of their great fortunes and their luxurious and comfortable lives—some such record as will unquestionably be handed down to future generations of the publishers of our time?

The modern publisher, of whom Mr. Fields

may stand as a fair representative, really combines some of the functions of the old patron and the old bookseller. The business of his life, which he discharged with great credit to himself, with remarkable business sagacity and skill, was not simply to drive bargains with authors for their copyrights, but to furnish them with the means of reaching the public, and to make them profitable to himself by making the relation so established profitable to them. For this purpose he employed capital and made ventures with the same liberality and willingness to take risks that mark all modern commercial undertakings. He did not merely make use of established reputations, but he endeavored to foster and stimulate these, and even to call them into existence, where creation was possible. In looking over the lists of "tributes" and personal sketches contained in Mrs. Fields's volume, one is struck with the fact that many of the persons who here testify to her husband's excellent qualities are writers who but for him, or some publisher like him, would probably never have been in a position to record opinions of this kind at all. For the extension of the peculiar kind of business of which Mr. Fields made so great a success, the possession of a monthly magazine was an enormous and at the same time a novel advantage. In a new country, devoted chiefly to material pursuits, but with a very high general level of education and intellectual interest, and in which the pursuit of literature consequently inspires a somewhat abnormal respect, the pages of a magazine like the *Atlantic Monthly* in its early days were a sort of authoritative documentary announcement of the names of the writers entitled to a position in the American literary world. To obtain a place on the list was itself a great advantage to a young writer. To give him a place if he had any merit, was a great advantage to Mr. Fields, and the ratification of the compact between them amounted to a sort of engagement by which the publisher took the place of a literary manager to the young author, and guaranteed, as it were, that he really was an author. To make a long story short, he became, as the pages of this volume abundantly testify, the benefactor instead of the despoiler of the American literary man. All great publishers of modern times occupy more or less this relation to the literary producer, but Mr. Fields deserves especial notice among them all as having done his work more thoroughly and completely than most of his competitors.

Mrs. Fields has given an excellent impression of her husband's social peculiarities in her memoir. He was neither a scholar nor a genius, nor was he, as he seems himself to have thought, a humorist, although he had a keen enjoyment and appreciation of humor which brought him to the point of successful imitation; but he was in private life a thoroughly good companion—amusing, cheerful, vivacious, an excellent storyteller, with an immense fund of anecdote. He had, too, the invaluable art of making those with whom he was thrown as much at their ease as he was himself, being able to lead or follow in conversation. His social ambition seems to have reinforced his business skill, and enabled him to draw distinguished men into relations with him which had their natural business results. No business man in this country had, probably, so distinguished a circle of literary friends all over the world.

EIDLITZ'S NATURE OF ART.

The Nature and Function of Art, more especially of Architecture. By Leopold Eidlitz. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1881.

"At the present time," says Mr. Eidlitz, "it becomes a serious question whether the rapid progress of thought, and the more general acceptability of new ideas, does not demand a philosophic development of art expression of ideas which will keep pace with general progress, in order to afford to the masses that instruction which can by them be derived only from works of fine art."

With this proposition in view, Mr. Eidlitz has been bold enough to enter upon the difficult field of æsthetics, and to survey the relations between art and modern civilization not merely as a speculator, but as a reformer. The five hundred pages of his book bear witness to his own consciousness of the serious nature of his task, and he has brought to it a vigorous and uncompromising spirit and the courage of strong convictions. His argument is that art should resume its ancient functions as an instructor of the people, and, to this end, that it should lay aside its accumulated weal.h of traditions, should virtually cease to be scholarly, and start from a basis of pure reason. He follows in the main the lines laid down by the greatest writer of the century on the theory of architecture, M. Viollet-le-Duc, and he accepts without hesitation and with all their consequences the purist dogmas of Pugin, Ruskin, and the other modern literary reformers of art, so far as they rest upon the practice of developing forms of art out of structural necessities, as in mediæval monuments. But he does not fail, on occasion, to differ rigorously even from those in his own camp. He exalts the function of art as a practical method of ennobling life and of educating the masses through their emotions, not only in painting, sculpture, and architecture, but in dress, manners, ceremonies, and rituals. He candidly declares that in this service taste is a blind and dangerous guide; that archæology misleads; that the artistic instinct or feeling is to be distrusted, and that enthusiasm is seriously detrimental in the pursuit of fine art; moreover, that the expression and embodiment of ideas in matter, through certain conscientious and intellectual processes of analysis and development, constitute the sort of art which alone is fitted to instruct mankind and to adorn the civilization of the nineteenth century.

The true interest of this volume, however, arises not from its essays in the domain of pure æsthetics, but from the fact that its author, not a mere bookman and theorist, but an architect of established repute, held in high esteem by the profession and entrusted with important work, desires to look beneath the specious and prosperous surface of things, and, with a mind sharpened by professional observation and practice, to dig deep among the roots of art. This spirit of investigation is in full accord with the genius of our time, and, whatever heresies may thereby be evolved, however our convictions or prejudices may be assailed by new and uncompromising deductions of philosophy, there is health in the attempt to get at the truth, if only it compels architects—as this work assuredly must, if they will read it—to a serious work of self-examination.

The portions of the book by which their interest would be most naturally attracted are such as deal with architecture pure and simple, with monuments, form and construction, proportion, style, analysis, criticism, and professional education. These constitute two-thirds of the volume, and bear the marks, always interesting, of a mind practised in habits of design; but they are overweighted by the ponderous logic of the other third, dealing with definitions of art, beauty, ideas, and the ideal—speculative themes, which, however ingeniously discussed, disturb the balance of the work, and distract the mind from that part of it which is the natural and proper function of the author. If these incongruous portions could be eliminated, and if the essential part of the text could be purged of its unnecessary involutions, and of its tendency to abstract speculation, which perplex the student and often make the argument too transcendental in thought and statement for the service of practical and busy men, the work would doubtless have its due effect on a profession which, whatever may be said to the contrary, we believe to be at this moment eager to be guided by convictions instead of prejudices.

Mr. Eidlitz's attitude toward his brethren in the craft is by no means conciliatory. He follows the prevailing fashion among theorists and doctrinaires, and has no extenuation to offer for the condition into which modern architecture has been brought by their efforts. He arraigns them because they are led by taste, which is shallow, and fashion, which is superficial; because they have constituted themselves the conservators of barren traditions which have no essential relationships with modern necessities and modern methods of construction; because they suffer the engineer to lead them in progress, and are willing to embarrass themselves with the guardianship of antiquated formulas. He is never weary of accusing the classic orders of being a fruitful source of architectural corruption, and he even speaks disrespectfully of "the poor Corinthian capital." But when the profession, thus betrayed by one of its own members, and asked to surrender its inheritance of beautiful things, looks into these pages for a compensation, it finds a bare philosophic dogma—viz., a work of architecture is the expression of an idea through the just modelling of construction; it is a thought expressed in matter by logical development; and so on. Although this proposition has an ascetic tinge, which at first may repel the student, he will probably find that essentially it is a truth which lies at the basis of constructive expression in architecture as he is accustomed to regard it, and that the substance of it has been taught him in the schools. Indeed, any conscientious practitioner of architecture is ready to explain, when any one asks, why it is that he has chosen a formula of pilasters and entablature, or of buttress and arch, to express the nature and quality of his structure; why it is that he has concealed his iron and wooden construction with an uninflammable envelope, and why he has used or failed to use pinnacles, balustrades, or any other feature of utility or decoration. You will often find him a reasonable creature, and his works upon the street, whether expressed in terms of Gothic or Renaissance, not infrequently capable of logical defence. But Mr. Ruskin, Mr. Pugin, Mr. Eidlitz, and a score of literary amateurs besides, assure the modern architect that there is no health in him unless he turn his back upon all the other architectural expressions of history, and, by following the logical methods of the mediæval cathedrals, develop in his work "an idea in matter." None of these earnest thinkers have undertaken to enforce this doctrine of exclusion and of philosophic design by the only method which can be appreciated by the architect and bear fruit—viz., by graphic statements illustrating to the eye their processes of composition. The essays of the brilliant Viollet-le-Duc in this direction are of exceeding interest to the architect, are very brave and ingenious and marvellously presented, but they have proved to be impracticable, and they have had no appreciable influence upon the practice of architecture. If Mr. Eidlitz should set forth his own logical processes in the same manner, he would commend his theories to the profession he addresses, and perhaps clearly illustrate that the development of construction is the only safe guide to architectural design; but we do not believe that he could in this or in any other man-

ner logically exclude from the repertory of the modern architect any part of the precious inheritance of beautiful forms, whether classic, mediæval, Saracenic, Indian, Japanese, or other, which are his peculiar property, which cannot be concealed from him, which enrich him far beyond the wildest dreams of any of his predecessors, which constitute alike his greatest privilege and his greatest danger. By the vastness of his inheritance, he is compelled to a labor of comparison and selection, which if he is wise will enrich his legitimate resources of design, but which if he is foolish will embarrass him and make him a spendthrift. As he cannot turn his back upon his wealth, modern architecture must inevitably be eclectic. This constitutes the fundamental distinction between old and new work. By this intelligent catholicity, under the guidance of just laws, and recognizing all new developments in mechanical forces, and all new discoveries in material, the complicated conditions of modern buildings can receive the most characteristic development—a result impossible to be obtained by any system of exclusion, however philosophic.

Mr. Eidlitz very happily says that "architecture tells us as much of Greece as Homer did, and of the Middle Ages more than has been expressed in literature; yet," he adds, "it has been silent since the thirteenth century." The latter proposition is picturesque, but it is not true. It is a statement frequently repeated in other forms in this book. It needs but a glance to show that the function of architecture as a recorder of history has never been exhibited with greater success than in setting forth the spirit of the successive reigns in France and England, for example, from the thirteenth century to the present time. There is a characteristic modification of forms in the architecture respectively of the Stuarts, of Queen Anne, of the Georges, and of Victoria, as in that of the successive Louises of France and in that of the Empire. The historian will one day recognize these as the most significant exponents of the spirit of these modern civilizations. Nay, he will find, even in the much depreciated work of the present century, no doubtful indication of the sort of people we are. Certainly the indication would be clearer if the practitioners of the present time had been taught to eliminate the personal element from their work; they would be better performing their function as educators if they were more prone to observe principles than fashions, and they would produce better art if, in their use of historical forms, they better understood how to make them the expression of the structural conditions. Still, we have an art of the nineteenth century, and it is not entirely despicable.

Mr. Eidlitz frequently insists that a proper use in art of old forms under new conditions is a practical impossibility. But it is evident enough that old forms are applicable to new work to the extent that new constructions are similar to old constructions; as the construction is modified the form is modified with it, and the old type is thus gradually merged into a series of new expressions. The process is perfectly legitimate. No philological purist would venture to say that the only language fit for poetical expression is the pure Anglo-Saxon, and that the polyglot inheritance out of which is compacted the modern English tongue has only served to render it useless as the clothing of lofty thought. All human knowledge advances from the work of the past by processes of deduction, growth, and assimilation. Architecture is no exception to this rule, and, *à priori*, it is not scientific to assume that the experiments and studies of successive generations of artists, through nearly five centuries since the Renaissance, are a mere waste of human endeavor, unworthy to be counted by the student among the treasures of experience. It is more in accordance with the thoughtless prejudice of the doctrinaire than with the prudent and educated conservatism of the professional student to assert that the formula of pilasters and entablature, which is the basis upon which the artists of the Renaissance lavished such boundless wealth of beautiful invention, is not an expression of structure as direct as the buttress and pinnacle; that a window frame may be decorated by mouldings in chamfer and not by mouldings in relief; that it may be covered by a drip moulding or by a canopy, but never by a cornice or a pediment. It must be admitted that the architects of certain periods of the Renaissance, like those of the decadence of the Gothic, have made serious errors; have often made ornament more important than construction, often quoted the classic orders too literally or distorted them too capriciously; that they have misused their elements and misunderstood the essential principles of design; but surely their preponderance of brilliant work is not to be obliterated from the memory of the student because of such offences.

In short, what the modern student of architecture needs is a grammar, not an *index expurgatorius*. To the extent that this prominent architect has, in the work before us, lent his powerful assistance to the fundamental fallacy of exclusion, his book is harmful, unphilosophic, and misleading. But there yet remains enough of sound reasoning and vigorous statement to make it worthy of respectful consideration and a notable addition to the literature of art. Mr. Eidlitz's views of the status of the architect in relation to competitions, of the use and abuse of drawings in architectural education and experience, of proportion and modelling, are wise and well stated, and need to be formulated in just that vigorous, not to say aggressive, style which makes Mr. Eidlitz an unpleasant opponent in argument, but a tower of strength when he is on the right side.

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

The Jeffersons. By William Winter. With illustrations. [American Actor Series.] Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1881. 12mo, pp. x.–252.

Hours with the Players. By Dutton Cook. London: Chatto & Windus; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1881. 8vo, 2 vols., pp. 277, 263.

Genevieve Ward, a biographical sketch, from original material, derived from her family and friends. By Zadel Barnes Gustafson. With portrait. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1882. 16mo, pp. xvii.–261.

Le Voyage de Sarah Bernhardt en Amérique. Par Marie Colombier. Paris: Dreyfuss; New York: Christern. 1881.

MR. HUTTON'S "American Actor Series" began well with Mr. Barrett's 'Forrest,' and is now worthily continued by Mr. Winter's 'Jeffersons.' With the possible exception of the Kembles, of whom at least four generations adorned the stage, the Jeffersons are the farthest-reaching of histrionic families. Thomas Jefferson (1728[?]-1807) was a friend and fellow-actor of Garrick's. His son, Joseph Jefferson (1774-1832) was one of the best of the early American actors, a band of very remarkable ability. His son again, another Joseph Jefferson (1804-1842), and his daughter, Elizabeth, who still survives, held honored positions in the American theatre. In the fourth generation we find the present Mr. Joseph Jefferson, the third of his name, which he has made famous everywhere by his beautiful performance of *Rip Van Winkle*. Acting with his father now as the pert *Fag* of the "Rivals" is a son of Mr. Joseph Jefferson, who bears the name of the founder of the family. It is the story of these lives which Mr. Winter has undertaken to tell, and in telling it he has occasion to set forth much of the entertaining, instructive, and little-known history of the earlier American stage. We imagine that many readers of this volume will here make their first acquaintance with John Bernard, W. B. Wood, F. C. Wemyss, Sam Cowell, and the other actors who have recorded the incidents and accidents of their theatrical career with good-humored garrulity. For lack of a Doran, the annals of the American stage remain unwritten; and yet, in due proportion, they are as important as the annals of the English stage. Sixty years ago the Chestnut Street Theatre of Philadelphia had a stock company second only to those of the patent houses of London, and much stronger than any now in this country or in England. Mr. Winter writes of this period after a careful study of the existing records, and his work shows a most conscientious zeal for exactness. We almost question whether he is not too liberal with his citation and notes; but this is so rare a defect in a histrionic biographer that we may pardon the slight impediment to the narrative. Mr. Winter, at any rate, has read too many such biographies to omit in his turn one of the most indispensable adjuncts—the list of parts played by each actor, from which alone we can judge fairly of his position and powers. There is also an ample index of fifty columns. There are nine illustrations of varying value, the best being a *Rip Van Winkle* from *Lippincott's*, and a *Bob Acres* from *Scribner's*. We have noted two misprints and one omission. The former are on p. ix., "1869" for "1879," and on p. 129 (note), in which Beaumarchais's comedy is called "Le Barbiere de Séville"; and the latter is in the list of parts (p. 194) acted by the present Mr. Jefferson within the past fifteen years, a list which should include *Tracy Coach* in "Baby," played in San Francisco about two years ago.

Altogether Mr. Winter's work is a thorough one, abounding in good criticisms and anecdote. Two or three of the incidents deserve quotation. Macready makes an appearance in these pages only to show his arbitrary temper, while Forrest reveals his early kindliness and uprightness. When Macready came to act in Philadelphia in 1826–7, Jefferson (the second) met him at dinner at the manager's the night before the first rehearsal. Being an invalid, the comedian came upon the stage the next morning with a cane. Macready called the prompter, and commanded him, "Tell that person to put down his cane!" Outraged at this attempt to overbear him, when a polite word of inquiry would have sufficed, Jefferson answered, "Tell Mr. Macready that I shall not act with him during his engagement," and he left the stage (p. 76). A few years later Forrest unwittingly happened to play at the Walnut the night Jefferson was to take his benefit at the Chestnut. He wrote explaining, and offering to give the old comedian a night—an offer which was not then accepted. At a later time, when Jefferson was "managing in Washington, Forrest came there as a star, and he then actually refused one night's emolument. He had said that he would play one night for Jefferson, and he insisted on keeping his word" (p. 121). One more anecdote, this time of the present Mr. Jefferson, and we have done with one of the few really scholarly books ever written about the American stage. Mr. Joseph Jefferson once acted *Bob Brierly* in the "Ticket-of-Leave-Man" at Hobart Town, in Tasmania, before an audience that included more than 600 ticket-of-leave-men!

Mr. Dutton Cook's 'Hours with the Players' has a somewhat higher aim than his 'Book of the Play,' and hits its mark with equal accuracy. It is a collection of brief biographies, the

nucleus being a set of sketches of eight of the chief performers at the original production of the "School for Scandal," a little over a hundred years ago. These were the "creators," as the French phrase has it, of *Sir Peter* and *Lady Teazle*, *Sir Oliver*, *Joseph*, and *Charles Surface*, *Sir Benjamin Backbite*, *Mr. Crabtree*, and *Mrs. Candour*. These eight chapters are preceded by an account of the affray between Will Mountfort and Lord Mohun—in which Mr. Cook fights against both Macaulay and Thackeray in defence of Lord Mohun's innocence and Mrs. Bracegirdle's character—and sketches of Peg Woffington and Perdita Robinson. In the second volume Mr. Cook considers the careers of Mr. and Mrs. Baddeley, the marriage of the young Irish actor, O'Brien, to a daughter of the Earl of Ilchester (a marriage which Thackeray paraphrased in the 'Virginians'), the wooing of Miss Smithson by Hector Berlioz, the lives of J. B. Booth, Farren, Mrs. Glover, C. J. Mathews, Rachel, Charlotte Cushman, and Charles Kean, and closes with a note on Charles Fechter. Many of these essays are admirably done. One gets a better idea of C. J. Mathews's life from these fifty pages of Mr. Cook's than from the bulky tomes which Charles Dickens compiled. Many of the later actors Mr. Cook has himself seen and is able to criticise at first hand. The others he reconstructs by the aid of contemporary criticism and the many stage memoirs. He has the sense of proportion and the gift of interesting, is intelligent and unprejudiced, and is as widely read in the dramatic *ana* of England and France as Mr. Winter is in the dramatic *ana* of England and America. Of the mass and variety of American dramatic biography Mr. Cook has evidently no conception. His essays on the elder Booth and on Charlotte Cushman are written with an evident desire to be just and to be as full as possible; but they are little more than abstracts of Mr. Gould's and Miss Stebbins's volumes, supplemented by a few English authorities. There are reflections on the early American stage (ii., pp. 60, 145, 153, for example) which Mr. Cook would doubtless not have made had he been familiar with the matter collected in Mr. Winter's book, or with the authorities from whom Mr. Winter derived it. Despite this blemish, which affects mainly the two American chapters, we take pleasure in recommending 'Hours with the Players'; it gives decidedly the best account to be found anywhere of many of the chief figures of the British stage during the past century and a half.

Mrs. Gustafson's life of Miss Ward is a very queer book. Just how queer it is may be best shown by a schedule of its contents. It begins with a song, "Genevieve," written by Mrs. Gustafson, followed by the music composed for it by Miss Philp; after this comes a preface explaining how and why the book came to be written; and then a letter of Ristori's. This is all preliminary and not paged. The book itself begins with an epigraph quoted from Miss Elizabeth Stuart Phelps: "I can conceive of few things more stimulating to a woman than a gifted mother," after which we have two score pages about Miss Ward's mother and brother, and their doings in Paris during the siege, while Miss Ward herself was in New York. Next is a "Song of the Serf," which we are informed was "written to Miss Genevieve Ward, during her visit to Florence, by Buchanan Read." Then, at last, the real biography begins with five pages (41–46) on Miss Ward's birth and childhood, and twenty-four pages (47–71) describing her forced marriage with the Russian Guerbel—an account, by the way, which differs somewhat from that given in the pamphlet biography circulated in New York when "Madame Guerrabella" was about to appear here in opera some fifteen or more years ago. Next is a page of "Lines to Genevieve Ward, written in Florence," and signed Buchanan Read. Thirty pages more (75–104) tell us of Miss Ward's musical education, of her successes as an operatic singer under the name of "Guerrabella"—Italianized from Guerbel—and of the loss of her singing voice. A sonnet in French by M. Charles Boissière precedes an account (pp. 107–143) of her studies for the dramatic stage and her appearances in Paris and London. At least ten of these thirty-six pages are filled with extracts from newspaper articles, and five more with letters of compliment and congratulation, of which the only one of consequence was written by M. Regnier. After another sonnet ("Katherine," by Mr. G. W. Peters), we are told (pp. 147-169) of Miss Ward's professional visit to America in 1878. Another chapter (173-208) sets forth the production of "Forget-me-Not," with elaborate publication of letters (evidently meant to be private) and of random criticism copied from the scrap-book which is an actress's favorite possession. Strangely enough, the most discriminating praise Miss Ward ever received (to our knowledge) is not quoted. It appeared in *Scribner's* in an acute and incisive anonymous article on the "London Theatres." The Appendix (pp. 209–254) is a reprint of the legal documents in the case of Genevieve Ward, plaintiff, against Theodore Moss and Lester Wallack, defendants—a case which was still in the courts. Last of all is an "Index of Names," not of persons and plays mentioned in the book, but "of families that have intermarried with the Ward family and its descendants of various names, as given in 'The Ward Family,' published by Samuel G. Drake, Boston, 1851." This last eccentricity is typical of the helter-skelter composition of the whole book. The genealogical reference, however, serves to remind us of a highly amusing anecdote (p. 93) of "Tom" Corwin's calling on Mrs. Ward, claiming a relationship by marriage, and declaring that he had just been visited by two Hungarian officers, sent by the Hungarian people to offer him the crown of Hungary, because he was of the family of the "good king Matthias" Corvinus! Altogether the book is odd in its English, its construction, and still more in the taste it displays. It is greatly to be regretted that a lady of as many accomplishments as Miss Ward should have allowed so silly and puerile a production to be published as by authority.

This book about an American actress was published shortly after one about a French actress, and as the one should have been called 'The Autobiography of Mrs. Ward, with passages from the life of her daughter, Miss Genevieve Ward,' so the other might be entitled 'Adventures of Mlle. Colombier in America, with incidental anecdotes of her former friend, Mlle. Bernhardt.' Save me from my friends, must be Mlle. Bernhardt's fervent wish. She has been often abused, but never so neatly shown up as by Mlle. Colombier. Her venality, her greed, her carelessness of her art, her vanity, and many another of her little sins are here set down, not in malice, but merely as facts. Mlle. Colombier does not think much of these United States or of the inhabitants thereof. In this respect she resembles the authors of 'Offenbach en Amérique' and 'Rachel au Nouveau Monde.' M. Beauvallet, however, who wrote of Rachel's visit, did find one American actor to praise—Mr. William Warren, of Boston. Mlle. Colombier finds none, and falls foul of Miss Clara Morris with feminine ferocity. Thirty or forty caricatures from *Puck* and its now defunct rival *Chic* adorn Mlle. Colombier's pages.

MORSELLI ON SUICIDE.

Suicide: An Essay in Comparative Moral Statistics. By Henry Morselli, M.D., Physician-in-Chief to the Royal Asylum for the Insane, etc. Revised and abridged by the author for the English Version. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1882. 12mo, pp. xi.–388.

In a graceful preface, Professor Morselli says that he has authorized the present translation, which forms the latest number of the International Scientific Series, chiefly from the desire of making it known to foreigners that "Italy also works in the new method of philosophy." One need not look further than the table of contents to perceive that these studies have taken their intellectual initiative from "the great country of Shakespeare and Darwin." Dividing his subject into two parts—analysis and synthesis—he discusses, under the first head, the increase and regularity of suicide in civilized countries; the "cosmico-natural influences," such as climate, season, even the hours of the day, which influence suicide; the ethnological and the social influences; the biological, social, and psychological conditions of the individual; and the laws and the individual conditions which determine the methods and the places of suicide. In the second part of the work (which has been curtailed in the present translation) Dr. Morselli indicates, according to the laws of evolution in civilized societies, the rationale of the facts that have been discussed, and says that the cure of suicide is "the formation of character."

To give the substance of Dr. Morselli's exposition would be impossible, within our limits even in an abstract; for the work is itself the abstract of most voluminous data, gathered during many years by many observers, official and volunteer, from nearly all the countries of the civilized world. It is seldom that so large a mass of statistics is so well and carefully handled as in this book, not only as to the clear presentation of the data, but also as to caution in their acceptance and a clear perception of modifying data. The number of European suicides is very great (Dr. Morselli treats but incidentally of the American); and the almost overwhelming array of data is treated with equal prudence and lucidity, as we hope to indicate by such analysis as can here be made.

"Suicide," says Prof. Morselli, "appears less susceptible of positive appreciation than all other expressions of the human will. The character which classical paganism attributed to suicide was simply individual: the famous phrase of the Stoics, *Mori licet cui vivere non placet*, is nothing more than the formula of this individualism. Religion and laws have never risen to the consideration of this crime under the more generic aspect of a tendency certainly hurtful, but one connected with the natural development of society. It was necessary to collect all the facts, to unite them, to consider their analogies and differences; to do, in short, precisely the reverse of what philosophy had done."

What are some of the main data which the analytic method gives us? Suicide is becoming more frequent with each quinquennium (table iii.) in all parts of Europe where statistics have been taken. The only exceptions are during 1851–5 and 1866–70, in Norway and Denmark respectively. Since 1865 suicides have been more frequent in the kingdom of Saxony than in any other state; for the ten years (1866–75) they numbered 298 per 1,000,000 yearly. At the other extreme of the scale stand Italy and the Slavs of the south, with 35 and 20 suicides per 1,000,000 respectively. In England the ratio has long been remarkably steady. From 1836 to 1875 it rose only from 63 to 66 per 1,000,000; but Professor Morselli warns us that in England "many suicides figure in the category of 'mental alienation.'" The north of Europe, from the time of Tacitus, "has been acknow-

ledged as the classic ground of suicide"; and from south to north the suicides increase as a rule with the latitude. Italy, Spain, and Portugal give the minimum proportions; the maximum occurs at 50° north latitude. The area of predilection for suicide crosses the Continent from the northeast to the southwest, and lies between the isothermal lines of 7½° and 12½° centigrade.

"Although the influence of climate cannot be detached from the social and ethnical elements, it is, in all probability, the most powerful of them all. From the northeast of France to the eastern borders of Germany a *suicidigenous* area exists, where suicide reaches the maximum of its intensity. The influence of Paris, notwithstanding its great intensity, does not extend to the side of the Loire, the Meuse, and the Ardennes; in all the rest of western Europe the other point of suicidal influence is formed by the purely Germanic countries."

With regard to orography, suicides are most frequent where the country is low; to hydrography, in the region of the great rivers; to geology, in alluvial countries of the more recent epochs (Denmark, the Germanic plain, the Île de France). By seasons and months, suicide is most frequent when the earth is in aphelion, least frequent in perihelion; June is the favorite month for suicide; in December it is the least frequent. For the influences of meteorological conditions on suicide no data exist; but it has been shown that the accessions of madness and epilepsy coincide with atmospheric and electric disturbances. "It is most probable that the moon exercises more or less influence on suicides, as it does on fits of madness and epilepsy, which are generally aggravated at the time of the waning moon (full moon and second quarter)." In this period, according to Schiaparelli, cloudy and stormy weather prevails. As to calendar divisions of time, Brierre de Boismont has shown that in France suicides are most frequent during the first ten days of the month, and especially frequent on the first and second; and of the week days, on Tuesday, Thursday, and Monday.

"Saturday," Professor Morselli remarks, "is the favorite day of those who live by manual labor, the day on which the workman receives his pay, the day of joy, of material well-being, of moral quiet; and this content of mind lasts through Sunday, on which day the gluttonous, dissipated man wastes the money earned during the week. The new week begins with satiety, remorse, intolerance of work."

Women, however, commit suicide most frequently on Sunday—an unexplained fact of much psychological interest. As to the time of day, the distribution of suicides is not parallel, as might be expected, with the hours of silence, quiet, and isolation; it favors the active part of the day, and this is a reason why the months in which the daylight is longest—June, May, and July—show the largest number of suicides. The hours of the maximum are from 6 A. M. until noon.

Coming now to ethnic influences, Professor Morselli says: "The purer the German race, the stronger the Germanism of a country, the more it reveals in its psychical character an extraordinary propensity to self-destruction. . . . Slavism tends to lower the average of suicides as Germanism elevates it." With regard to the aggregate of Europeans, the frequency of suicide has a nearly definite relation to the stature, though it is not pretended that this is anything more than an incidental relation. One who starts from Norway, where the maximum stature is found, and passes "over England, Belgium, and France, or over Denmark, Germany, and Austria, to reach Sicily or Spain, will perceive the stature of the population diminish progressively from 1.72 metres to 1.60, and in general, also, the averages of suicides from above 100 to below 20. But if the various nations are considered separately, this connection between stature and suicide is often wanting," though "the frequency of suicide in the various parts of Italy generally is in a direct ratio with stature," and it is most frequent among the brachycephalic races — Ligurians, Venetians, Modenese, Lombards, and Livornese.

Among social influences, that of religion has a noticeable influence upon suicide; its frequency "is in states of Catholic religion, 58 per million, in Protestant States 190, in Greek 40; but here comes in the great influence of Slavism." In Bavaria, Prussia, Würtemberg, and Austria, the average among Protestants is 102.7; among Catholics, 62.3; among all other Christians, 36.2; and among the Jews, 48.4 per million. "Protestantism is an eminently mystic religion, tending to develop the reflective powers of the mind and to exaggerate the inward struggles of the conscience. This exercise of the thinking organs, which, when they are weak by nature, is always damaging, renders them yet more susceptible of morbid impressions."

As to intelligence, it is those countries and classes of individuals which have the highest standards of general culture that manifest the strongest suicidal tendency. "The Germanic peoples are more cultivated than all the other European nations. . . . Prussia stands first, both as to education and suicides; France comes next, second in both characteristics"; last come Italy and Hungary. There is a direct relation between the number of suicides and the school attendance and the number of newspapers (table xviii.). The relation of public morality to suicide is not a definite one, so far as researches have gone; that of criminality is little more so, though the conclusion has been reached that when the annual average of suicides is on the increase, a synchronous increase of crime also generally occurs. Economical and political causes, such as short crops, high prices, a dense population, everywhere multiply suicides. The states which have the most railways, as well as newspapers, have generally the most suicides. City life favors them; Paris has an influence in this respect which extends into neighboring departments, and London and Berlin have always had more suicides than the other parts of the state.

Turning to the individual influences which determine suicide, Professor Morselli finds that sex and age are the most important. In every country the proportion of suicides is three or four men to one woman. The Spanish women, however, have a strong suicidal tendency, perhaps attributable to the force of their passions; Italian women, in a similar climate, manifest no such special tendency. In each sex suicide increases in direct ratio with the age (figures 5, 6) until about the sixty-fifth year. It is more frequent at the critical periods of life; and the diminution of suicide among the old "belongs to the weakening of character and to the want of energy natural to the last period of life." Taking both sexes together, the ages between fifty and sixty-five are those of the strongest suicidal tendency. These estimates are founded, of course, upon the numbers of the population surviving at the different ages in question. The curve constructed on the actual number of suicides reduced to percentages (figure 4), is regularly parabolic; while "in each of the sexes separately considered the curve becomes analogous to the aggregate of the whole population. . . . Two periods in life are characterized by a special inclination toward suicide: the first from youth to complete manhood; the second, during manhood, extends to almost the whole of old age. . . . The diminution in the last period of life is much more irregular than in all the other conditions: strongest in Würtemberg, less strong in Sweden, Belgium, and England, very weak in France, Bavaria, and Italy; failing almost entirely in Denmark, Saxony, Austria, and perhaps Prussia." Suicides in childhood are exceptional: "There are, however, suicides committed by mere infants of five and even three years old." In the French statistics of the eight years 1866–68, 1870–72, 1874–75, there are registered thirty-eight suicides of children of thirteen years, eleven of twelve, sixteen of eleven, six of ten, four of nine, three of eight, and eight of seven years only

After sex and age, the civil status is the most important of the individual influences in question. In a striking graphic delineation (p. 233), Prof. Morselli shows at a glance the relative influence upon suicide, for both sexes, of the civil status and of the family, a shaded column representing each of the following conditions respectively: For Italy, the unmarried, the married, the widowed; for France, the married with children, the childless married, the widowed with children, and the childless widowed. In Italy the married men and the unmarried women (in all cases taking equal numbers of the classes compared) commit suicide least frequently, the widows and the widowers the oftenest; in France one out of ten of the childless widowers commits suicide, and one in forty-eight of the childless widows; while of either sex the married with children are the least prone to suicide. Still, says Prof. Morselli, "the proportion of married women who inflict death upon themselves deserves all the attention of psychology; it denotes that woman does not often find in matrimony the happiness of her youthful dreams."

The influence of professions upon suicide is a study of difficulty, because accurate and uniform *professional* censuses of population are still rare; even for Prussia no exact conclusions can be reached on this point, though the most ample and precise information on the professions of the suicides is given. Wagner's figures on the million for the French industries are as follows: Millers, 97; bakers, 116; butchers, 164; tailors, 191; shoemakers, 109; workers in textile industries, 176; in metal industries, 260 In Italy those who are skilled in "food industries" are the most prone to suicide, and, on the other hand, those of the highest culture—literary and scientific men. Both in Italy, France, and Prussia, "the known disposition of doctors to become mad (Verga)" considerably swells the return of suicides. Soldiers, too, and especially the officers, are prone to suicide; and the tendency augments with the length of service.

The means of suicide would seem to be a matter of voluntary choice; but this so-called voluntary action is as regular and uniform as the phenomena of birth and death. Each country has its predilections, but in all the rope is chosen most frequently, and drowning next; then firearms, then weapons which cut or stab, and then all other means. Even the localities selected by the suicide are determined by constant laws, which are here studied with the author's usual thoroughness.

In the second part of the work Dr. Morselli gives a brief explanatory synthesis of the subject which he has treated so elaborately. "Suicide," he says, "is an effect of the struggle for existence and of human selection, which works according to the laws of evolution among civilized peoples." "Suicide is not an act depending upon the personal spontaneity of man, but certainly neither less than, nor unlike, ordinary births and deaths, crimes, or mental diseases, is a social fact." "The idea of free will in the human microcosm agrees with that of the doctrine of chance in the universal macrocosm (Herzen)." A lecturer upon suicide said recently that his subject had in all probability been seriously meditated, at one time or another, by each

one of his hearers. It is certainly one of general interest, and Prof. Morselli's treatment of it, at once an attractive and a thoroughly scientific one, will draw to his valuable book the attention it deserves.

The Formation of Vegetable Mould through the Action of Worms, with Observations of their Habits. By Charles Darwin. With Illustrations. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881. Pp. 326.

ONE of the secrets of Mr. Darwin's success in interpreting nature lies in his ability "to sum up the effects of a continually recurrent cause," however slight the momentary results may appear. The means by which he has produced such a marvellous change in modern modes of thought respecting the origin of species are similar to those used with such effect forty or fifty years ago by Lyell to establish a similar principle respecting the action of inanimate forces in geology. The volume before us—the result of forty years of careful observation—would have delighted the author of the 'Principles of Geology,' for it illustrates in a striking manner the enormous geological effects which may be produced by a cause supposed to be insignificant, but which, as usual, turns out to be *unnoticed* rather than insignificant. Mr. Darwin estimates that there are in gardens 53,767 worms to the acre, and that they would weigh 356 pounds. Having four or five gizzards apiece, each worm is able to digest a large amount of coarse food, and to eat his "peck of dirt" in a brief space of time. Careful weighing of the "castings" brought to the surface by worms shows that they sometimes amount to sixteen tons per acre annually—sufficient to produce two inches of so-called "vegetable mould" in ten years. Since worms often burrow to a depth of seven or eight feet, it follows that they may play no mean part in undermining and burying loose stones and monuments of art. Through their agency a field near Mr. Darwin's house has been cleared of cobble stones within his remembrance, and this not so much from the fact that the pebbles have been undermined as because fine earth has been brought to the surface. Many of the foundations of Roman buildings recently discovered in Great Britain are preserved underneath this constantly accumulating deposit of "earth mould," which is from two to three feet deep over the ruins at Wroxeter. We shall wonder if some bold theorist does not soon attempt to account for the prairies of the West as the work of worms. The same action of worms which, in favoring circumstances, covers the surface with humus, in other circumstances promotes denudation, since it exposes the fine earth to the action of both wind and water.

The literary skill of Mr. Darwin appears to special advantage in this volume. He has invested a most unpromising subject with the charm of a romance, his style reminding one of Robinson Crusoe. Children, as we know from experience, read the volume with eager interest, and the philosopher may find much food for reflection in the amount of intelligence described as displayed by an animal so devoid of senses as Mr. Darwin proves the worm to be. Feeling and a faint sense of smell seem the only avenues through which the objects of sense perception penetrate the worm's mind, yet worms show signs of fear, are somewhat social, and have some power of attention; but we are sorry to say they are cannibals. After perusing the book it is difficult not to share in the enthusiasm of the author's closing paragraph:

"The plough is one of the most ancient and most valuable of man's inventions; but long before he existed the land was in fact regularly ploughed, and still continues to be thus ploughed, by earthworms. It may be doubted whether there are many other animals which have played so important a part in the history of the world as have these lowly-organized creatures."

The Hero of Cowpens. A Centennial Sketch. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1 vol. 8vo.

THE preface to this volume contradicts its title. The hero of Cowpens stand on cover and frontispiece, while the prologue promises to show him the hero of all for which Arnold has been praised. The contrast is not needed for Morgan's fame, which shines distinct and peculiar among Revolutionary reputations. This memoir states, with complete frankness, the obscure origin, the narrow early life, and the lack of education or social influence of its subject. The striking features of the portrait redeem the commonplace setting, for which there is therefore the less need of such apology as is offered in suggestions of what parentage the Greeks in like case would have invoked, and in the boast that he was "the son of God, who is able to raise up his children from the stones."

Daniel Morgan was a yeoman commander. Not used to be called in counsel upon great operations, nor placed in separate responsible command, his qualities made him invaluable as an auxiliary in a war waged with militia levies in a rude country. They were promptness, subordination, close sympathy with his men, and the special training, for him and them, of experts in woodcraft and sharpshooting. Courage and endurance were matters of course, and honor and honesty innate with him. He was an aid for the most part to commanders of no high capacity. But the work he had to do was not the worse done because it was sometimes ill guided. What was laid upon him he performed perfectly, and it may be that more generous leadership might have afforded him greater occasion for independent achievement. His hardy constitution and rough early training enabled him to carry his men with little loss to the end of Arnold's Quixotic winter march through the wilds and torrents of Maine. In the assault on Quebec he was the only captain who fulfilled his task, actually taking a battery, entering the lower town, capturing "whole platoons" of prisoners, and carrying all before him till Montgomery's fall defeated the attack, and compelled his surrender. On his release, after eight months' captivity, the same qualities of hardiness and vigilance commended him to Washington, who placed him in command of 500 picked men, serving through the Jersey campaign on scouting and outpost duty, and on occasion as formidable skirmishers. In a letter to Washington, written four years later, he regrets that "during the whole course of the war he had never on any important event had the honor of serving particularly under him." Transferred to the northern army of Gates, he justified Washington's expressed dependence on him, his officers, and men. At Bemus' Heights the most stubborn fighters were his marksmen, and the decision of Saratoga hung upon the rifle-ball that by his special orders cut down Fraser. Yet he was barely mentioned to Congress, and not at all rewarded by them. After Burgoyne's surrender, eighteen months of service near Philadelphia and at Valley Forge followed, severe and skilful, but not conspicuous. In June, 1779, impaired health, together with a keen feeling of the neglect of Congress and the slight recognition of his value as an officer, led to his resignation.

Upon Gates's appointment the following year to a Southern command, he sought the help of Morgan once more. The retired colonel accepted such amends as he offered for his own injustice, but refused for a time to serve without deserved promotion. Moved at last by the wretchedness of South Carolina, whose citizens, says Bancroft, "suffered more, and dared more, and achieved more, than the men of any other State," and spurred by the news of Arnold's treason, Morgan yielded, and joined Gates in September, 1780. Congress soon after gave him the rank of brigadier-general, several hundred picked men were placed under his command, and by the orders of Greene, who soon superseded Gates, he occupied the northern border of South Carolina, with a force about half that of the main army, and with a large discretion as to its management.

The battle of Cowpens, fought in January, 1781, aided to make Yorktown in October possible. It was forced upon Morgan, yet he avoided being taken at a disadvantage. The ground was well chosen, the order skilfully arranged, and the movements carried out as planned. The commander's personal influence supplied the lack of training for many of his men who arrived the night before, and held them steady to their work. The complete success of the battle was the more brilliant as it was won over the most formidable partisan who appeared on the other side during the war. And it was followed up by a masterly retreat, made necessary by Cornwallis's approach, and managed so skilfully by a sudden doubling on the line of march as to rescue the fruits of victory in prisoners and spoils. Within a month afterward Morgan's failing health compelled him to resign—in February, not in October, as a misprint reads—and though he afterward joined Lafayette for a few weeks during the summer, he was obliged to deny himself the satisfaction of sharing the struggle and the honor of Yorktown.

The battle of Cowpens and its sequel gave earnest of a military genius which, if earlier recognized, might have grown conspicuous, with great results to the cause. Morgan's rank and fame were won by hard work of the march and field, not by plying in the camp the politician's arts. He had no chances for favoritism and no taste for intrigue. Extracts given from his correspondence show the esteem in which the worthiest of his brothers-in-arms held him; and the constant friendship of Lafayette testifies to his manliness and honorable character. It was hardly worth the author's while, for the sake of throwing out these qualities in a high light, to grind up Arnold again into black paint for a background. Morgan's native vigor, too, and his simple gallantry deserve to be celebrated in rather more dignified style than one that decorates itself with tags from Scripture, Shakspere, and the classics.

Through Cities and Prairie Lands. Sketches of an American Tour. By Lady Duffus Hardy. New York: R. Worthington. 1881.

LADY DUFFUS HARDY'S book is the record of a tour made by herself and a companion, a year or two ago, in Canada and the United States. Her narrative begins with the departure from England in the steamship *Sardinian*, and continues with a detailed recital of the incidents of her visits to Quebec, Montreal, New York, and Chicago, the experiences of the overland journey (via Salt Lake City), to California, an account of her stay in San Francisco, and sundry excursions in the neighborhood, and of her return thence, with short visits at Denver, St. Louis, Washington, and Boston. Lady Harvey is an observant traveller and a pleasant writer. She is always of cheerful mood and a friendly critic, especially of what she sees in the United States. But these qualities are hardly strong enough to lift her narrative much above the level of commonplace things. For some readers in her own country who have never travelled in America, her book may possess an interest which it is not likely to have for general readers here.

Still, even for us a special interest attaches to it from the fact of its publication almost simultaneously with Mrs. Dall's description of a journey, for the greater part, over the same ground and under somewhat similar circumstances. The two books, contrasted one with the other, afford a noteworthy illustration of what very different views two persons may take of the same thing. In the present instance there are two tourists, both ladies, both, as their statements imply, experienced travellers, both in many respects similarly situated, being unaccompanied by male escort, and both going over the same route at nearly the same time—so nearly, indeed, that when, on leaving Ogden, Lady Hardy pictures one of her "restless and lively" fellow-travellers, the recent reader of Mrs. Dall's experience at that place, not familiar with her personal appearance, might be pardoned the momentary suspicion that they went by the same train; and yet their impressions of many things are as different as light and shade. Mrs. Dall says: "I did not find it easy to travel alone beyond the Rocky Mountains. On the contrary, for the first time, I found myself commanding neither attention nor respect on the ground of simple womanhood." Lady Hardy says:

"In the next section to ours is a pretty young girl travelling quite alone from Boston to Arizona. A lady can do that in this country without running the slightest risk of annoyance or inconvenience in any way. The conductors and all the train officials devote themselves most loyally to her service, and are always at hand to give her any advice she may require. They pass her on from train to train or from stage to stage till she arrives at the end of her journey, having received the same courteous attention throughout. Indeed, to thoroughly enjoy travelling in perfect comfort and freedom from anxiety one must be an unprotected female."

Mrs. Dall found no palace or drawing-room car on the overland route—"only the ordinary Pullman sleeping-car, or silver-palace, with the usual abuses." She had great difficulty in managing her hand-baggage, as the colored porters expect large fees, and devote themselves only to men whose boots they black and from whom they receive much money. At Ogden, where Mrs. Dall arrived in a torrent of rain, she had "quite a long distance to go with three pieces of hand baggage. I could not," she says, "persuade a porter to touch them, unless I would leave them exposed on the platform at his discretion. I hired a boy to lift two, and then insisted on the shelter of a smoking-car for myself and my baggage, until a gentleman from Brooklyn procured my berth ticket. The three colored porters could not have been more disobliging if they had been three fiends." On the other hand, Lady Hardy finds the Pullman car "luxurious"; at Ogden, upon leaving the "rich, brown, sombre-hued Pullman cars" and resuming the journey on the Central Pacific in the "silver-palace cars," she finds "an obliging official" who "stands at the entrance of every carriage and shows you to your special section as courteously as you would be shown into the reception-room of a friend." She sees nothing fiendish in the porter. On the contrary, she describes the colored servant of the hotel-car on the Chicago and Northwestern Railway as a "good-humored negro, 'God's image carved in ebony.'" And so, throughout the two books, in a greater or less degree, the light that falls on Mrs. Dall's picture is opposite to that which brightens Lady Hardy's sketch.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Sand, George. Indiana. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1.

Shairp, J. C. Aspects of Poetry, being Lectures at Oxford. Oxford: Clarendon Press. $2 75.

Sugar and Spice, and All that's Nice. London: Strahan & Co.

Symonds, J. A. Renaissance in Italy. Part 1: The Age of the Despots. Part 2: The Revival of Learning. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 2 vols., each $3 50.

Townsend, Mary Ashley. Down the Bayou, and Other Poems. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1 50.

Tucker, J. H. A Manual of Sugar Analysis. New York: D. Van Nostrand.

Ward, Mrs. T. H. Milly and Olly; or, A Holiday among the Mountains. New York: Macmillan & Co. $1 50.

Watson, J. W. Beautiful Snow, and Other Poems. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $3.

Wilson, J. Studies of Modern Mind and Character. London: Longmans, Green & Co.

Worman, J. H. First French Book, after the Pestalozzian Method. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 35 cents.

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ERRATA.

Page 28, col. 2, line 3 and *passim*. For "Wylde" read "Wilde."

Page 45, col. 2, line 38. For "life-secretaryship" read "life-senatorship."

Page 49, col. 2, line 38. For "1781" read "1788."

Page 219, col. 3, line 14. Insert "to be" after "ought."

Page 239, col. 2, line 12 from bottom. For "Charles II." read "Charles I."

Page 293, col. 2, lines 3, 4. For "Home Rule! Home Rule!" read "Home Rule, Rome Rule."

Page 321, col. 2. In notice of *Fashion in Deformity*, for "Fowler" read "Flower" *passim*.

Page 325, col. 3, line 36 from bottom. For "three" read "two."

Page 406, col. 2, last line. For "forty-second" read "forty-sixth."